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Which work-life benefits do managers approve: The role of motivational and interpersonal orientations

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Abstract

Work-life policies and programs, such as flextime and working from home, are intended to assist employees with balancing work and personal commitments. Employee uptake of these arrangements, however, has been constrained, with managers at times reluctant to facilitate employees' access. The focus of this thesis was understanding the decision-making role assumed by managers when they evaluate a request from an employee to utilise a work-life benefit.

The research sought to firstly identify the information that influences managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Three information cues were examined: the gender and performance of the subordinate submitting the request, along with whether a career break or working from home was requested. The research also sought to identify the motivational and interpersonal orientations of managers that influence their use of these information cues and ultimately their decisions about subordinates' requests. Five orientations were hypothesised to affect managers' decisions: regulatory focus, affective commitment, self-construals, implicit theories and interpersonal trust. The selection of these variables, along with the formulation of the hypotheses, were guided by four theoretical frameworks: work disruption theory, dependency theory, institutional theory and helping behaviour.

Judgment analysis was applied to evaluate the decisions reached by 121 participants with managerial experience. The managers responded to 16 vignettes, indicating whether the subordinate's request for a work-life benefit would be approved or denied. Managers were found to be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than working from home. They were also more inclined to approve requests from high performers than average performers. The gender of subordinates did not significantly affect whether requests were approved, however. Furthermore, managers' use of these information cues, and their overall tendency to approve requests for work-life benefits, were influenced by their regulatory focus, self-construal, implicit theory and interpersonal trust. To illustrate, prevention focused managers – managers that prioritise immediate duties over future aspirations – were more likely to approve requests for career breaks than requests for working from home.

The results align to the proposition that managers reach decisions that are intended both to reduce disruption to the organisation but also to retain employees upon whom they are dependent. Managers are also influenced by institutional pressures to offer work-life benefits to particular employees and by the desire to help subordinates by approving requests for work-life benefits. Thus, the research confirms the relevance of

work disruption theory, dependency theory, institutional theory and helping behaviour for explaining managerial decision making on work-life benefits.

The findings also provide practical insights about practices organisations need to implement to promote more consistent and equitable decisions by managers. In particular, organisations should address the incentives bestowed on managers for approving work-life benefit requests and the training undertaken by managers, along with the guidelines established for decision making that detail the criteria for evaluating requests. The mindset with which managers approach the decision-making task of reviewing requests should also be considered.

Declaration

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at any university or equivalent institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Signature:

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Acronyms

ACS – Affective Commitment Scale

AWA – alternate work arrangement

CCS – Continuance Commitment Scale

FSSB – family-supportive supervisor behaviours

FWA – flexible work arrangement

GRFM – General Regulatory Focus Measure

HCWS – high-commitment work systems

HPWS – high-performance work systems

I/O – industrial and organisational

ITS – Interpersonal Trust Scale

JDM – judgment and decision making

M-C SDS – Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale

NCS – Normative Commitment Scale

RFQ – Regulatory Focus Questionnaire

SCS – Self-Construal Scale

SJT – social judgment theory

VIF – variance inflation factor

Chapter 1: Introduction

Jane and Henry are employed full-time as accountants. Jane recently returned from parental leave, but is struggling to balance her caring responsibilities with work commitments. She spoke with her manager Lucy about working from home one day a week to reduce the time spent commuting. Lucy denied the request, claiming Jane's role requires her to be physically present in the office. Jane is disappointed with the decision and is pursuing a more flexible position in another organisation.

Henry also requested an adjustment to his work schedule. He wants to spend additional time volunteering in the community. His manager Peter agreed and together they are re-designing Henry's role to reduce the hours to part-time. This thesis sought to explain the decisions of Lucy and Peter; that is, what factors influence the decisions of managers when they evaluate a subordinate's request for a work-life benefit.

Working from home and part-time hours are examples of work-life benefits, which are defined as programs, policies and practices that are provided to employees to assist with the management of work and personal responsibilities (T. D. Allen, 2012; Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011). These arrangements facilitate the achievement of both a paid work role and other important life roles, such as family, education or leisure (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Work-life benefits can be formally offered by the organisation and made available informally to employees by their manager (Eaton, 2003; Glass & Estes, 1997; Kossek, Hammer, Thompson, & Burke, 2014).

Organisations provide work-life policies and programs to realise benefits – both for the business and for employees (Kossek et al., 2014). These potential benefits, however, have not been completely realised because the initiatives often remain underutilised (McDonald, Brown, & Bradley, 2005). Managers are central to the disconnect that exists between the provision of work-life policies and programs by organisations and the utilisation of these arrangements by employees, especially because employees' access to work-life benefits tends to be governed by managers (Bond & Wise, 2003).

Indeed, managers at times refuse requests of employees to utilise some work-life benefits. In a randomly selected representative sample of 2,887 working Australians, Skinner, Hutchinson, and Pocock (2012) found that 21 percent of employees had requested a change in work arrangement in the previous 12 months. Of these requests, 13 percent were rejected. However, 23 percent of employees were not content with their current work arrangement but had not requested a change. Furthermore, the highest

work-life interference was reported by those employees whose requests had been denied, along with those employees that failed to request a change.

In this introductory chapter, the defining components of the research are summarised, including the research fields and theoretical frameworks that informed the thesis, the aims for the present study and the key variables investigated. The chapter concludes with an overview of the chapters that follow.

Research disciplines

This thesis represents an intersection of three research domains: judgment and decision making (JDM), work and family, and psychology. JDM provided the methodology to examine managers' decisions, the work-family field offered an understanding of the provision and utilisation of work-life policies and programs, and the literature on personality and social psychology afforded insights on individual differences. The connections between these disciplines and the present study are explained further in the following paragraphs.

The primary focus of the thesis is a decision: approving or denying a request. JDM presents a range of techniques for studying human judgments and decisions. For this research, an approach called judgment analysis was employed. As a field of research, JDM explains the processes people enact when they form judgments and reach decisions, along with providing advice on how to optimise these processes (Connolly & Ordóñez, 2003; Connolly, Ordóñez, & Barker, 2012). JDM is highly interdisciplinary, encompassing a broad range of research topics, representing various schools of thought (Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997; Highhouse, 2001).

The decision faced by the managers in the study was to approve or deny a request from a subordinate to utilise a work-life benefit. This scenario reflects the typical means by which employees' secure access to work-life policies and programs. Work-family scholars examine the positive and negative processes, antecedents and outcomes associated with work and family roles (Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011). Research in the work-family field is a cross-disciplinary endeavour covering multiple domains (Barnett, 1998; Chang, McDonald, & Burton, 2010; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Glass & Finley, 2002).

The work-family field is regularly reviewed and critiqued by scholars, with commentators maintaining that the area is approaching maturity but critical gaps remain in the research agenda and findings are not consistently translated into practice (T. D. Allen, 2012; Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011; Williams, Berdahl, & Vandello, 2016). Work-family scholars have prioritised studying the

individual experience of work and family and documenting the enactment of formal policies and programs, with a more limited focus on the informal support provided by managers and organisations that assists employees with balancing work and family (T. D. Allen, 2012; Williams et al., 2016).

This thesis placed the manager front and centre by considering the impact of individual differences on the decision of approving or denying a request from a subordinate to utilise a work-life benefit. As a field of research, psychology has devoted tremendous attention to understanding what differentiates people (Highhouse, 2001; C. A. Thompson, Beauvais, & Allen, 2006). Applying insights about individual differences to the workplace falls in the remit of industrial and organisational (I/O) Psychology. This branch of psychology assumes that behaviour depends on the nexus between individual traits and the organisational context (Aamodt, 2013; Major & Cleveland, 2007).

I/O psychology has contributed significantly to work-family scholarship (Williams et al., 2016), with reviews dedicated specifically to highlighting this impact (e.g., T. D. Allen, 2012; C. A. Thompson et al., 2006). Work-family scholars, however, seldom investigate how individual differences affect attempts to reconcile work and family responsibilities (Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002; C. A. Thompson et al., 2006) – despite some growing interest into this matter (T. D. Allen, 2012; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). There is, therefore, scope to further integrate psychology's theories, research and practices into work-family research (Major & Cleveland, 2007; Major & Morganson, 2011; C. A. Thompson et al., 2006).

Furthermore, the influence of individual differences on judgment and decision making has been rarely considered by JDM researchers (Dalal et al., 2010; Highhouse, 2001; Mohammed & Schwall, 2009), and commentators have advocated for greater collaboration between the research fields of I/O psychology and JDM (Connolly & Ordóñez, 2003; Connolly et al., 2012; Dalal et al., 2010; Highhouse, 2001).

In summary, this thesis drew on JDM's research techniques, existing insights on the provision and utilisation of work-life policies and programs, and research on individual differences to explain the decisions of managers when they evaluate subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The research, therefore, forges stronger connections between the fields of JDM, work and family, and I/O psychology. Details on the research gap being addressed, along with the specific aims of this thesis are provided in the following section.

Research question and aims

This thesis endeavoured to improve employees' access to work-life policies and programs by examining the decision-making role that managers assume in evaluating requests for work-life benefits. This section outlines further the rationale for the research, which leads to the research question and aims.

For employees to utilise a formal work-life benefit, they are typically required to submit a request to their manager. Research has been undertaken on the factors that influence managers' decisions when evaluating such requests (e.g., Beham, Baierl, & Poelmans, 2015; Dex & Scheibl, 2001; Poelmans & Beham, 2008; Powell & Mainiero, 1999). These qualitative, quantitative and theoretical papers are detailed in Chapter 4. In summary, a multitude of factors influence the decisions reached by managers when evaluating requests, including the country and organisational contexts, the manager's characteristics and attitudes, the characteristics of the employee making the request, along with the specifics of the benefit requested. For example, managers are less supportive of requests from employees who assume supervisory responsibilities (Barham, Gottlieb, & Kelloway, 1998; Bond, Hyman, Summers, & Wise, 2002; den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008; Powell & Mainiero, 1999).

Some of the factors considered by managers should be irrelevant to decision making, such as an employee's gender. Furthermore, the research indicates the decisions reached by managers are variable and inconsistent. The decision making demonstrated by managers when evaluating work-life benefit requests can, therefore, be optimised to ensure employees' access is consistent, fair and equitable.

Limited explanations are offered in the literature as to why decision makers are inconsistent and biased. Starting with the premise that characteristics of the decision maker influence decision making (Dalal et al., 2010; Mellers, Schwartz, & Cooke, 1998; Mohammed & Schwall, 2009; Poelmans, 2005), this thesis examined the decision maker to provide a more in-depth perspective on managerial decision making on work-life benefits. As illustrated by researchers, the inclusion of individual difference measures in research models bolsters our understanding of decision making at the individual level (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1994; Levin, Huneke, & Jasper, 2000).

Commentators have advocated more research on managerial decision making on work-life benefits (den Dulk & Peper, 2009; S. Lewis, 2003; Poelmans, 2005; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). In their study, Beham et al. (2015) described work-family decision making as an underdeveloped area of research. Poelmans, in his review of the work-family field, concluded that managers, as a group, have been neglected and

research on decision making by managers is promising because of its relevance to both research and practice. As Poelmans and Sahibzada (2004) explained, research on decision making is advantageous because this process can be constructively influenced. These authors maintained research would "unmask and root out cognitive biases, ill-informed decisions, counterproductive assumptions, less-than-optimal solutions, inefficient rationalizations, actions, and negative learning that limit future action" (p. 427). Thus, this thesis informs future research and identifies means to enhance the decision making displayed by managers.

The research, therefore, was designed to answer the question of what factors influence the decisions of managers when they evaluate subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Managers are faced daily with a multitude of decisions. Although the majority of these decisions are work-related, the decisions managers reach about work-life benefit requests are distinctive because these choices require managers to balance addressing the needs of employees with achieving the operational and strategic requirements of their team and organisation.

The first study aim was to identify the information managers consider when reaching decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. This research aim extends the existing literature on managerial decision making on work-life benefits. Three information cues were examined: the gender and performance of the subordinate submitting the request, along with the type of work-life benefit requested. These variables were predicted to be pertinent considerations for managers when reaching decisions on subordinates' requests.

The second study aim was to identify the characteristics of managers that influence their use of these information cues and ultimately their decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. This research aim expands the existing literature by investigating the influence of the managers' characteristics on decision making. Five individual difference variables were examined: regulatory focus, affective commitment, self-construals, implicit theories and interpersonal trust. Brief definitions of these constructs are provided in this chapter, with further information in Chapter 4.

This thesis improves the body of knowledge about managerial decision making on work-life benefits, which provides theoretical and practical implications. The following section details the theoretical frameworks that underpin the research.

Theoretical frameworks

Researchers in the work-family field have been guided by many theories. Based on the extant literature and relevance to the research topic, four theoretical frameworks

were employed for the current study: work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour. These frameworks are briefly outlined in this section, with further details in Chapter 6.

The work disruption, dependency and institutional theories have previously been applied to explain managerial decision making and attitudes on work-life benefits (den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008; den Dulk et al., 2011; Dex & Scheibl, 2001; K. J. Klein, Berman, & Dickson, 2000; Poelmans & Beham, 2008; Powell & Mainiero, 1999). Work disruption theory asserts that managers consider the potential for a requested work-life benefit to disrupt the conduct of work, with requests that are perceived to be more disruptive receiving less favourable decisions (Powell & Mainiero, 1999). Dependency theory contends that managers utilise access to work-life benefits as a means to manage their dependence on subordinates, granting requests from employees upon whom they are most dependent (K. J. Klein et al., 2000). Institutional theory maintains that managers face pressures to permit particular segments of employees to utilise work-life benefits (K. J. Klein et al., 2000). Specifically, managers feel obliged to comply with the prevailing norms and sanctions of their environment and will, therefore, approve requests from individuals who belong to more influential segments of the organisation.

Helping behaviour was deemed a valuable addition for the present study, although this research discipline has not been applied to date in this context. When requesting a work-life benefit, employees are essentially asking for help from their organisation and manager to balance work and personal demands (Veiga, Baldridge, & Eddleston, 2004). Helping behaviour entails voluntary actions that are intended to benefit individuals. Thus, a manager's decision to approve such a request can be construed as helping another person, with some managers being more predisposed to offer help and thus approve requests than other managers.

Work disruption theory, dependency theory, institutional theory and helping behaviour provided the theoretical structure for this research, informing the selection of the individual difference variables and the formulation of the hypotheses. The following section considers the various types of work-life benefits that employees may request.

Work-life policies and programs

Organisations can introduce varied initiatives focused on enabling employees to manage the connection between work and personal responsibilities. This section reviews the benefits encompassed under the banner of work-life policies and programs.

The work-family literature does not contain a single, universal classification system for work-life benefits (Pitt-Catsouphes, 2002), but attempts have been made to

demarcate the types and classify these provisions into categories (e.g., Bardoel, Tharenou, & Moss, 1998; D. E. Friedman & Johnson, 1997; Galinsky, Friedman, & Hernandez, 1991; Glass & Estes, 1997; Glass & Finley, 2002; Kossek et al., 2014; Lobel & Kossek, 1996; Pitt-Catsouphes, 2002; Society for Human Resource Management, 2015).

The two most prominent categories that feature in the literature are dependent care supports and workplace flexibility (T. D. Allen, 2012). As explained by the Society for Human Resource Management (2015), the programs and policies targeted at parents or carers to assist with dependent care include such benefits as childcare centres, financial assistance with childcare, referral services for childcare and eldercare, a lactation or mother's room and parenting seminars, along with allowing parents to bring children to work in an emergency.

Workplace flexibility provides employees with discretion over where work is performed, the duration of individual and group periods of work-related activities and options for multiple points of entry and departure from paid work (Hill, Grzywacz, et al., 2008). Consistent with this definition, Kossek et al. (2014) demarcated four main types of workplace flexibility: time, location and connectivity, amount of work, and continuity and time off. Flexibility in time of work affords employees some control over the distribution of weekly hours. Flexibility in location and connectivity enables employees to complete their work from locations other than the primary worksite. Flexibility in amount of work allows employees to reduce work hours and workload. Flexibility in work continuity and time off offers employees time away from work.

Flexibility in time, location and amount of work tend to be referenced collectively as flexible work arrangements (FWAs). Also labelled flexible work options (e.g., Bardoel et al., 1998; Pitt-Catsouphes, 2002), these organisational practices enable employees to alter, to varying degrees, when they work, where the work is conducted and the duration over which the work is completed (Epstein & Marler, 2013; S. Lewis, 2003). Thus, FWAs are an alternative to the traditional nine to five, five-day-a-week working schedule because they enable work to be performed before or after standard working hours, from different locations and on a reduced hours basis (Rau, 2003).

The most common FWAs include flextime, flexplace, compressed workweeks, job sharing, part-time work and term-time working (Galinsky et al., 1991; Society for Human Resource Management, 2015). Flextime enables employees to vary their start and finish times, often with core hours that they are required to work. Flexplace, also called working from home or telecommuting, enables employees to work away from the

office either on a full-time or part-time basis. A compressed workweek enables employees to work full-time hours over reduced days, such as four 10-hour days. Job sharing enables more than one employee to share one full-time position. Part-time work enables employees to work less than full-time hours. Term-time working enables employees to work only during the school terms.

The fourth main type of workplace flexibility – flexibility in work continuity and time off – refers to leave options (Kossek et al., 2014). These arrangements permit a period of time off from work for childcare, family or personal reasons, which can either be paid or unpaid. Examples include annual or vacation leave, sick leave, parental leave, leave for family emergencies, bereavement or compassionate leave, as well as career breaks or sabbaticals (Bardoel et al., 1998; Pitt-Catsouphes, 2002; Society for Human Resource Management, 2015). Types of leave vary according to several dimensions, including who is eligible to utilise the arrangements and the duration of the leave, along with whether benefits are protected during the leave, a comparable job is guaranteed upon return from leave and a phased return to work is an option where work can be resumed on a part-time basis (Galinsky et al., 1991).

Organisations can implement a range of work-life benefits that employees can subsequently utilise. The present research compared the decisions managers reach about requests for a career break with requests to work from home. Based on Kossek et al.'s (2014) demarcations, a career break entails time off flexibility, whereas working from home entails location flexibility. These two arrangements were selected based on previous research by Powell and Mainiero (1999). Furthermore, these benefits affect operational and strategic imperatives to different extents and, therefore, were predicted to generate diverging decisions from managers. The next section considers the individual difference variables that were hypothesised to affect these decisions.

Motivational and interpersonal orientations

Five motivational and interpersonal orientations were identified that may influence the decisions of managers when evaluating requests from subordinates to utilise work-life benefits. The variables were regulatory focus, affective commitment, self-construals, implicit theories and interpersonal trust. These constructs are briefly explained in this section, with more detailed information provided in Chapter 4.

The theory of regulatory focus, as articulated by Higgins (1997, 1998), differentiates two self-regulatory orientations: promotion focus, in which individuals strive to achieve gains or accomplishments, and prevention focus, in which individuals strive to prevent losses or complications. Regulatory focus was included to ascertain

whether adopting a promotion focus or prevention focus influenced both managers' receptivity to the potential for work-life benefits to disrupt the conduct of work and their compliance with institutional pressures.

Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, an organisation (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1991). Thus, when managers experience strong affective commitment, they seek a connection with the organisation, espouse shared values and willingly engage in supportive behaviours (Meyer, Maltin, & Thai, 2012). Affective commitment was included to determine whether the relationship between regulatory focus and the disruptiveness of work-life benefits was moderated by the managers' affective commitment.

Markus and Kitayama (1991) distinguished two construals of the self: a construal of the self as independent in which people attempt to maintain autonomy from other individuals and a construal of the self as interdependent in which people attempt to maintain harmonious relatedness with other individuals. Self-construals were included to ascertain whether adopting an independent or interdependent self-construal influenced managers' receptivity to their dependence on employees.

Dweck and colleagues demarcated two implicit theories: an entity theory in which personal attributes are conceptualised as fixed, immutable traits and an incremental theory in which personal attributes are conceptualised as malleable qualities that can be altered and developed (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995a). Implicit theories were included to establish whether adopting an entity theory or incremental theory influenced managers' predisposition to display the helping behaviour of approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

Interpersonal trust, as explained by Rotter (1967), reflects the relatively stable, generalised expectations that individuals possess about the trustworthiness of other people. This personality variable acknowledges that individuals vary in their propensity or readiness to trust other people (Searle, Weibel, & Den Hartog, 2011). Interpersonal trust was included to ascertain whether managers' propensity to trust influenced their predisposition to display the helping behaviour of approving requests.

The motivational and interpersonal orientations of regulatory focus, affective commitment, self-construals, implicit theories and interpersonal trust were hypothesised to affect managers' decisions when evaluating requests from subordinates for work-life benefits. The following section details how these decisions were investigated in the present research.

Methodology

As outlined, the current study was focused on understanding a decision. The methodology utilised to explore the decision making demonstrated by managers is summarised in the following paragraphs. Chapters 5 and 7 contain further information.

Employees from a range of organisations with experience in management were targeted to participate in the research. Participants were presented with a series of vignettes, representing various situations in which they needed to approve or deny a request to utilise a work-life benefit. In addition to the vignettes, participants also completed a questionnaire that measured demographic variables, work-life balance, social desirability and the motivational and interpersonal orientations.

The technique of judgment analysis was employed to examine the decisions reached by managers when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. This approach was selected partly because judgment analysis has been utilised previously in studies of managerial decision making on work-life benefits (e.g., Barham et al., 1998; Beham et al., 2015; den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008; K. J. Klein et al., 2000; Peters, den Dulk, & de Ruijter, 2010; Powell & Mainiero, 1999).

Judgment analysis entails presenting vignettes to decision makers that describe a person, object or situation in terms of a systematic combination of information cues (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010). Participants respond to the vignettes, indicating their judgment for each profile. Analysis of the data generates a judgment policy, which reflects the mental representation of the causal relationship between the information cues and judgment for the decision maker (Priem, Walters, & Li, 2011). The present research sought to capture the judgment policies of managers for responding to requests for work-life benefits.

Data analysis for judgment analysis commonly entails multiple regression analysis (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Dalal et al., 2010; Doherty, 2007). Thus, the decisions reached by the managers were subjected to multiple regression analysis to ascertain the information considered when evaluating work-life benefit requests. First, a regression equation was derived for managers as a group to examine consistencies in decision making. Second, regression equations were derived for each manager to examine individual differences in decision making.

The methodology for this research entailed conducting judgment analysis to examine the decisions reached by managers when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Before turning to the thesis plan, the next section covers the terminology utilised in this document.

Terminology

There is considerable debate in the work-family literature about the labels, definitions and measurement of key constructs (Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2016). This section details the terminology employed in the thesis along with the rationale for this approach.

The primary debate amongst scholars in the field relates to the phrases work-family, work-life and work-nonwork. By way of example, researchers have investigated work-family conflict, work-life conflict and work-nonwork conflict. As Kossek, Baltes, et al. (2011) explained, 'work-life' was adopted some time ago as the politically correct phrase in a well-intentioned attempt to mitigate backlash and stigmatisation directed towards employees with caregiving demands. The objective was to be inclusive; all workers require support with balancing work and their personal life roles (Kossek, 2008; Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011; Lobel & Kossek, 1996).

Furthermore, the argument was that by focusing on work-life, the impact of work on employees in their broader household and social contexts would be considered (Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). Researchers need to account for the social systems of individuals, which include their family along with friends, community and other people, activities or entities to whom they have developed commitments and responsibilities (Barnett, 1998).

The shift in terminology away from work-family, however, has attracted criticism. For instance, Kossek, Baltes, et al. (2011) argued against the term 'work-life' because 'work' is a part of 'life'. These authors also raised concerns with the label 'work-nonwork', arguing that, by juxtaposing the nonwork role against the work role, the assumption is that work is the main role or the norm with which all other life roles are evaluated. Frone (2003) noted that 'nonwork' implies these roles do not entail work.

T. D. Allen (2012) argued that work-family can be used as an umbrella term, encapsulating the multiple life roles assumed by individuals. Family defined in this broader manner covers the personal roles of all employees, not solely traditional nuclear families (Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011). Family forms have undergone a fundamental shift in both structure and roles (Bardoel, Tharenou, & Ristov, 2000; Barnett, 1999; Weston & Qu, 2014). Notions of family as defined by marriage, biology or adoption have progressively been replaced with people connected through affection, obligation, dependence and cooperation (Rothausen, 1999). Defining family in this manner acknowledges the multiple kinds and degrees of commitments to significant others that exist in society (Lobel & Kossek, 1996).

The debate about the label for the field and its associated constructs extends to the terms referenced to describe the policies and programs organisations provide to assist employees with managing work and personal roles. These arrangements are prefaced with such phrases as family-friendly, women-friendly, work-family, family-responsive, family-supportive, work-nonwork and work-life.

In line with more recent reviews (e.g., T. D. Allen, 2012; Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2016), the decision was reached to employ the label work-family for the field and its primary constructs (e.g., work-family conflict). However, when discussing the initiatives that an organisation provides to employees to facilitate multiple role commitments, the decision was reached to use work-life. Nevertheless, when referencing published works, the language utilised by the authors tends to be reproduced.

Some further definitions are worthy of comment at this juncture, particularly relating to the availability and accessibility of work-life policies and programs. When researchers examine workplace availability, provision of these arrangements tends to be measured by using either managers or employees as respondents. For instance, Goodstein (1994) directed questions about the availability of childcare policies to the "person most knowledgeable" about these benefits within the company. As representatives of the organisation, senior managers or human resource managers are assumed to have developed good understanding of policies and programs.

In contrast, when employees are respondents, researchers question the workers about whether the organisation offers work-life benefits to the workforce. For example, C. A. Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness (1999) asked employees whether their organisation provided work-family benefits. Given evidence that employees' knowledge of formal work-life policies and programs is deficient (Cooper, Lewis, Smithson, & Dyer, 2001; Haar & Spell, 2004; Martin et al., 2012; Prottas, Thompson, Kopelman, & Jahn, 2007; Sánchez-Vidal, Cegarra-Leiva, & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012; Wise & Bond, 2003), studies that rely on employer reports have been deemed to measure organisational provision or workplace availability, whereas studies that rely on employee reports have been deemed to measure perceived provision.

Researchers have also examined employees' perceptions about whether they personally can access work-life policies and programs. Varied constructs and labels have been employed to denote these perceptions. Studies frequently measure personal availability. For instance, Budd and Mumford (2006) asked employees whether the policy was available to them if needed. Personal access has also been measured.

McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Brown, and Matz-Costa (2012) asked employees whether they had access to flexible work options. Other researchers have asked employees to consider whether they are eligible to receive (e.g, Grover & Crooker, 1995) or have been granted the opportunity to utilise (e.g., Peters, Tijdens, & Wetzels, 2004; Singh, Paleti, Jenkins, & Bhat, 2012) work-life policies and programs. These studies are deemed to measure the same construct of perceived accessibility or perceived availability to work-life benefits.

Finally, in line with other work-family researchers, the terms manager and supervisor are used interchangeably in this thesis, with these labels denoting the person with whom the subordinate has a direct reporting relationship (cf. Beham et al., 2015; Major & Lauzun, 2010). A manager or supervisor is responsible for overseeing the work of one or more employees. Similarly, employee and subordinate are used interchangeably.

This section has summarised the debates in the literature around terminology and sought to clarify important constructs. In the following section, a synopsis of the remaining chapters is provided as a roadmap to the thesis.

Thesis plan

In the subsequent chapters, the literature that informed the present research is reviewed, which culminates in the research question, aims and hypotheses, the method employed to collect data, an analysis of the results and a discussion of the findings. This section provides an overview of each chapter.

In Chapter 2, the connection between work and family is explored. Work-life policies and programs are examined, with a particular emphasis on the requirements for the successful implementation and uptake of these provisions. Chapter 3 summarises research on the provision of work-life policies and programs by organisations, along with the utilisation of these arrangements by employees.

Chapter 4 considers the manager, with a focus on the supportive behaviours managers can exhibit that assist employees with meeting work and personal responsibilities. The influence of managers on the utilisation of work-life benefits is examined, along with the factors that shape managers' decisions when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The chapter concludes with details of the motivational and interpersonal orientations that may affect these decisions: regulatory focus, affective commitment, self-construals, implicit theories and interpersonal trust.

Chapter 5 focuses on judgment and decision making, which provides the methodology for the present research. JDM as a field of research is examined, along

with the techniques used to study human judgments and decisions, including judgment analysis – the approach employed in this study to evaluate the decisions of managers. The construction of the vignettes is covered in this chapter.

In Chapter 6, the research question, aims and hypotheses of the study are documented. Based on the four theoretical frameworks of work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour, hypotheses are articulated to predict how the information cues will interact with the motivational and interpersonal orientations to predict the decisions of managers.

Chapter 7 outlines the method used to collect data from participants. Details are presented on the participants, the measures included in the research, the design of the judgment analysis study, the procedure for gathering data and the analysis of that data.

In Chapter 8, the results from the judgment analysis are described. The chapter covers the checks performed on the data, the assessment undertaken of the reliability of managers' judgments and the outputs from the regression analyses conducted to ascertain the significance of the hypotheses.

Chapter 9 explores the findings, documenting what was learnt about the decisions of managers when evaluating requests from subordinates for work-life benefits. In this final chapter, the strengths and limitations of the study are discussed, alongside suggestions for future research. The theoretical contributions and practical implications of the research are also presented.

Chapter 2: The work-family interface and work-life benefits

The preceding introductory chapter established the academic backdrop for this thesis by describing the main elements of the research. The next four chapters expand on the literature that informed the study, with this chapter specifically concentrating on the work-family interface and work-life policies and programs. The succeeding chapter considers the organisational provision of work-life benefits and the utilisation of these arrangements by employees. The factors that may influence the decisions managers reach when evaluating requests for work-life benefits and the approach adopted to investigate these decisions are explored in the subsequent two chapters.

This chapter commences with an examination of societal changes to work and family, which created an interface between the domains of work and family. These developments in society generated the need for work-life benefits within organisations and afforded managers the decision-making power to determine employees' access to these provisions. Work-life policies and programs are considered with a discussion of what is required for the successful implementation and uptake of these arrangements.

Historical perspective: Changes to work and family

The domains of work and family have been profoundly altered by the transitions that Western societies have undergone. In this section, the impact of the shift from an agrarian to an industrialised and finally an information society on work and family is examined. These developments in society detail the manner in which the connection between workplaces and families has evolved (Sweet, 2014).

With the agricultural revolution, hunting and gathering was superseded by agriculture (Toffler, 1981). In the agrarian economy, work and family were completely integrated – a family's activities centred on simultaneously meeting the needs of work and family (Barnett, 1998; Sweet, 2014; C. A. Thompson et al., 2006). Women and children worked beside men (Reich, 2002), and parents were jointly responsible for sustaining the family and raising the children (DeGroot & Armando, 2005).

The industrial revolution shifted the focus away from agriculture and the land to manufacturing and factories (Toffler, 1981). The factory epitomised the industrial revolution. With economic production occurring in factories and businesses rather than the field (DeGroot & Armando, 2005), families were no longer working together (C. A. Thompson et al., 2006; Toffler, 1981). Work and family were geographically separated, thus establishing the notion that these domains of life could be distinct and discreet (Barnett, 1998; Kanter, 1977; Sweet, 2014).

The ideal family became the patriarchal nuclear family (Craig & Mullan, 2010; Rothausen, 1999; Williams, 2000). The primary role for the man was breadwinner, provider for his wife and children. The primary roles for the woman were wife and mother. Children were no longer regarded as miniature workers but as developing humans that required nurturing and protection (DeGroot & Armando, 2005). Similarly, a new ideal worker norm emerged, which conceptualised an employee as primarily committed to his paid job (Williams, 2000). The assumption was that employees would work steadily and reliably from the completion of education to retirement in exchange for stable and predictable work and wages (S. Lewis & Dyer, 2002; Reich, 2002).

The third, and current, turning point in human social development is a shift away from manufacturing and factories to information and knowledge (Toffler, 1981). This wave of change has been labelled the information revolution, with internet technologies being positioned as the new steam engine or assembly line (Cascio, 2003). The transition from an industrialised to an information society transformed the composition of the workforce, particularly through the increased participation of women (Craig & Mullan, 2010). In Australia, the percentage of women in the labour force has risen from 34 percent in 1961 to 59 percent in 2011 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012).

With more women participating in paid work, the responsibilities of men and women have changed. In today's information society, the male breadwinner and female homemaker model that predominated has been replaced with a model whereby both partners of couple families increasingly share the breadwinner role (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012; Weston & Qu, 2014). Furthermore, with an ageing population, workers often assume caring responsibilities for both children and elders (Hammer & Neal, 2008). The majority of employees are now responsible for both economic provision and care of dependents, which means families face intense demands on their time (Craig & Mullan, 2010)

The substance and structure of work and family roles have been profoundly transformed, particularly through the growing number of dual-earner couples, greater participation of women in the workforce and family arrangements that incorporate non-traditional gender-based roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Kossek, 2008). With the industrial revolution, the work self and family self were reunited and the domains of work and home are progressively becoming more interconnected. The next section examines the interface that connects work and family, which emerged in response to the changes experienced in the contemporary world to work and family.

Work-family interface

The separation of work and family into distinct spheres following the industrial revolution created a boundary between the two domains, which is referred to as the work-family interface. In this section, research on the intersection of work and family roles is reviewed and the mechanisms that underpin this connection are defined.

Research landscape

The interface between work and family has been investigated extensively by work-family scholars (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Research commenced in the 1960s and has burgeoned over the last four decades (T. D. Allen, 2012; Chang et al., 2010; Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2016). The evolution of the research is summarised in the following paragraphs.

Research on the work-family interface has been dominated by a conflict perspective; work and family were assumed to be mutually incompatible (T. D. Allen, 2012; Barnett, 1998; Kossek, 2008; Williams et al., 2016). The demands of the family were presumed to compete with the responsibilities of the workplace; the family was regarded as an impediment to maximising organisational performance (Bailyn, 1997; Barnett, 1998). Research attention, consequently, was mainly directed at understanding the impact of work on the family (T. D. Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Crouter, 1984; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; S. J. Lambert, 1990; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Because the negative aspects of the work-family interface were the main focus, terms such as conflict, interference, negative spillover and segmentation predominated.

Work-family scholars have, over time, called for a more balanced perspective to be adopted that incorporates the positive nexus between work and family (T. D. Allen, 2012; Barnett, 1998; Kossek, 2008; Williams et al., 2016). Enacting multiple roles is no longer assumed to always generate conflict but to be potentially positive and beneficial (Barnett, 1998, 1999; Major & Cleveland, 2007). This shift is reflected in the emergence of terms such as enrichment, enhancement, facilitation, positive spillover and integration.

The work-family field has evolved from a conflict perspective to a more positive and balanced perspective where assuming multiple roles is regarded as beneficial and rewarding, family is defined broadly and the needs of all employees are recognised. In the following subsection, the theoretical frameworks that explicate the interconnections between work and family roles are examined.

Linking mechanisms

The work-family literature refers to several causal models that explain the processes through which work and family are connected (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; S. J. Lambert, 1990; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). The most prominent work-family linking mechanisms are defined in the following paragraphs: segmentation, compensation, accommodation, conflict and enrichment (Greenhaus & Singh, 2003). These theoretical frameworks provide an insight into how employees manage the interdependencies between work and family.

Segmentation entails preserving a separation between work and family actively (Kossek, 2008; S. J. Lambert, 1990). An employee purposefully attempts to keep the domains independent – work is work and family is family, and the two do not merge (Bailyn, 1997). Individuals compartmentalise their life through separation in time, space and function (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). This strategy is illustrated in the following quote from a female office worker in Crouter's (1984) early study: "I try not to let my personal life affect my work. I try not to think about my home life while at work. I've done well at splitting the two, work and family" (p. 432). Segmentation putatively neutralises the relationship between work and family (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). The opposite of segmentation is integration, where work and family roles are connected or assimilated (Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011) and the boundary between these domains is blurry (T. D. Allen, 2012; Williams et al., 2016).

Compensation refers to the process by which dissatisfaction in one domain is compensated by seeking satisfaction in another domain (S. J. Lambert, 1990). Individuals can reduce their involvement in the dissatisfying domain whilst increasing involvement in a potentially more satisfying domain. Alternatively, they can alleviate the dissatisfaction in one domain by seeking rewards in another domain (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). An example would be resting after work when a person is exposed to a strenuous employment situation (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). A related linking mechanism is accommodation, which refers to the process by which involvement in one domain is limited to fulfil the demands and obligations of another domain (S. J. Lambert, 1990). An example would be parents reducing their involvement in work to accommodate the requirements of their children (Greenhaus & Singh, 2003). With compensation and accommodation, the work and family roles are counterbalanced (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Work-family conflict has been defined by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains

are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p. 77). These authors demarcated three forms: time-based conflict arises when the time allocated to one role limits the time available to perform another role; strain-based conflict arises when strain produced by one role limits the capacity to fulfil the demands of another role; and behaviour-based conflict arises when behavioural expectations of one role are incompatible with another role. Work-family conflict is the most commonly cited and researched linking mechanism (T. D. Allen, 2012; Eby et al., 2005).

Work-family enrichment is an example of a positive linking mechanism and has been defined by Greenhaus and Powell (2006) as "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role" (p. 73). Greenhaus and Powell proposed two paths to enrichment: the instrumental path, where resources acquired in one role enrich the other role, and the affective path, where affect in one role enriches the other role. An example of instrumental enrichment is applying skills acquired through caring for children and managing multiple family demands to the work domain (Poelmans, Kalliath, & Brough, 2008).

The linking mechanisms describe employees' experiences of combining work and family roles. The frameworks highlight that the relationship is bidirectional – work influences the family and the family influences work – and the influence can either be positive or negative. The following subsection considers a further important concept in the work-family field: work-family balance.

Work-family balance

Often cited in the popular press and academic literature, work-family balance is emerging as a distinct stream of research in the work-family field (T. D. Allen, 2012). This construct, however, does not represent a linking mechanism between work and family because the notion of balance does not stipulate how experiences in one role influence experiences in another role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Singh, 2003). Work-family balance is covered in this subsection to juxtapose the constructs of conflict and enrichment.

Despite the phrase becoming part of daily discourse, there is no universally accepted definition and measure of work-family balance (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Poelmans et al., 2008). In a recent article, Wayne, Butts, Casper, and Allen (2017) detailed the development of the term. The authors demarcated and defined four conceptualisations of work-family balance that appear in the extant literature: additive spillover, multiplicative spillover, balance satisfaction and balance effectiveness.

As clarified by Wayne et al. (2017), additive spillover conceptualises balance as the absence of conflict or presence of enrichment, whereas multiplicative spillover conceptualises balance as the synergistic interaction of lower conflict with higher enrichment. These two descriptions of work-family balance capture early thinking on the construct, with multiplicative spillover exemplified by Frone (2003): "low levels of interrole conflict and high levels of interrole facilitation" (p. 145). Additive spillover remains the most frequently employed approach (Wayne et al., 2017).

Wayne et al. (2017) explained that conceptual work on balance progressed when the construct was differentiated from conflict and enrichment. This thinking is illustrated by Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003), who defined work-family balance as the "extent to which an individual is equally engaged in – and equally satisfied with – his or her work role and family role" (p. 513). These authors demarcated three dimensions of balance: time balance, involvement balance and satisfaction balance. Work-family balance was presented as a continuum; one end anchored by work imbalance and the other end by family imbalance, with the middle representing equilibrium between work and family roles in allocated time, psychological involvement or satisfaction.

Wayne et al. (2017) detailed how researchers moved away from notions of equality and equilibrium with the next phase in concept development. Conceptualisations of work-family balance in terms of equilibrium – or a metaphoric scale that must be balanced – have been critiqued for ignoring the influence of values, priorities, interests and preferences (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). As Kossek, Baltes, et al. (2011) reasoned, based on the relative importance attributed to work and family, one employee may feel balanced when they work 80 hours a week, whereas another employee may feel imbalanced from a 40-hour working week. Employees do not necessarily require equilibrium – in time, involvement, effectiveness or satisfaction – to perceive a sense of balance between the domains of work and family (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011).

This shift in thinking is reflected in definitions of work-family balance that focus on the individual's priorities or values. For instance, Greenhaus and Allen (2011) defined work-family balance as "an overall appraisal of the extent to which individuals' effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family roles are consistent with their life values at a given point in time" (p. 174). T. D. Allen (2012) defined work-family balance as a general inter-role assessment of compatibility between work and family roles.

Wayne et al. (2017) explained that these more recent definitions of work-family balance treat balance as a global construct, reflecting an overall assessment of

combining work and family roles with notions of satisfaction and effectiveness often featuring. That is, how satisfied employees are with the balance between work and family, along with their perspective on how effectively they balance work and family. Consequently, Wayne et al. distinguished balance satisfaction, defined as a person's attitude about the integration across work and family roles, from balance effectiveness, defined as a person's beliefs about the extent to which shared expectations across work and family roles are being fulfilled.

As with conflict and enrichment, the construct of work-family balance has been extended to encompass the broader concept of work-life balance. Kalliath and Brough (2008) defined work-life balance as "the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual's current life priorities" (p. 326). Thus, balance is considered in terms of roles beyond work and family, such as leisure, self-development, community and spirituality (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Greenhaus et al., 2003). The present research measured work-life balance to capture the accord or harmony experienced across the multiple life roles assumed by managers (cf. Brough et al., 2014; Haar, 2013).

The notion of balance between the domains of a person's life is a relatively new concept in the work-family field. By providing a conceptual framework and examining empirically work-family balance, Wayne et al. (2017) have paved the way for future research and theory on this construct. Researchers are also interested in the broader, more encompassing concept of work-life balance. In the following subsection, research on the consequences of the work-family interface is reviewed.

Outcomes of the work-family interface

Considerable research attention has been devoted to documenting the consequences of conflict between the domains of work and family. More recently, the outcomes from the positive interdependencies between work and family have been examined. This topic has benefited from several meta-analyses. In the following paragraphs, the findings from these review papers are detailed to explore the consequences of the work-family interface.

The meta-analyses on the outcomes of work-family conflict consistently reveal relationships with employees' attitudes and behaviours in the work and family domains, along with their health and well-being. In the work domain, job satisfaction is the most researched outcome. Increased work-family conflict relates to lower job satisfaction (T. D. Allen et al., 2000; Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005;

Michel & Hargis, 2008; Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, & Baltes, 2009; Shockley & Singla, 2011). Furthermore, greater work-family conflict is associated with diminished organisational commitment, higher turnover intentions, impaired job performance, intensified job stress, lower career satisfaction and reduced organisational citizenship behaviours (T. D. Allen et al., 2000; Amstad et al., 2011; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008; Hoobler, Hu, & Wilson, 2010; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999).

Work-family conflict is also negatively associated with work-related psychological health, including disengagement and need for recovery, along with burnout and its components of emotional exhaustion, cynicism, depersonalisation and personal accomplishment (T. D. Allen et al., 2000; Amstad et al., 2011; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Nohe, Meier, Sonntag, & Michel, 2015; Reichl, Leiter, & Spinath, 2014). Reichl et al. explained this relationship, arguing that meeting the demands of work and family creates a need for recovery. When conflict exists between the work and family domains, opportunities for recovery are hampered, which results in strain. Strain is manifested in the work-domain as emotional exhaustion, diminished sense of personal efficacy and greater psychological distance from one's work in the form of cynical attitudes towards the working environment, a detached response to people and disengagement (Nohe et al., 2015; Reichl et al., 2014).

In the family domain, the meta-analyses have demonstrated that greater work-family conflict is associated with reduced satisfaction with marriage and family, along with lower couple relationship quality, diminished family-related performance and increased family stress (T. D. Allen et al., 2000; Amstad et al., 2011; Fellows, Chiu, Hill, & Hawkins, 2015; Ford et al., 2007; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Michel & Hargis, 2008; Michel et al., 2009; Shockley & Singla, 2011). Finally, greater work-family conflict is associated with reduced life satisfaction and more physical and mental health problems, including psychological strain, somatic and physical symptoms, substance abuse, depression, stress and anxiety (T. D. Allen et al., 2000; Amstad et al., 2011; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Michel et al., 2009).

More recently, the positive consequences that can arise from the work-family interface have garnered research attention (e.g., Carlson, Grzywacz, & Kacmar, 2010; Haar & Bardoel, 2008; McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010; Timms et al., 2015). McNall, Nicklin, and Masuda (2010) and Shockley and Singla (2011) have conducted meta-analyses on work-family enrichment. These researchers found work-family enrichment was positively related to job satisfaction, affective commitment and family satisfaction, along with physical and mental health. In contrast to work-family conflict, turnover

intentions were unrelated to work-family enrichment. Carlson et al. (2010) provided evidence for a relationship between enrichment and performance. Amongst 607 full-time employees, work-to-family enrichment was positively related to self-rated job performance and family performance. Thus, as T. D. Allen (2012) concluded, the outcomes of enrichment tend to be the opposite of those detailed for conflict.

Research on the consequences of the work-family interface reveals organisations, employees and families would benefit from reducing conflict and bolstering enrichment between the domains of work and family. Organisations are motivated to provide work-life policies and programs to assist employees with managing the interdependencies between work and family. In the following section, the evidence for whether these arrangements bestow benefits in practice is examined.

Work-life benefits

Organisations respond to the work-family interface by introducing policies and programs focused on enabling employees to manage the connection between work and personal domains. This section considers the potential outcomes for organisations and employees of these arrangements, along with detailing the pathway from policy provision to employee utilisation that shapes the implementation and effectiveness of work-life benefits within organisations.

Outcomes of work-life benefits

The espoused business case for work-life policies and programs is that these arrangements assist with the attraction of applicants and bolster employees' job satisfaction, commitment, performance and well-being, whilst also minimising negative outcomes such as absenteeism, turnover and workplace accidents (de Menezes & Kelliher, 2011; Kossek et al., 2014). These constructs are frequently mentioned when companies are surveyed on the benefits of work-life policies and programs (e.g., Cooper et al., 2001; Hewitt Associates, 2008; S. Lewis, Smithson, Cooper, & Dyer, 2002; Matos & Galinsky, 2014). The empirical evidence for the business case is assessed in this subsection.

Meta-analyses have been undertaken on the impact of work-life benefits, including flextime, compressed workweeks, schedule flexibility, telecommuting and work-family supports. Work-family support policies include arrangements that help with dependent care, such as childcare and paid family leave. Given work-life policies and programs are intended to reduce conflict between the domains of work and family, the connection between these constructs has been scrutinised. In support of this relationship, Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2006) demonstrated, in their meta-

analysis, that flexibility of work location and schedule, along with dependent care assistance, were negatively related to work-family conflict.

When the two directions of work-family conflict are studied separately, meta-analyses have demonstrated that employees report lower levels of work interference with family for flexible schedules (Byron, 2005), flextime (T. D. Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013), telecommuting (T. D. Allen et al., 2013; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007) and work-family support policies (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013). T. D. Allen et al. (2013) concluded that, as a workplace support, work-life policies and programs assist employees with managing the work role and any potential intrusion on the family.

Similarly, lower levels of family interference with work are reported by employees for flexible schedules (Byron, 2005) and telecommuting (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). In contrast, no effect on family interference with work was demonstrated for flextime and flexplace (T. D. Allen et al., 2013; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006). The two meta-analyses that examined work-family support policies were unable to test the relationship because of insufficient studies (Butts et al., 2013; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006). Thus, work-life policies and programs may generate less impact on the family domain and any potential intrusion on work.

Researchers have more recently investigated the effect of work-life policies and programs on work-family enrichment, although a meta-analysis has not been conducted to date. For instance, flextime and compressed workweeks have been found to be positively related with work-family enrichment (Carlson et al., 2010; Hayman, 2009; McNall, Masuda, et al., 2010). Thus, work-life initiatives both reduce conflict and promote enrichment between the domains of work and family.

The meta-analyses have also documented the impact of work-life policies and programs on employees' attitudes and behaviours. For instance, Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, and Neuman (1999) found that flextime and compressed workweek schedules were positively related to job satisfaction and satisfaction with work schedule. Flextime was related to productivity, whereas a compressed workweek was related to supervisor performance ratings. Absenteeism was diminished by flextime.

Baltes et al. (1999) found that the relationships between flextime and the outcomes were moderated by flexibility of schedule, time since the program was implemented and employee type. Thus, flextime programs that were highly variable were less beneficial than more controlled programs, and the positive effects of flextime diminished over time. Furthermore, the positive effects of flextime programs were found for general employees, whereas no effects were found for professionals and managers.

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Baltes et al. concluded that there are more limited benefits from flextime when employees already experience job autonomy.

Gajendran and Harrison (2007) examined telecommuting and found that employees who telecommuted reported higher perceived autonomy, lower work-family conflict, stronger job satisfaction, reduced turnover intentions and diminished role stress. Telecommuters and non-telecommuters reported similar expectations around career prospects. Supervisor and objective ratings of performance were higher for telecommuters than non-telecommuters, and the relationship between the manager and employee was stronger for telecommuters than non-telecommuters.

Gajendran and Harrison (2007) explored the mediating roles of perceived autonomy, work-family conflict and relationship quality, arguing and demonstrating that the favourable effects of telecommuting on attitudes and behaviours are conveyed through these psychological mechanisms. Three moderators were also examined: gender, telecommuting intensity and organisational experience with telecommuting. For gender, samples with a higher percentage of women were especially likely to receive stronger performance ratings and express more optimism about their career prospects if granted an opportunity to telecommute.

Gajendran and Harrison (2007) compared high-intensity telecommuters, defined as individuals that spent the majority of their workdays working remotely, with low-intensity telecommuters. High-intensity telecommuters experienced reduced work-family conflict and job stress, but also poor-quality co-worker relationships, whereas work-family conflict, job stress and co-worker relationship quality were unrelated to telecommuting for low-intensity telecommuters. Furthermore, when telecommuting had been in existence within an organisation for longer, telecommuters were more likely to report lower levels of work-family conflict and role stress, compared with telecommuters who worked in organisations that had more recently introduced this arrangement. Gajendran and Harrison concluded that, with greater exposure and experience, telecommuters become proficient at structuring tasks and schedules to diminish conflicts between work and personal demands, along with minimising the stress associated with managing multiple roles.

Butts et al. (2013) found positive relationships between work-family support policies and job satisfaction, affective commitment and intentions to stay. The psychological mechanisms linking work-family support policies with work attitudes were also explored. Butts et al. argued that the availability of work-family support policies signals to employees that the organisation cares and supports their family life, which in

turn generates positive work attitudes. In contrast, the actual use of work-family support policies is related to attitudes through the instrumental benefit of reduced work-family conflict. In line with this argument, perceived availability and policy use were partially related to work attitudes through stronger family-supportive organisation perceptions and reduced work-to-family conflict, respectively.

Finally, Butts et al. (2013) considered moderators of the relationships. The use of work-family support policies and affective commitment were more positively related in samples with a higher percentage of women. In contrast, the impact of policy use on work-to-family conflict was diminished in samples with more women. When the sample comprised more employees who were married-cohabiting and had dependents, utilising work-family support policies generated stronger effects for work-family conflict, job satisfaction and affective commitment. Butts et al. concluded that women, married workers and parents benefited more from work-family support policies. However, work-family support policies were not sufficient to ameliorate conflict for women, which may be ascribed to their greater family demands.

The meta-analyses and studies conducted on work-life policies and programs indicate that these initiatives confer the intended impact: they help employees manage their work and personal demands. Furthermore, these arrangements improve employee attitudes and behaviours. The benefits conferred, however, depend on the specific arrangement. For instance, Baltes et al. (2011) found that flextime was related, and a compressed workweek was unrelated, to absenteeism. Moreover, T. D. Allen et al. (2013) found that flextime was more strongly related to work-family conflict, particularly work interference with family, than flexplace.

In addition, the meta-analyses indicate that not all employee groups may benefit equally from utilising work-life policies and programs. For instance, Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, and Baltes (2011) found that flexible working hours, which incorporated schedule flexibility, flextime, telecommuting and shift work, was unrelated to work-family conflict. However, employees who were married or parents experienced a stronger reduction in work-to-family conflict than employees who were unmarried or not parents. Thus, flexible working hours benefited married employees and parents. Similarly, Byron (2005) found that schedule flexibility was more helpful in reducing work-family conflict for women and parents.

The research conducted also provides insights about the mechanisms through which work-life benefits affect the attitudes and behaviours of employees. Work-family conflict performs a significant role. When employees utilise work-life policies and

programs, they experience a reduction in work-family conflict and, being the recipient of this instrumental assistance translates into more positive attitudes (Butts et al., 2013; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Informal support is also relevant. When work-life benefits are available to employees, the organisation is perceived as more supportive (Butts et al., 2013). When these arrangements are utilised, the relationship with the supervisor is strengthened (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). In both instances, these perceptions of support foster more positive outcomes.

The business case for work-life policies and programs contends that positive employee attitudes and behaviours convert into improved organisational productivity and financial performance (de Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). Researchers have demonstrated a connection between work-life benefits and individual performance. When organisations offer work-life policies and programs, and employees utilise these arrangements, self-report and supervisor-rated measures of performance and productivity are higher (Baltes et al., 1999; Eaton, 2003; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). At the organisational level, de Sivatte, Gordon, Rojo, and Olmos (2015) found that the formal availability of work-life programs was positively related to labour productivity amongst 195 companies in Spain. de Sivatte et al. concluded that work-life policies and programs enhance organisational performance.

Bloom et al. (2011) provided a more nuanced perspective on the relationship between work-life benefits and organisational performance. Amongst 450 manufacturing firms, these authors also found a positive correlation between the formal provision of family-friendly workplace practices and labour productivity. The relationship disappeared, however, when quality of management practices was controlled. Bloom et al. argued that family-friendly workplace practices do not enhance productivity directly but are rather one component of a broad range of performance-enhancing management practices implemented by well-managed organisations. Nevertheless, family-friendly workplace practices were not negatively related to profits. Thus, organisations are not disadvantaged by providing these arrangements. Bloom et al. concluded that work-life practices should be regarded as policies that enhance firm performance through the satisfaction of a specific stakeholder group – employees – but that financial performance should not be the primary objective.

Thus, the empirical evidence supports the business case. Organisations, along with employees and their families, benefit from work-life policies and programs. These arrangements generate positive organisational outcomes and beneficial work-related attitudes and behaviours amongst employees, including reducing conflict and bolstering

enrichment between the domains of work and family. In turn, the health and well-being of employees and the functioning of their families are strengthened. The following subsection considers why these potential benefits have not been completely realised.

The provision-utilisation gap

Despite the business case promoting the advantages of work-life policies and programs, researchers have found that these arrangements often remain underutilised (e.g., Budd & Mumford, 2006; Butler, Gasser, & Smart, 2004; McNamara et al., 2012; Newman & Mathews, 1999; Pasamar, 2015). A distinction, therefore, needs to be drawn between the provision of work-life benefits by organisations and the utilisation of these arrangements by employees. As Lee, MacDermid, and Buck (2000) explained, "official policies and management proclamations do not necessarily reveal much about... actual implementation and interpretation of formal policies and programs" (p. 1212). Labelled the provision-utilisation gap (McDonald et al., 2005), this subsection examines this dissociation between rhetoric and reality.

Work-family scholars have demarcated a multifaceted process that links policy and practice – beginning with the provision of work-life policies by organisations and ending with the effect of a policy on an employee's work-family balance and well-being (Poelmans, 2005). The steps delineated by researchers that connect policy provision with employee utilisation are represented diagrammatically in Figure 1.
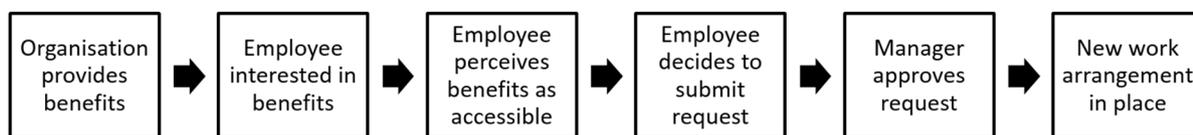
Figure 1. The provision-utilisation pathway

Thus, the first step in the process is an organisation deciding to provide work-life policies and programs to its employees (Budd & Mumford, 2006; Epstein & Marler, 2013; Sánchez-Vidal et al., 2012). This decision delineates the opportunity for employees to utilise these arrangements. Employees need to be interested in utilising the available benefits and need to perceive the arrangements as accessible to them personally before they reach the decision to submit a request that is evaluated by their manager. Employee use of work-life benefits is, therefore, predicated on personal interest (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004) and perceived accessibility (Budd & Mumford, 2006; Epstein & Marler, 2013; McNamara et al., 2012; Sánchez-Vidal et al., 2012), along with managerial approval of requests (Poelmans & Beham, 2008).

The outcome of the managers' decision determines whether an employee can commence the arrangement or not. Employees, therefore, need to successfully navigate this pathway to realise the benefits of utilising work-life policies and programs. As the provision-utilisation pathway model suggests, there are many points at which employees' capacity to utilise work-life benefits is hampered. These points at which the connection between organisational provision and employee utilisation can be undermined are reviewed in the paragraphs that follow.

Firstly, employees must work in organisations that provide these arrangements. The Society for Human Resource Management's (2015) annual benefits survey documents workplace availability amongst American employers. Flexible work arrangements (FWAs) are the most widespread: 60 percent of organisations offer telecommuting, 54 percent flextime, 31 percent compressed workweeks and 10 percent job sharing. Leave options and family-friendly benefits are less common. Paid maternity and paternity leaves are offered by 21 percent and 17 percent of organisations, respectively. An unpaid sabbatical program is offered by 13 percent. Childcare centres are provided by 2 percent of employers. Thus, not all organisations formally offer work-life benefits and, therefore, not all employees can utilise these policies and programs.

Even when employees work within organisations that provide work-life policies and programs, the use of these arrangements does not automatically eventuate from the existence of a policy. Employees must be interested in utilising the provisions (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004). In a case study of a large American company, Hochschild (1997) concluded that utilisation of work-life benefits was low because employees were uninterested in altering their work arrangements and preferred spending time at work than at home. Thus, employees may simply not request work-life policies and programs because they seem uninterested. The evidence, however, fails to support Hochschild's conclusion; employees are interested in work-life benefits (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Peters et al., 2004; Skinner & Pocock, 2010; Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2002).

Similarly, employees must perceive the arrangements as accessible to them personally for utilisation to eventuate. Labelled as perceived accessibility (Budd & Mumford, 2006) or perceived availability (Butts et al., 2013; Epstein & Marler, 2013), these perceptions are shaped by employees' formal eligibility and knowledge about work-life benefits (Budd & Mumford, 2006), along with beliefs about barriers that may impede the utilisation of these arrangements (Budd & Mumford, 2006; Eaton, 2003; Schutte & Eaton, 2004). Thus, eligibility, knowledge and perceived barriers shape the views employees form about whether they can avail themselves of work-life benefits.

Employees may not be equally eligible to utilise the available work-life policies and programs. Organisations frequently offer benefits to specific groups of employees. For instance, Hewitt Associates (2008) documented how organisations determined eligibility to FWAs based on location, business unit, department and job function. Sweet, Pitt-Catsouphes, Besen, and Golden (2014) examined the availability of FWAs amongst a sample of 545 employers. On average 6.02 FWAs were available to any employee within an organisation, whereas the average number of options available to most or all of employees was 1.37. Sweet et al. concluded that employers may offer FWAs to some of their employees, but few offer these arrangements to the majority of their workers.

Considering knowledge, researchers have consistently demonstrated that employees possess incomplete and inaccurate knowledge about work-life benefits (Cooper et al., 2001; Haar & Spell, 2004; Martin et al., 2012; Newman & Mathews, 1999; Prottas et al., 2007; Sánchez-Vidal et al., 2012; Waters & Bardoel, 2006; Wise & Bond, 2003). Thus, even when employees are formally eligible for work-life policies and programs, the utilisation of these arrangements is curbed because employees are ignorant about provisions within their organisation.

Finally, work-family scholars have argued barriers may constrain employees from utilising work-life benefits (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Budd & Mumford, 2006; Eaton, 2003; Schutte & Eaton, 2004). Eaton refers to the concept of perceived usability to explain this constraint, defined as the extent to which employees feel free to use flexibility policies. The perceived usability of work-life policies and programs captures an employee's comfort with utilising these arrangements (Eaton, 2003; Hayman, 2009; Schutte & Eaton, 2004).

The degree to which the work environment is family-supportive influences whether employees feel free and comfortable to utilise work-life policies and programs, or conversely the opposite – constrained. T. D. Allen (2001) posited that, for employees to deem the work environment as family-supportive and subsequently utilise family-friendly benefits, the policies need to be available and both supervisors and the organisation need to be perceived as family-supportive. The work environment needs to send the message that benefit usage is supported, otherwise employees will feel inhibited and fearful of utilising these arrangements.

Managers, therefore, shape employees' perceptions about the usability of work-life policies and programs. Furthermore, managers control employees' access to these arrangements through the decision-making role they assume when evaluating requests for work-life benefits. As explained by C. A. Thompson et al. (1999), "even where formal

work-family policies and programs are in place, managers may subvert them by refusing to allow their employees to participate or by applying the policies unevenly" (p. 393).

By considering the pathway linking policy with practice, a multitude of factors can be identified to explain the disconnect that exists between the provision of work-life benefits by organisations and the utilisation of these arrangements by employees. In the following subsection, the benefits of improving the connection between the provision and utilisation of work-life policies and programs are documented.

Consequences of the provision-utilisation gap

There are potential positive outcomes for both organisations and employees from reducing the disconnect between policy and practice, and thus closing the provision-utilisation gap. The evidence for this assertion is reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Research has uncovered benefits when employees report that their organisations provide work-life policies and programs. Intensified job satisfaction (T. D. Allen, 2001), reduced work-to-family conflict (T. D. Allen, 2001; de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999), stronger commitment (T. D. Allen, 2001; de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013; Prottas et al., 2007; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999; C. A. Thompson, Jahn, Kopelman, & Prottas, 2004), higher perceived productivity (Eaton, 2003) and lower turnover intentions (T. D. Allen, 2001; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999) were evident when employees reported that their organisations offered these arrangements.

Furthermore, when employees reported that work-life benefits were available within their organisations, the supervisor and organisation were perceived as more family-supportive (T. D. Allen, 2001; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Prottas et al., 2007; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999), and employees more frequently utilised the work-life policies and programs (Butts et al., 2013; Sánchez-Vidal et al., 2012).

Positive outcomes are also evident when employees feel they are granted personal access to work-life policies and programs. Grover and Crooker (1995) examined the impact of perceived availability on organisational attachment. In a sample of 745 randomly selected workers, family-responsive policies were positively associated with affective commitment and turnover intentions. More specifically, when employees reported being eligible for parental leave and childcare assistance, turnover intentions were lower. When flextime was perceived as available, commitment was higher. Grover and Crooker concluded that employees experience stronger attachment to organisations that offer family-responsive policies, even when they may not personally benefit from the provisions.

In a related study, Haar and Spell (2004) hypothesised and demonstrated that employees who possess greater knowledge about what is practically required to utilise work-family practices experience stronger affective commitment. The authors argued that, when employees are knowledgeable about work-family practices, the arrangements are more likely to be perceived as available and accessible. Furthermore, McNall, Masuda, et al. (2010) found that work-family enrichment was stronger when employees reported access to flextime and compressed workweeks.

These findings indicate that, when employees are aware of the provision of work-life benefits within their organisation and report personal access to these arrangements, they are more likely to be attached and committed to the organisation and experience greater enrichment between the domains of work and family, along with more likely to actually use these policies and programs (Baltes et al., 1999; Eaton, 2003; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Haar & Spell, 2004; McNall, Masuda, et al., 2010; Sánchez-Vidal et al., 2012; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999).

Researchers have also demonstrated positive outcomes resulting from employees feeling free to utilise work-life benefits. Eaton (2003) examined the influence of perceived usability on commitment and productivity. Amongst a sample of 383 professional and technical employees of biotechnology firms, stronger commitment and improved productivity were reported by employees when they felt able to utilise flexibility policies. Eaton also compared perceptions of usability with the provision of flexibility policies. Perceived usability demonstrated the strongest association with productivity. Eaton concluded that the perceived usability of flexibility policies is more important to employees than the existence of formal policies or informal practices.

In line with Eaton (2003), Blair-Loy and Wharton (2004) found that employees who were more optimistic about their ability to utilise flexibility policies reported higher levels of organisational commitment than employees who felt constrained from utilising these arrangements. Building on these two studies, Hayman (2009) found that employees who reported feeling free to use and access flexible work schedules experienced lower work interference with personal life and personal life interference with work, along with higher work/personal life enhancement.

Thus, when employees feel free and comfortable to utilise work-life policies and programs, positive consequences ensue with heightened commitment, enhanced perceived productivity, lower work-family conflict and greater work-family enrichment (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Eaton, 2003; Hayman, 2009).

Conversely, Kossek and Nichol (1992) demonstrated the negative outcomes that may eventuate when employees are prevented from utilising available work-life benefits. These researchers compared the attitudes of employees who were either currently using onsite childcare centres or on the waiting lists for the centres. Waiting list employees expressed less positive attitudes than centre users. In particular, waiting list employees perceived access to the centres as unfair and considered the benefit as less valuable. Furthermore, the existence of the childcare centres did not influence their decisions around staying employed with the organisation, nor whether they would recommend employment to a friend. Kossek and Nichol referred to this cynicism as the frustration effect and ascribed this effect to an employer's failure to meet employees' need for work-family support.

The research reviewed indicates that devoting attention to improving the connection between policy provision and policy use generates positive outcomes. Organisations and employees benefit when there is greater awareness of organisational provision amongst workers. Furthermore, advantages accrue when employees perceive that they can personally access these arrangements and feel empowered to do so.

Summary

This chapter examined the work-family interface and work-life benefits. The interdependencies between work and family have become progressively more salient to more people because of demographic, workforce and societal changes (Sweet, 2014). Furthermore, work-family linkages are highly relevant to both the functioning of families and the performance of organisations (Barnett, 1998; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). A multifaceted process connects the provision of work-life benefits by organisations with the utilisation of these arrangements by employees. This provision-utilisation pathway shapes the implementation and effectiveness of work-life policies and programs within organisations.

The succeeding two chapters explore the provision-utilisation pathway, with the organisation, employee and manager being considered. Relevant research is reviewed to both document how the research has evolved and investigate the process further, particularly the reasons for the provision-utilisation gap. Similar to Barnett (1998), the aim was "not to be exhaustive, but to survey the research adequately in order to provide an informed overview" (p. 128). Some papers address multiple steps in the process, such as Pasamar and Alegre (2015) who studied organisational provision, along with

employee use. The majority of papers address only a single step, such as Powell and Mainiero (1999) who studied managerial decision making.

This thesis focused specifically on the step in the provision-utilisation pathway relating to managers. Evidence indicates organisations and employees are more likely to benefit from research that focuses on the manager, as compared with the provision of formal policies or support afforded by the organisation (T. D. Allen et al., 2013; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Major & Morganson, 2011). The decisions reached by managers when evaluating requests for work-life benefits can be improved, which would contribute to minimising the gap between rhetoric and reality.

Chapter 3: Organisational provision and employee utilisation of work-life benefits

This chapter examines the organisational provision of work-life benefits and the utilisation of these arrangements by employees. These two topics define the supply and demand of work-life policies and programs within organisations. The supply side of the equation answers the questions of how and why do organisations respond to the work-life needs of employees by providing work-life policies and programs. The demand side of the equation answers the questions of how employees respond to the provision of work-life benefits and why they decide to utilise these arrangements. Thus, this chapter considers the steps in the process linking policy and practice that relate to the organisation and employee, as highlighted in Figure 2.
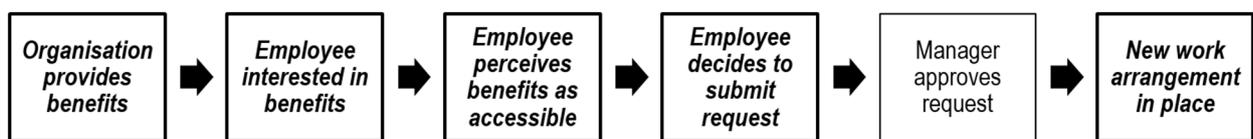
Figure 2. The role of organisations and employees in the provision-utilisation pathway

Organisations: The supply of work-life benefits

The workplace availability of work-life policies and programs reveals that some organisations decide to offer these provisions, whereas other organisations do not. In this section, the general pattern of program development within organisations and the overarching motivation for implementing work-life benefits are canvassed, along with the factors that influence the decision to adopt these arrangements.

Development of work-life programs

Work-family scholars have acknowledged that varied approaches may be assumed by organisations when implementing work-life benefit programs (Galinsky et al., 1991; Kossek et al., 2014). Galinsky et al. maintained that organisations typically progress through distinct stages in the evolution of a work-life program, with companies in the different phases varying philosophically and substantively from each other. These considerations are outlined in the following paragraphs.

The first exposure to work-life benefits within an organisation frequently occurs through individual accommodations. Special arrangements are established with particular employees for reasons such as retaining a high performer (Kossek et al., 2014; Roundtree & Lingle, 2008) or assisting employees with family needs, mainly mothers of young children (Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011). No overall strategy or policies exist within the organisation, but rather a case-by-case approach is adopted (Galinsky et al., 1991; Roundtree & Lingle, 2008).

Organisations typically progress from this unstructured initial stage to creating formal policies and programs (Roundtree & Lingle, 2008). A more integrated and coordinated approach characterises this phase of program development (Galinsky et al., 1991). However, utilisation across employees is uneven and the range of available benefits within an organisation limited (Roundtree & Lingle, 2008). The subsequent phase entails organisations promoting more widespread utilisation of policies and programs as a means to achieve business and individual needs (Roundtree & Lingle, 2008). This shift in thinking is evidenced by the transition from work-family to work-life when describing programs (Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011).

The final phase arises when organisations ensure the culture supports employees with meeting work and personal commitments and the work-life program is incorporated into the overall business strategy (Galinsky et al., 1991). Organisations in this stage are characterised by an agile, flexible work environment in which the culture and the way people are managed are driven by flexibility in thinking, management styles, processes and practices (Roundtree & Lingle, 2008).

Thus, work-family scholars have demarcated the typical progression that organisations follow when implementing work-life benefit programs. Although not always the case, employers tend to progress from addressing individual needs to more systemic, organisational issues. In the following subsection, the reasons why organisations embark on this change are examined.

Rationale for implementing work-life benefits

The literature reveals considerable debate about whether work-life policies and programs are introduced mainly to benefit employees, employers, or both (S. Lewis, 2003). As articulated by Kossek and Thompson (2016), workplace flexibility can be regarded either "as bureaucratic structures that enhance employer control over the worker or as true sources of empowerment to benefit the workers' work-life needs" (p. 258). In this subsection, the alternate perspectives are briefly outlined to capture the underlying rationale for why organisations implement work-life programs.

The two alternate viewpoints on workplace flexibility demarcated by work-family scholars are the employer perspective and the employee perspective (Hill, Grzywacz, et al., 2008; Kossek & Thompson, 2016). The employer perspective focuses on flexibility for the organisation, with secondary consideration of employees (Hill, Grzywacz, et al., 2008). The objective is to flexibly adapt to market and environment changes, whilst containing production costs. Employers support work-life policies and programs as a workforce management strategy for achieving organisational goals (Kossek &

Thompson, 2016). In contrast, the focus of the employee perspective is providing workers with choices that enable them to meet their personal, family, occupational and community needs (Hill, Grzywacz, et al., 2008).

Thus, workplace flexibility can be positioned either as a business strategy for employers or a work-life support for employees (Kossek & Thompson, 2016). These contrasting meanings influence how work-life benefits are implemented and experienced in practice within organisations. To illustrate, employer flexibility could entail introducing compressed workweeks to extend customer coverage, whereas employee flexibility could entail introducing the same benefit but to enable employees to meet childcare needs or volunteer in the community (Hill, Grzywacz, et al., 2008). Furthermore, the outcomes sought by employers and employees can be in conflict. For instance, flextime may be offered within an organisation but, due to concerns about coverage, the policy restricts the variation allowed in start and finish times. From the employee perspective, the flexibility provided has been curbed by employer requirements (Kossek & Thompson, 2016).

Work-family scholars have advocated for a dual agenda: Work-life benefits should address the diverse needs of employees, whilst also assisting the business with meeting its strategic objectives (Abbott & De Cieri, 2008; Bardoel et al., 2000; Dex & Scheibl, 2001; Hill, Grzywacz, et al., 2008; Kossek & Thompson, 2016; Lee, MacDermid, & Buck, 2000; Lobel & Faught, 1996; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). Thus, the optimal outcome arises when work-life provisions both nurture workers and enhance corporate performance (Barnett, 1999). The following subsection examines the factors that influence organisations' decisions to adopt work-life policies and programs.

Organisational provision of work-life benefits

Considerable research has been undertaken on the decisions reached by organisations about the provision of work-life policies and programs. Cook (2004) noted that four frameworks are referenced in the literature: institutional, resource dependency, managerial interpretation and organisational adaptation. In this subsection, these theories are examined to explicate the factors that determine organisational responsiveness to the work-family interface.

Institutional theory contends that organisations face institutional pressures to assist employees balance work and personal responsibilities. Thus, employers provide work-life benefits to ensure they are evaluated as legitimate within society (Cook, 2004; Goodstein, 1994). Researchers often examine size in this context, arguing that larger

companies are more visible and accountable to constituencies. Therefore, larger organisations experience greater external pressure to adopt work-life benefits (Goodstein, 1994). In line with this hypothesis, large organisations are more likely to implement work-life benefits (Bardoel, 2003; den Dulk, Peters, & Poutsma, 2012; Goodstein, 1994; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Osterman, 1995; Pasamar & Valle, 2015; Pitt-Catsouphes, Swanberg, Bond, & Galinsky, 2004; Poelmans, Nuria, & Pablo, 2003; Wang & Verma, 2012).

Institutional theory also maintains that an organisation feels pressured to conform with practices that are widely diffused and supported in an institutional environment (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Oliver, 1991). As Goodstein (1994) explained, when "norms diffuse throughout a given sector, organizations will increasingly incorporate those norms in an effort to enhance their legitimacy, secure critical resources, and remain competitive with similar organizations" (p. 359). Consistent with this proposition, organisations are more likely to adopt work-family benefits when they operate in an industry and geographic region with many responsive employers (Goodstein, 1994; Ingram & Simons, 1995).

Anecdotal evidence supports this conclusion about organisations imitating other organisations. Employers state that they have been driven to mimic other organisations to ensure they offer commensurate provisions and reap the assumed benefits (Dex & Scheibl, 2001; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003). Glass and Finley (2002) described this phenomenon as "the rush to join the bandwagon of family friendly workplaces" (p. 314).

Resource dependency theory claims the reason organisations provide work-life benefits is to secure essential resources (Cook, 2004). Researchers utilising this theoretical framework often examine the composition of the workforce. Organisations will be more inclined to provide work-life benefits when they depend upon attracting and retaining workers that want and utilise these arrangements, such as employees who are women, parents and professionals.

When considering gender, the findings are inconsistent. Managers in Nadeem and Hendry's (2003) study reported that the provision of flexible working had been influenced by the presence of women, especially employees with young children. Consistent with this conclusion, Goodstein (1994), Osterman (1995) and Poelmans et al. (2003) demonstrated that organisations were more likely to adopt work-family benefits when they employed a large proportion of women. In contrast, other researchers have found no effect of female representation on provision (Bloom et al.,

2011; Goodstein, 1995; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Pasamar & Alegre, 2015; Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2004; Sweet et al., 2014; Wang & Verma, 2012).

The results, however, are more consistent when the gender composition of management is examined. Workforces with a large proportion of women in management positions are more likely to provide work-life benefits (Bloom et al., 2011; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Pasamar & Alegre, 2015; Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2004). Thus, the position of women within an organisation, rather than the mere presence of women, may be more influential. As Bloom et al. explained, female managers exert greater influence over the implementation of policies within an organisation and assume a stronger bargaining position with senior management. Consistent with this argument about the power of critical constituents, organisations are more likely to provide work-life benefits when they employ a large proportion of professionals (Bardoel, Moss, Smyrnios, & Tharenou, 1999; den Dulk et al., 2012; Osterman, 1995) or highly qualified workers (Bloom et al., 2011; Budd & Mumford, 2006).

Contrary to resource dependency theory, the provision of work-life benefits has not been found to be influenced by the presence of parents (Bardoel, 2003; Goodstein, 1994), married employees (Budd & Mumford, 2006), or employees with working spouses (Bardoel, 2003; Bardoel et al., 1999). However, parental status has been shown to affect a subset of arrangements. Bardoel et al. (1999) found that organisations were more likely to provide flexible work options, child and dependent care, and employee support programs when they employed more workers with dependent care responsibilities. Thus, the specific policies offered to employees are tailored to assist particular constituents. The research reviewed partly supports resource dependency theory: By offering work-life benefits, an organisation may attract and retain certain employees, especially powerful critical constituents.

According to the notion of managerial interpretation, organisations provide work-life benefits when management interprets these provisions as relevant and significant (Cook, 2004). Research, therefore, seeks to explain how managers actively shape the decision to adopt work-life initiatives. In support of this theoretical explanation, studies have found that work-family programs were more prevalent when management reported greater perceived benefits, fewer concerns and higher levels of knowledge about these arrangements (Bardoel, 2003; Goodstein, 1994, 1995; Pasamar & Valle, 2015). Furthermore, work-life programs were more likely to be adopted when management acknowledged and valued the non-work activities of employees and demonstrated a

commitment to helping employees foster work-life balance (Bardoel, 2003; Pasamar & Alegre, 2015; Pasamar & Valle, 2015; Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2004; Sweet et al., 2014).

Additional support for managerial interpretation is provided by Wang and Verma (2012)[1] who documented the influence of an organisation's business strategy on work-life benefit provision. These researchers found that a product leadership business strategy was positively related, and a cost leadership business strategy was negatively related, to the provision of work-life balance programs.

In qualitative, longitudinal case studies with two Australian subsidiaries of large multinational firms, Abbott and De Cieri (2008) illustrated this relationship between strategy and organisational provision. When an extension of service delivery was necessitated by a change in business strategy in one organisation, the provision of work-life benefits had expanded as a means to attract and retain employees. In contrast, the other organisation was experiencing economic challenges, so the provision of work-life benefits was contracting as management's priorities had shifted from employee well-being and retention to cost reduction.

Wang and Verma (2012) demonstrated that the business strategy of an organisation primarily exerts its influence on the provision of work-life benefits through the employment strategy. These scholars examined high-performance work systems (HPWS), alternatively called high-commitment work systems (HCWS). As Wang and Verma explained, HPWS entail a set of human resource management practices designed to equip employees with the skills, knowledge and motivation to assist an organisation obtain a competitive advantage.

Wang and Verma (2012) found that the relationship between business strategies and the adoption of work-life balance programs was mediated by HPWS. Other researchers have similarly found a relationship between HCWS and the adoption of work-life programs (Osterman, 1995; Poelmans et al., 2003). Thus, Wang and Verma demonstrated that the approach an organisation assumes for managing its employees is the mechanism through which business strategies shape the decision to implement work-life balance programs.

In line with these findings, Bloom et al. (2011) found that family-friendly workplace practices were more prevalent in organisations with performance-enhancing management practices. When the business was being managed effectively through

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[1] Although Wang and Verma (2012) measured organisational provision based on employee responses, this study was included because multiple employees were sampled from each workplace (between three and 24) and the responses were highly consistent based on interrater reliability.

operations management, performance monitoring, target setting and people management, family-friendly workplace practices were more likely to be provided to employees. These findings collectively support managerial interpretation – that strategies, practices and attitudes of management influences work-life benefit provision.

Finally, the notion of organisational adaptation implies that work-life programs are provided to align the organisation with the changing environment (Cook, 2004). Goodstein (1995) utilised this theoretical framework to explore employer involvement in eldercare, arguing that organisations would be more responsive when eldercare issues were recognised in the environment and interpreted as a significant organisational concern. Involvement in eldercare was found to be greater when eldercare concerns were more visible through connections with other organisations involved in work-family issues, employees' needs had been assessed, a broad range of other work-family benefits was available and eldercare benefits were perceived to enhance employee productivity. Thus, adoption of work-life benefits was more likely when social and demographic changes in the environment were recognised and interpreted as critical.

The decisions reached within organisations about adopting work-life benefits determine the supply of these arrangements. Not all organisations decide to implement work-life policies and programs, and thus not all employees can access these benefits. The research reviewed indicates that the policy adoption decision is shaped by several factors, with the most consistent determinants being organisational size, industry provision, employee status and management priorities. Once an organisation decides to adopt work-life benefits, programs tend to develop through a staged approach, and the dual agenda rationale advocates for both organisational economic needs and employees' social needs to be considered. In the next section, the focus shifts from the organisation to the employee, with an examination of the factors that influence employee utilisation of work-life benefits.

Employees: The demand for work-life benefits

When employees work within organisations that provide work-life policies and programs, they are presented with the opportunity to utilise these arrangements as a mechanism to manage work and personal commitments. Work-family scholars have argued that, for employees to utilise work-life benefits, they need to be interested in these provisions (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004), formally eligible and knowledgeable about the offerings (Budd & Mumford, 2006), along with feeling empowered to access and utilise these arrangements (Eaton, 2003). These preconditions are represented diagrammatically in Figure 3 and considered in this section.

Employee interested in work-life benefits

Employee formally eligible for work-life benefits

Employee decides to utilise work-life benefit

Employee knowledgeable about work-life benefits

Employee perceives work-life benefits as accessible

Employee perceives work-life benefits as usable
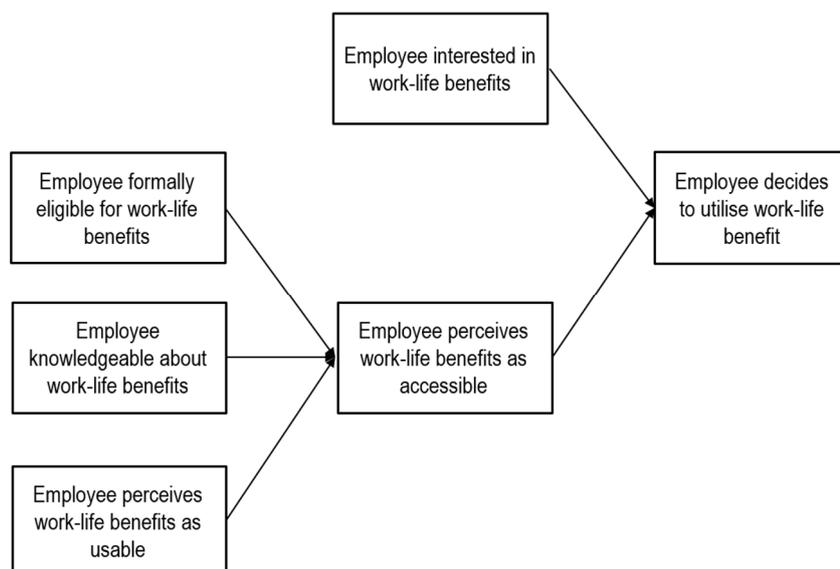
Figure 3. The determinants of employee utilisation of work-life benefits

Interest in work-life benefits

Work-family scholars have investigated employee interest in work-life policies and programs, questioning workers about plans to utilise these arrangements in the future and preferences or desires for alternate work arrangements. This research is reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Research indicates employees are interested in work-life policies and programs. Skinner and Pocock (2010) found that, amongst a nationally representative Australian sample, 31 percent of full-time women and 14 percent of full-time men would prefer to work part-time. In line with this observation, Wharton and Blair-Loy (2002) found that 43 percent of the managers and professionals in their sample from a multinational financial services organisation expressed interest in working part-time. Similarly, over 80 percent of the sample were interested in flextime and flexplace (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004). Finally, Peters et al. (2004) found that 55 percent of their representative sample of Dutch employees expressed a preference to telecommute.

Research has also established that workers are dissatisfied with the hours they work, implying they are interested in greater flexibility. Skinner et al. (2012) reported that 40 percent of men and 36 percent of women wanted to work fewer hours. In addition, 16 percent of men and 17 percent of women wanted to work more hours. Thus, over half of the workers' preferences around work schedules were unmet, even after controlling for the effect of any change in hours on income. Individuals who worked few hours on average preferred more work, whereas individuals who worked very long hours on average preferred to work less. Employees seek more control over working hours (Skinner & Pocock, 2010). A better match between the actual hours worked and their

preferred schedule is sought by employees, and they are willing to make financial sacrifices to achieve this alignment.

When researchers investigate who is interested in work-life benefits, they often focus on personal and family characteristics, with the hypothesis that interest will be higher amongst constituents with a greater personal need for flexibility. Gender and parental status have, therefore, been examined. Amongst a sample of 188 parents, Butler, Gasser, and Smart (2004) found that women reported stronger intentions to utilise a range of family-friendly benefits than men. Similarly, Bond et al. (2002) found that women wanted to utilise family leave arrangements. Men and women, however, were equally likely to have wanted to utilise flexible work arrangements (FWAs).

When considering specific benefits, women express interest in unpaid leave (Kossek, Barber, & Winters, 1999), along with part-time, job sharing and term-time working arrangements (Kossek et al., 1999; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003; Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2002). Female managers are more likely to plan to utilise flextime than male managers (Kossek et al., 1999), whereas male and female employees are equally interested in flextime, compressed workweeks and telecommuting (Nadeem & Hendry, 2003; Peters et al., 2004). Thus, women are more interested in work-life benefits that decrease the hours of work, whereas gender does not influence interest in full-time arrangements. Kossek et al. (1999) explained that women may want to lower their work role involvement in preference for more time with their family.

Findings on parental status are difficult to summarise because researchers employ different conceptualisations. Butler et al. (2004) found that parents with younger children reported stronger intentions to use family-friendly benefits. Bond et al. (2002) found that parents were more likely than non-parents to have wanted to utilise family leave and FWAs. Wharton and Blair-Loy (2002) found that parents of young children expressed more interest in working part-time, whereas Peters et al. (2004) found that employees preferred telecommuting when fewer children were present in the household. Kossek et al. (1999) and Nadeem and Hendry (2003) reported no significant findings with their respective measures of dependent care and childcare responsibility.

Researchers have also investigated factors that affect the power and influence of employees, such as, seniority, occupation, salary and education. As Nadeem and Hendry (2003) explained, these variables affect the centrality of roles within an organisation and the difficulty in substituting for skills and knowledge. These authors found that part-time, job sharing and term-time working arrangements were more desirable amongst employees who worked in clerical and secretarial positions, earned

lower incomes and possessed less education. These differences were not apparent when examining full-time flexible working options. Kossek et al. (1999) found that first-level supervisors were more interested in flextime and part-time work than higher level managers. Thus, the status of an employee informs interest in work-life benefits, with interest in reduced-time options being stronger amongst less powerful constituents.

Interest in work-life benefits is also influenced by the outcomes that may eventuate as a consequence of utilising these arrangements. Based on social-cognitive theory, Butler et al. (2004) argued that the decision to use family-friendly benefits is shaped by two cognitions: outcome expectancies, which are the potential outcomes of for the work and family domains, and work-family self-efficacy, which is an individual's belief about being able to competently manage the demands of work and family. Parents were more likely to intend to use family-friendly programs when they expected positive outcomes for their family, such as improved life quality for their children. When female parents expected positive outcomes in the work domain, such as career progression, intentions to use were also stronger. In contrast, parents expressed weaker intentions to utilise family-friendly programs when they believed they were able to competently manage the demands of work and family.

Similarly, Wharton and Blair-Loy (2002) found that respondents expressed more interest in working part-time when they believed prioritising their family would be advantageous for career advancement and perceived work as impeding their family and personal lives. Kossek et al. (1999) found that managers expressed stronger intentions to use flexible schedules when they were positive about the business consequences for the department from alternative schedules.

Furthermore, Peters et al. (2004) found that employees preferred telecommuting when they believed this arrangement would create a quiet working environment and flexible scheduling of the day. Thus, interest in work-life benefits is strengthened when managers and employees are optimistic about the potential outcomes. Personal values and the social context similarly play roles. When managers valued their family more than work, Kossek et al. (1999) found that intent to use flexible schedules was stronger. Intentions to use were also higher when the workgroup consisted of peers who had used these arrangements.

The research reviewed confirms employees are interested in work-life policies and programs. As Kossek et al. (1999) concluded, employees' interest is influenced by personal and family needs, along with the social and business contexts within which they work. Women and lower-status employees desire reduced-hours arrangements.

Employees are also interested in work-life benefits when they expect positive outcomes to eventuate, whether that is for their department, themselves as workers or for their family. In addition to being interested, employees also need to perceive that they can access the available work-life benefits, which is the focus of the next subsection.

Perceived accessibility of work-life benefits

Work-family scholars have questioned employees about whether they personally can access work-life policies and programs. These beliefs are grounded in a multitude of factors, but they ultimately influence whether an employee will utilise these arrangements. This subsection explores the perceived accessibility of work-life benefits.

Research supports the assertion that employees' build up perceptions about whether they could avail themselves of work-life policies and programs. Amongst 484 managers and employees from a financial services organisation who were formally entitled to three alternate work arrangements (AWAs), Flack (1999) found that 65 percent indicated flextime was available for them to utilise, 44 percent indicated a compressed workweek was available and 33 percent indicated working from home was available. Similarly, in Nadeem and Hendry's (2003) study, approximately 30 percent of employees reported that part-time work was unavailable to them personally, even though this provision was formally provided within the organisation.

In a nationally representative sample, Budd and Mumford (2006) measured perceived accessibility to formal family-friendly policies. Only 17 percent of employees reported that home working was available to them personally if needed. The other rates of perceived accessibility were 20 percent for subsidised childcare, 26 percent for job sharing, 34 percent for parental leave and 52 percent for paid family leave. One in three employees believed that none of the five family-friendly policies were accessible to them personally. Thus, a gap exists between the formal availability of work-life benefits and employees' perceptions of personal access.

Researchers have investigated which employees are more likely to report personal access to work-life policies and programs. Women are no more likely than men to report access to flextime, compressed workweeks, part-time work, sabbaticals and unpaid leave (Flack, 1999; McNamara et al., 2012; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003; Peters et al., 2004). Researchers have found women are less likely to report having access to telecommuting (Budd & Mumford, 2006; Singh et al., 2012). However, other researchers have found no gender effects on perceived accessibility for telecommuting (Flack, 1999; McNamara et al., 2012; Peters et al., 2004).

Parents and non-parents equally report having access to flextime, compressed workweeks, part-time work, telecommuting and job sharing (Budd & Mumford, 2006; Flack, 1999; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003; Peters et al., 2004). Women and parents, however, are more likely to report access to parental leave and subsidised childcare (Budd & Mumford, 2006).

The status of employees has been examined, with the hypothesis that high-status employees will report greater personal access to work-life policies and programs. This proposition receives limited support, with most researchers finding no effects for tenure and income on perceived accessibility (Budd & Mumford, 2006; Flack, 1999; McNamara et al., 2012; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003). Employees with more education, however, tend to report greater personal access to a range of work-life benefits (Budd & Mumford, 2006; McNamara et al., 2012; Peters et al., 2004; Singh et al., 2012).

Occupation also plays a role in perceived accessibility. McNamara et al. (2012) and Singh et al. (2012) found that employees working in more professional occupations reported greater access to a range of work-life policies and programs. Furthermore, Flack (1999) found employees were more likely to report that AWAs were personally available when they worked in the professional divisions compared to the operational. Similarly, Glass and Fujimoto (1995) found employed pregnant women were more likely to report that they could utilise leave and working from home benefits when the workforce comprised mostly professionals and managers. Thus, the context in which employees work influences perceptions around access, with more educated and professional workforces reporting greater personal access to work-life benefits.

Workplace support is also important. McNamara et al. (2012) found that employees were more likely to report having access to a range of flexible work options when they perceived their organisation and supervisor as supportive. Glass and Fujimoto (1995) found that employed pregnant women reported they could utilise flextime, schedule flexibility and part-time work when their supervisors were supportive of their family role. Relatedly, Flack (1999) found that employees reported telecommuting was available when they felt trusted by their supervisors, and Peters et al. (2004) found that employees were more likely to be granted the opportunity to telecommute when their supervisors were not physically present at their workplace.

A mismatch clearly exists between what organisations offer and what employees think is available to them personally. This perception gap diminishes the likelihood of requesting a work-life benefit and ultimately restricts the utilisation of these arrangements by employees. As Budd and Mumford (2006) concluded, workplace

availability does not guarantee individual access, and there are systematic differences in perceptions of access across employee groups. These perceptions about whether work-life benefits can be personally accessed are shaped by employees' knowledge of the provisions, along with beliefs around the usability of these arrangements. These factors are considered in the following subsections.

Knowledge about work-life benefits

Employees' perceptions about which work-life policies and programs are available to them personally partly reflect their knowledge about the formal provision of these arrangements within the organisation. This subsection examines employees' awareness and knowledge about work-life policies and programs.

Research indicates employees profess to be knowledgeable about work-life benefits. Across four studies, Prottas et al. (2007) found that employees professed to be knowledgeable about the availability of 76 to 91 percent of work-family practices. That is, employees responded that the policy was available or not, as compared with not knowing or being unsure. Women and employees with dependents and longer organisational tenure professed greater knowledge about practice availability. Haar and Spell (2004) also examined program knowledge and found that employees, on average, could recount the steps required to utilise 4.3 of the six work-family practices that were formally offered by a government agency. Program knowledge was unrelated to gender and age, but parents were more knowledgeable than non-parents.

Research, however, questions the accuracy of this employee knowledge. Sánchez-Vidal et al. (2012) compared the perspectives of managers and employees on the provision of work-life practices within Spanish firms. When asked whether 18 work-life practices were available to employees within their organisations, managers reported greater availability than employees. The mean correlation between the employee and managers' responses was 0.32. Sánchez-Vidal et al. concluded that a knowledge gap was evident between managers and employees regarding work-life practices.

In line with the findings reported by Sánchez-Vidal et al. (2012), Cooper et al. (2001) found that employees underestimated the provision of flexible working provisions. For instance, 11 percent of human resource managers reported formally offering term-time working, whereas not a single employee reported that this policy was offered within their organisation. Similarly, amongst an Australian sample of employed mothers, Martin et al. (2012) found that 70 percent reported access to statutory unpaid leave, despite 82 percent being eligible based on employment status.

Prottas et al. (2007) also investigated accuracy by comparing employee and human resource manager reports on availability. Responses differed significantly. Indeed, only 62 percent of the responses matched, with the mean correlation between the employee and managers' responses being 0.38. In contrast to other research, employees overestimated the number and types of benefits on offer. This difference may be attributed to perceptions of support. Individuals who perceived their organisation as family-supportive overestimated availability, whereas individuals who perceived their organisation as unsupportive underestimated availability.

Thus, employees' knowledge about the formal availability of work-life policies and programs is varied, with some employee groups professing greater knowledge than other employee groups. However, the accuracy of this knowledge is questionable and employees tend to underestimate the availability of work-life benefits. For employees to utilise work-life benefits they must be aware that these provisions are available. In addition, employees must perceive the available work-life policies and programs as usable, which is the focus of the next subsection.

Perceived usability of work-life benefits

Work-family scholars have contended that some employees feel free and able to use work-life policies and programs, whereas other employees feel constrained or restricted (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Eaton, 2003). Referred to as the perceived usability of work-life benefits, this construct is examined in the following paragraphs.

Research confirms employees are concerned about their ability to utilise work-life policies and programs. Amongst 383 professional and technical employees of biotechnology firms, Eaton (2003) found that, on average, respondents felt able to utilise only 1.5 of the seven flexibility policies that were available. Similarly, Blair-Loy and Wharton (2004) reported that over 30 percent of the managers and professionals in their sample from a multinational financial services organisation felt constrained from utilising flextime and flexplace. That is, they would have liked to utilise these flexibility policies but doubted they could.

Given women and parents are traditionally the target audience for work-life policies and programs, men and employees without parenting responsibilities may feel restricted from utilising these provisions (McDonald et al., 2005). Research does not support this hypothesis, however. Eaton (2003) found that perceived usability was uncorrelated with gender or the presence of children. In line with this finding, Blair-Loy and Wharton (2004) found that men and women were equally likely to feel constrained from using flextime and flexplace.

Employees may feel discouraged from utilising work-life benefits because of job characteristics, which impede the feasibility of working flexibly. Consistent with this proposition, Blair-Loy and Wharton (2004) found employees who worked in functions that provided professional services to the organisation were more optimistic about their ability to use flextime and flexplace than their counterparts in functions servicing external customers. As the authors explained, when servicing external client's employees are often subject to their clients' schedules, whereas when the client is internal there may be greater leeway around when and where tasks are completed.

The status of employees also influences perceptions about the usability of work-life benefits. In their study of 572 employed caregivers, Barnett, Gareis, Gordon, and Brennan (2009) found that employees with more senior occupations and higher household incomes were more likely to perceive that flexibility policies could be used without any career penalties. Similarly, Eaton (2003) found that managers reported stronger feelings of being free to use flexibility policies than did professional employees.

Blair-Loy and Wharton (2004) examined the social context, arguing that employees in less supportive workgroups with less powerful co-workers would feel constrained from using flexibility policies. Consistent with the assertion about support, employees who worked in teams with a lower percentage of women and parents reported stronger feelings of constraint regarding flextime use. Thus, when the workgroup consisted of co-workers more likely to utilise flexibility policies, employees felt more confident that they would personally be able to utilise these provisions.

Employees report feeling prohibited or constrained from availing themselves of work-life benefits, which diminishes the utilisation of these arrangements. Based on the limited research conducted to date, the status of employees and their job characteristics, along with the social context, influence whether employees feel free to utilise work-life policies and programs, whereas demographics do not seem to be related to this perceived freedom. Thus, when considering Figure 3, employees are interested in work-life benefits but may have accrued limited or inaccurate knowledge about the provisions and feel constrained from utilising these arrangements. The following subsection examines the decision to request a work-life benefit.

Deciding to participate in work-life programs

When faced with the prospect of utilising a work-life benefit, an employee must reach the decision to participate in such an arrangement. This section examines two theoretical models by Veiga et al. (2004) and Swody and Powell (2007) that document the factors that may shape an employee's decision to request a work-life benefit.

As illustrated in Figure 4, Veiga et al. (2004) argued that the strength of an employee's intention to participate in a family-friendly program is determined by an individual assessment of participation, which in turn is influenced by organisation-based situational characteristics.
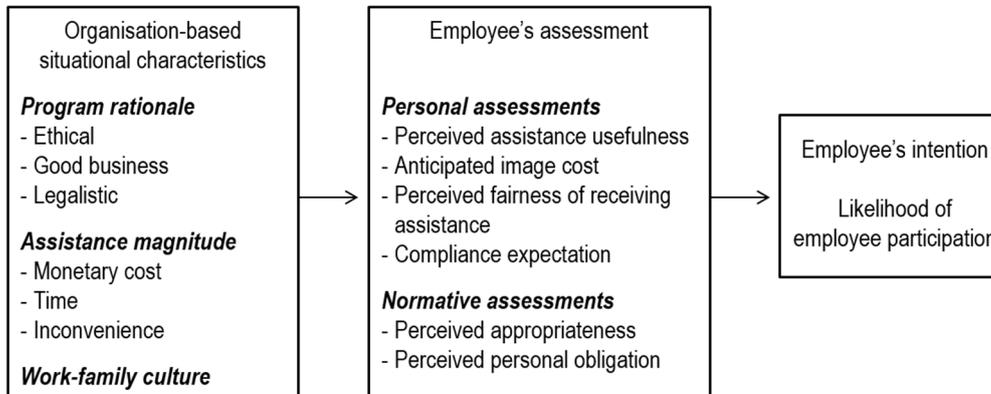
Figure 4. Employee participation assessment framework (Veiga et al., 2004)

As depicted in Figure 5, Swody and Powell (2007) considered organisational and managerial determinants of an employee's decision to participate in family-friendly programs. The authors assumed a psychosocial perspective, arguing that the decision to participate is influenced by an employee's family needs and perceptions of support. Thus, participation is more likely when an employee must fulfil extensive family needs that may be successfully addressed by family-friendly programs. This relationship is moderated by perceptions of support, such that an employee is more likely to participate when the organisation and manager are perceived as supportive. Perceptions of support are shaped by the responsiveness of the organisation and manager to work-family issues, which in turn is influenced by the employees' family needs.
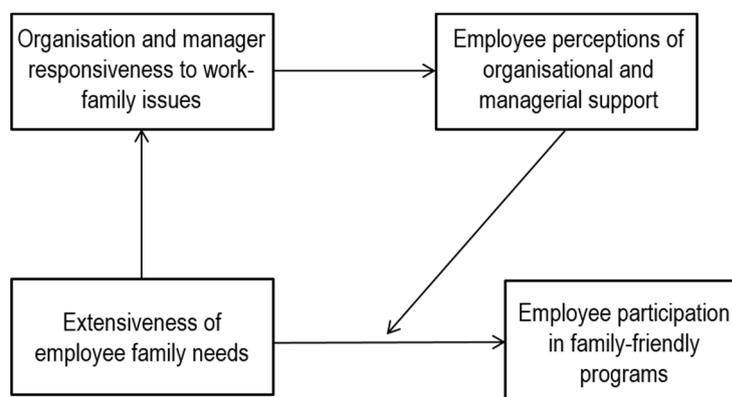
Figure 5. Organisational and managerial determinants of employee participation in family-friendly programs (Swody & Powell, 2007)

At the employee level, the two models positioned that decisions to participate are influenced by personal considerations. Veiga et al. (2004) hypothesised that employees

are more likely to participate when they believe positive concrete benefits will eventuate, namely reducing work-life conflict. This proposition aligns to Swody and Powell's (2007) prediction about family needs: employees with greater family needs benefit more from utilising family-friendly programs.

Furthermore, Veiga et al. (2004) predicted that employees are dissuaded from participating when they are concerned about damaging their workplace image through negative judgments by other people, being labelled and stigmatised or appearing to be less committed to the organisation. Veiga et al. also predicted that employees are more likely to participate when receiving assistance is perceived as fair and equitable, along with when the choice to participate is perceived as appropriate or obligatory.

Management behaviour also affects the likelihood of participating. Veiga et al. (2004) hypothesised that employees are more likely to participate in family-friendly programs when it is expected that a request will be approved by their manager. Similarly, Swody and Powell (2007) argued employees perceive their managers as more responsive and supportive when participation in work-family programs is promoted, program information is imparted to employees and requests to participate are approved. Furthermore, managers' actions are perceived as responsive and supportive when the behaviours are proactive and motivated by the desire to help employees.

At the organisational level, both models contended that the program rationale is important. Veiga et al. (2004) predicted that an employee's assessment will be more favourable when the principal reason for providing assistance centres on ethics and acting socially responsibly, or good business and making sound investments. In contrast, the assessment will be less favourable when a legalistic rationale focused on avoiding negative consequences is dominant. Similarly, Swody and Powell (2007) hypothesised that employees will perceive their organisations as more supportive, and consequently participate in family-friendly programs, when the program is implemented voluntarily with the intention of benefiting employees, rather than achieving economic or reputational gains.

Furthermore, Veiga et al. (2004) predicted that an employee's assessment will be more favourable when the resource implications of the requested assistance are perceived as reasonable and the work-family culture is deemed supportive. This proposition concurs with Swody and Powell's (2007) comments about the importance of perceived organisational support. Employees are more likely to participate in family-friendly programs when the organisation is perceived as supportive.

Thus, an employee's decision to participate in a work-life program is predicted to be shaped by a multitude of factors. The propositions of Veiga et al. (2004) and Swody and Powell (2007) remain to be tested, although the research covered in the subsequent subsection on employee utilisation indicates which employees decided to participate and subsequently received support from their managers.

Employee utilisation of work-life benefits

Following the submission of a request to a manager and the receipt of approval to access a work-life benefit, an employee proceeds to utilising the new arrangement. Considerable research has been conducted on the types of work-life policies and programs that are being utilised, along with who is using these benefits. This research provides an understanding of the proliferation of these arrangements amongst employees. As S. J. Lambert (1998) stated, the findings characterise the typical profile of users. This research is examined in the following paragraphs.

Researchers have demonstrated that employee uptake of work-life policies and programs is relatively limited (e.g., Budd & Mumford, 2006; Butler et al., 2004; McNamara et al., 2012; Newman & Mathews, 1999; Pasamar, 2015). In an Australian sample, Skinner et al. (2012) documented that 42 percent worked part-time, 26 percent worked flextime, 17 percent worked a compressed workweek and 10 percent job shared. These numbers are comparable to samples from other countries. For instance, in a financial services organisation in the United States, Sweet, James, and Pitt-Catsouphes (2015) documented that 41 percent of employees utilised an alternate location option, 34 percent a variable schedule, 10 percent a compressed workweek, 2 percent a reduced work arrangement and 1 percent job shared.

Rates of usage tend to be higher when considering statutorily provided provisions and leave arrangements. Martin et al. (2012) found that 81 per cent of mothers and 45 per cent of fathers utilised unpaid leave for which they were eligible. Furthermore, when employees could access employer-paid parental leave, 96 per cent of mothers and 92 per cent of fathers utilised the leave. Thus, rates of usage vary according to the type of benefit.

Research on who is utilising work-life benefits has focused on several factors, including personal and household factors. Employees who need flexibility are hypothesised to be more likely to utilise these provisions. Consistent with this argument, women are more likely to utilise family leave (Sandberg, 1999), family-care policies (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002), supports for children (S. J. Lambert, 1998) and part-time working (Bond et al., 2002; Kossek et al., 1999; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003).

Women and men are equally likely to use compressed workweeks (McNamara et al., 2012), flextime (McNamara et al., 2012; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003) and working from home (Flack, 1999; McNamara et al., 2012; Peters et al., 2004). The absence of gender differences in full-time options has also been found when these policies are considered in a bundle (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; A. D. Lambert, Marler, & Gueutal, 2008; Secret, 2000). Thus, women tend to use two types of work-life benefits – arrangements that relate specifically to children, such as childcare, and policies that reduce working hours.

Employees with parenting responsibilities are more likely to utilise family leave (Sandberg, 1999), family-care policies (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002), supports for children (S. J. Lambert, 1998), dependent care supports (T. D. Allen, 2001) and time off for domestic emergencies (Bond et al., 2002). Parenting responsibilities are unrelated to the use of part-time working (Kossek et al., 1999; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003), flextime (Bond et al., 2002; Kossek et al., 1999; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003; Shockley & Allen, 2010) and telecommuting (McNamara et al., 2012; Peters et al., 2004; Shockley & Allen, 2010; Singh et al., 2012). The use of work-life benefits is also not influenced by whether an employee is married or unmarried (T. D. Allen, 2001; Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Butler et al., 2004; A. D. Lambert et al., 2008; S. J. Lambert, 1998; McNamara et al., 2012; Peters et al., 2004; Sandberg, 1999; Secret, 2000), nor whether their spouse works or stays at home (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Secret, 2000).

When gender, age and the presence of children are considered together, a finer grain picture appears. This approach was adopted by Hill, Jacob et al. (2008). A life course, role context theoretical perspective was employed to investigate use of flextime, compressed workweeks, telecommuting, part-time working and job sharing. Five life stages were delineated based on the employee's age and the presence and age of children; these factors were deemed useful markers to represent changes in the experience of the work-family interface over the life course. Based on data from a multi-company database, a curvilinear relationship was found in gender differences by life stage for the use of workplace flexibility.

In particular, Hill, Jacob et al. (2008) demonstrated that use of workplace flexibility did not differ between men and women who were younger than 35 years of age and not parents. Women, however, were more likely to use part-time work, job sharing, flextime and telecommuting when their children were of pre-school and school age. Once all the children were of school age, Hill, Jacob et al. found that women were still more likely to use part-time work and job sharing, but there were no other gender differences. In the final life stage examined, when employees were 45 years and older

with grown children, use of workplace flexibility did not depend on gender, with the exception that job sharing was more common amongst men.

Hill, Jacob et al. (2008) concluded that use of workplace flexibility does not vary when men and women are in life stages without dependent children. Women, however, are more likely to use workplace flexibility when children are present in the home, particularly options that reduce working hours. Thus, gender is better understood in the context of life stage. The gendered nature of policy use is reinforced by research that found mothers used flextime to support their mothering role, whereas fathers used flextime for personal activities, such as exercise (Haar, 2007). Thus, even when men and women utilise work-life benefits, gender differences are evident in the purpose for utilising these arrangements.

The status of employees has been investigated, with the hypothesis that high-status employees will be more likely to utilise work-life policies and programs. This prediction receives limited support, with most researchers finding that tenure, income, occupation, seniority and education are unrelated to employee use of work-life benefits (T. D. Allen, 2001; Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013; Flack, 1999; Kossek et al., 1999; A. D. Lambert et al., 2008; S. J. Lambert, 1998; McNamara et al., 2012; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003; Sandberg, 1999; Secret, 2000; Singh et al., 2012). Furthermore, supervisors are no more likely to utilise work-life benefits (de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013; Flack, 1999; McNamara et al., 2012; Peters et al., 2004).

Other factors have been considered to explain employee use of work-life benefits, such as the potential outcomes that may arise from utilising these arrangements. Amongst 362 Greek workers, Giannikis and Mihail (2011) found that FWA use was more likely when employees believed working flexibly would provide balance between work and life responsibilities. FWA use was diminished when employees perceived the personal barriers to be high, such as limiting career progress, being viewed as uncommitted and experiencing negative reactions from supervisors and colleagues. Similarly, FWA use was lower when employees were concerned about organisational barriers, such as the inequity of access, challenges in evaluating performance and potential for abuse.

In a related study, Butler et al. (2004) found that positive work outcome expectancies were related, and family outcome expectancies were unrelated, to greater benefit use. Thus, employees were more frequent users of family-friendly benefits when it was expected that the consequences would be beneficial for work, such as improving their career progress or bolstering their status at work. The research by Giannikis and

Mihail (2011) and Butler et al. indicates that employees' perceptions about the benefits and costs of utilising work-life policies and programs influence behaviour.

Individual differences have also been shown to affect use of work-life benefits. Shockley and Allen (2010) predicted that employees' innate motivational needs would influence FWA use. Amongst a sample of 238 university faculty, these researchers examined need for affiliation at work, need for segmentation of work from other life roles and need for occupational achievement. The utilisation of flexplace and flextime was lower for employees with a strong need for segmentation, as compared with employees who preferred integration. Furthermore, for academics with high family responsibilities, the utilisation of flextime was lower when a strong need for achievement was reported. Thus, individual psychological factors are influential.

The work-family culture has also been examined, with the hypothesis that work-life benefits will be utilised more when the work environment is family-supportive. In a seminal study, C. A. Thompson et al. (1999) investigated the relationship between work-family culture and work-family benefit utilisation. These authors demarcated three dimensions of a work-family culture. Managerial support is the extent to which managers are supportive and sensitive to employees' family responsibilities; career consequences is the extent to which negative career consequences arise from using work-family benefits, and organisational time demands is the extent to which employees are expected to prioritise work above family.

Amongst a sample of 276 managers and professionals, C. A. Thompson et al. (1999) found that employees were more likely to utilise work-family benefits when the work-family culture was perceived as supportive. When the components of culture were examined separately, managerial support was related, and career consequences and organisational time demands were unrelated, to utilisation. In line with these findings, T. D. Allen (2001) found that supervisor support, along with the family supportiveness of the organisation, were positively related to family-friendly benefit usage amongst a sample of 522 employees. The connection between supervisor support and policy utilisation has been demonstrated by other researchers (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Breaugh & Frye, 2007, 2008; de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013).

Further research substantiates the claim that the work environment influences employees' use of work-life benefits. For instance, Shockley and Allen (2010) found that face-time orientation – the extent to which a work environment expects employees to be physically present constantly and rewards this behaviour – was negatively related to FWA use. Similarly, Flack (1999) found that compressed workweeks and telecommuting

were more likely to be utilised when employees perceived that their performance was not evaluated based on face-time.

Work-life benefits are more widely used when organisations deem work-life balance a core value and actively promote work-life balance (Pasamar & Alegre, 2015; Pasamar & Valle, 2015), along with when the work-life culture has been formalised, such as by having an official work-life balance program with a dedicated budget (Pasamar, 2015). Work-life benefit use is also higher when more policies are available to employees within organisations (T. D. Allen, 2001; Breaugh & Frye, 2007; Butts et al., 2013; de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013; Pasamar, 2015; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999).

The workplace social context has also been investigated. In a sample of 459 managerial and professional employees from a multinational financial services organisation, Blair-Loy and Wharton (2002) examined whether the social resources of support or power influenced employee use of work-family benefits. Use of family-care policies was greatest amongst employees in workgroups characterised by higher percentages of men and longer average organisational tenure. Use of flexibility policies was higher amongst employees in workgroups characterised by higher percentages of unmarried workers, younger employees and longer average organisational tenure. Use of both policy types was higher when the supervisor was a man and unmarried.

Blair-Loy and Wharton (2002) concluded that work-family benefit use is more likely when employees work with powerful supervisors and co-workers who can afford protection from perceived negative consequences, rather than with supervisors and co-workers who need work-family policies because of family caregiving obligations. In support of this conclusion, Jaoko (2012) found that supervisors with caregiving responsibilities were no more likely to have direct reports utilising FWAs than supervisors without caregiving responsibilities.

Consistent with the argument about the importance of power and protection, employees are more likely to utilise work-life benefits when exposed to colleagues utilising these arrangements, whether that is amongst peers and subordinates (Kossek et al., 1999), or more broadly in the workgroup, department or organisation (de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013; Flack, 1999; A. D. Lambert et al., 2008). Use of work-life benefits has also been found to be stronger when more women assume managerial positions (Pasamar & Alegre, 2015), whereas the presence of women is unrelated (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Kossek et al., 1999; Pasamar, 2015; Pasamar & Alegre, 2015; Peters et al., 2004). Employees may, therefore, feel empowered to utilise work-life benefits when

there are examples of other workers utilising these arrangements without negative consequences and women assume powerful positions in the organisation.

Thus, employees are utilising work-life policies and programs, but to varying extents and not evenly across employee segments. Employee utilisation of work-life benefits is shaped by gender in the context of life stage, along with individual attitudes and psychological differences. The work and social contexts are also influential.

Summary

This chapter examined the organisational provision and employee utilisation of work-life benefits. Organisations are responding to employees' desire for greater balance between the domains of work and family by providing work-life policies and programs. These benefits are more prevalent amongst organisations that are large. These benefits are also common in organisations that operate in environments with many responsive organisations, depend upon attracting and retaining powerful critical constituents and are managed by leaders who deem work-life benefits a strategic priority. However, there is uneven coverage across organisations and employee groups in the workplace availability of work-life policies and programs.

The research on employees indicates significant interest in utilising work-life benefits; however, these arrangements are not being utilised because employees are unaware and possess inaccurate knowledge about these provisions, along with harbouring perceptions that these benefits are inaccessible or unavailable to them personally. When considering the commonalities, gender and parental responsibilities shape whether employees' express interest, perceive that they have access and ultimately utilise these arrangements, especially reduced-hour and dependent-care.

Power and influence are also relevant. Lower status employees convey more interest in work-life benefits, whereas higher status employees report greater personal access and higher perceived usability for these arrangements. Power and influence, however, does not affect who utilises these arrangements. Finally, support is a common theme. When the organisation, supervisor and workgroup are perceived as more supportive, employees express more interest, greater perceived access and higher perceived usability, which translates into higher usage.

The research reviewed highlights how central managers are to explaining, and remedying, the gap between the provision and utilisation of work-life benefits. When senior management interprets work-life benefits as relevant and significant, organisations are more likely to provide these initiatives to employees (Abbott & De

Cieri, 2008; Bardoel, 2003; Bloom et al., 2011; Goodstein, 1994, 1995; Osterman, 1995; Pasamar & Alegre, 2015; Pasamar & Valle, 2015; Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2004; Poelmans et al., 2003; Sweet et al., 2014; Wang & Verma, 2012).

Similarly, managers influence employees' awareness and understanding of work-life policies and programs, given managers are responsible for communicating to employees about these arrangements (Kossek et al., 1999; S. Lewis, 2003; Newman & Mathews, 1999; Swody & Powell, 2007). In a survey of companies that provide FWAs, Hewitt Associates (2008) found that employees were primarily informed about policies through the organisations intranet and communications from managers. Unfortunately, research has demonstrated that managers' awareness of formal family-friendly provisions is limited and variable (Bond & Wise, 2003; Wise, 2005; Wise & Bond, 2003).

Finally, employees' perceptions about their personal access to work-life benefits are shaped by managers. In particular, the words and behaviours of managers convey their support – or lack of support – for these arrangements. McGowan (2009) documented how managers language and actions expressed the preferred ways of handling family commitments, which entailed remaining silent about personal commitments and preserving a separation between the public and private domains of life. Employees were dissuaded from seeking support and utilising work-family policies.

The importance of managers is confirmed by the research that demonstrates employees are more likely to utilise work-life benefits when the supervisor is perceived as supportive (T. D. Allen, 2001; Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Breaugh & Frye, 2007, 2008; de Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999). Furthermore, when the supervisor assumes a powerful position within an organisation, work-life benefits are more likely to be utilised (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002). C. A. Thompson et al. (1999) concluded that managerial support is a fundamental cultural influence on employees' decisions whether to utilise work-life benefits.

The manager is the focus of the following chapter, especially the factors that may influence the decisions reached about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Fostering a better understanding of these decisions presents the opportunity to influence and improve these decisions, and therefore facilitate a smoother transition from policy provision to policy use for employees.

Chapter 4: Managers as gatekeepers to work-life benefits

The organisational provision and employee utilisation of work-life benefits were examined in the previous chapter. The attention turns to the manager in this chapter. In the words of Poelmans (2005), managers provide a "pivotal function in the company as both victims of work-family conflict, judges in the allowance of work-family policies to specific employees, and change agents in the attempt to make companies more family-supportive" (p. 440). This chapter considers what constitutes a supportive supervisor, in particular focusing on the decision-making role managers assume in evaluating requests for work-life benefits. The proposed motivational and interpersonal orientations that may influence managers' decisions about subordinates' requests are summarised. Thus, this chapter examines the step in the process linking policy and practice that relates to the manager, as emphasised in Figure 6.
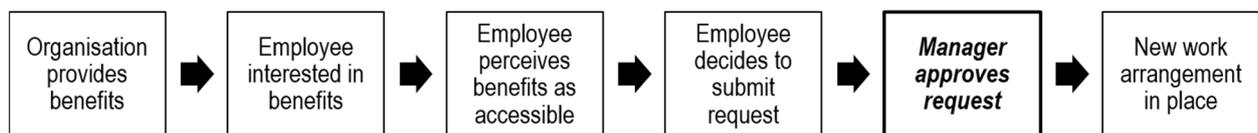
Figure 6. The role of managers in the provision-utilisation pathway

Supportive supervisors

Managers and supervisors play a pivotal role in assisting employees with balancing work and family (T. D. Allen, 2012). Some managers are deemed supportive and accommodating, whereas other managers are regarded as adversarial and obstructive. This section details the conceptual and empirical work on supervisor support, including the conditions that encourage managers to demonstrate support and the outcomes that eventuate when managers are perceived as supportive.

Conceptualising a family-supportive supervisor

Work-family scholars have investigated what constitutes a supervisor that supports employees with managing work and personal commitments. The definitions and conceptualisations that feature in the literature are summarised in this subsection.

Early definitions of a supportive supervisor are provided by several researchers. For instance, Goff, Mount, and Jamison (1990) defined a supportive supervisor as someone who was understanding and accommodating when family-related issues needed to be resolved whilst at work. Thomas and Ganster (1995) defined a supportive supervisor as someone who is empathetic towards an employee's pursuit for balance between work and family responsibilities. Examples of supportive behaviours included facilitating an employee's flexible schedule, allowing brief personal calls whilst at work

and expressing concern when a childminder resigns. In their paper on work-family culture, C. A. Thompson et al. (1999) defined managerial support as the extent to which managers are supportive and sensitive to employees' family responsibilities.

More recent work by Hammer and her colleagues has sought to clarify the concept of a family-supportive supervisor (Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, & Zimmerman, 2011; Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, & Crain, 2013; Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009; Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007). As illustrated in Figure 7, Hammer et al. (2007) articulated a multilevel conceptual model that considers the policies, practices and culture of the organisation and the behaviours of supervisors, along with employees' perceptions of support and experiences of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment.
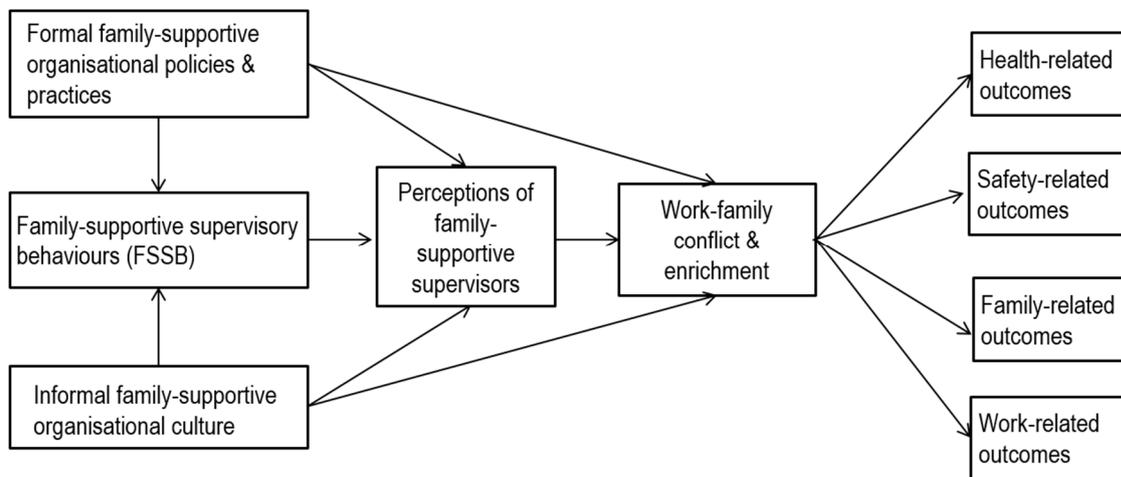
Figure 7. Multilevel conceptual model of pathways between family-supportive supervisory behaviours, perceptions of supervisory support, and health, safety, family and work (Hammer et al., 2007)

Hammer et al. (2007) positioned managers as the linking pin between the availability of formal family-supportive policies and the informal family-supportive organisational culture. These two forms of organisational support affect the interpretation and enactment of policies and practices by managers, leading to what they label family-supportive supervisor behaviours (FSSB). Defined as enacted behaviours demonstrated by supervisors that are supportive of employees' family roles, the authors sought to articulate with FSSB the specific day-to-day actions managers need to exhibit for employees to feel emotionally supported (Hammer et al., 2007). Four dimensions of FSSB were demarcated: emotional support, role modelling, instrumental support and creative work-family management.

Emotional support entails "perceptions that an individual is being cared for, that their feelings are being considered, and that they feel comfortable communicating with

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the source of support when needed" (Hammer et al., 2007, p. 188). Examples of emotionally supportive behaviours include listening when workers are struggling to balance work and non-work responsibilities, devoting time to understanding workers' family and personal life commitments and helping workers resolve conflicts between work and non-work (Hammer et al., 2009).

Role modelling involves supervisors demonstrating strategies and behaviours that employees consider will result in advantageous work-life outcomes (Hammer et al., 2009). Examples of role model behaviours include not responding to emails on weekends, leaving work for family reasons and attending to health needs by exercising regularly (Hammer et al., 2007).

Instrumental support entails the day-to-day resources or services supplied by supervisors to employees that assist with managing the dual responsibilities of work and family roles (Hammer et al., 2009). Examples of instrumental support include resolving scheduling conflicts, ensuring work is completed when an employee is absent and implementing solutions to conflicts between work and non-work (Hammer et al., 2009).

Finally, creative work-family management involves actions initiated by the supervisor to restructure work so that employee effectiveness at both work and home are facilitated (Hammer et al., 2009). Whereas instrumental support is reactive and focused on the individual, typically instigated by an employee's request, creative work-family management is proactive, strategic and innovative and focused on the organisation (Hammer et al., 2009). Supervisors assume a dual-agenda perspective whereby consideration is given to how work can be redesigned to both minimise work-family conflict and maximise productivity (Hammer et al., 2007). Examples of creative work-family management include examining how work is organised and job duties allocated to achieve mutually beneficial outcomes, seeking suggestions from workers to improve the balance between work and non-work demands and managing the team in a way that ensures all worker's needs are met (Hammer et al., 2009).

Case studies abound that illustrate Hammer et al.'s (2011; 2013; 2009; 2007) articulation of a supportive supervisor and the opposite scenario – an unsupportive supervisor. Two cases in point are presented. In a qualitative study of a software development team, Perlow (1998) demonstrated how the actions of supervisors impeded the ability of employees to balance their work and non-work responsibilities. Managers were found to control the temporal boundary between employees' work and life outside of work through three techniques: imposing demands on employees to secure their attendance at work during certain times, monitoring employees by

incessantly checking their status and plans, as well as observing the hours worked, and modelling the behaviour managers wanted employees to display. Perlow concluded that the control exerted by managers limited their subordinates' ability to divide time between work and life outside of work.

In a comparative study of employees in low-skilled, hourly jobs, S. J. Lambert (2008) documented how the scheduling practices used by front-line managers created instability in working hours and income for workers. For instance, managers posted work schedules with limited advance notice, thus restricting employees' ability to plan for family commitments. Managers prescribed the number of hours worked by employees, the distribution of those hours over the week and the number of employees scheduled for any hours. Consistent with Perlow's (1998) case study, the most basic conditions of work for employees – the number and timing of work hours – were controlled through the actions of managers.

Managers can apply a multitude of practices to help or hinder employees fulfil work and personal responsibilities. Hammer et al.'s (2011; 2013; 2009; 2007) conceptual and empirical work effectively delineates the emotional and behavioural support that supervisors can provide employees. In the following subsection, the factors that influence whether managers engage in these supportive behaviours are reviewed.

Antecedents of a family-supportive supervisor

With the increased conceptual and empirical work on the behaviours demonstrated by family-supportive supervisors, researchers have also considered what conditions, circumstances or characteristics encourage a manager to demonstrate these behaviours. In the following paragraphs, insights on the antecedents of a family-supportive supervisor are detailed.

Straub (2012) presented a multilevel conceptual framework that demarcates individual and contextual factors that may influence a manager to engage in FSSB. As depicted in Figure 8, more responsibility for engaging in FSSB is assumed by managers when awareness and attachment to work-life issues is heightened. This awareness and attachment emanate from experiencing conflict and enrichment in the work-family interface, being in work-family intense life course and family life stages, socially identifying with employees facing work-family issues and adopting female gender roles.

Furthermore, Straub (2012) argued managers feel empowered to demonstrate FSSB when operating in workplaces with the following characteristics: a family-supportive organisational culture, senior management that are open to work-family issues, a reward system that compensates managers for family-supportive supervision

and access to work-family resources. In addition, managers exhibit FSSB when a high-quality leader-member exchange relationship is experienced.
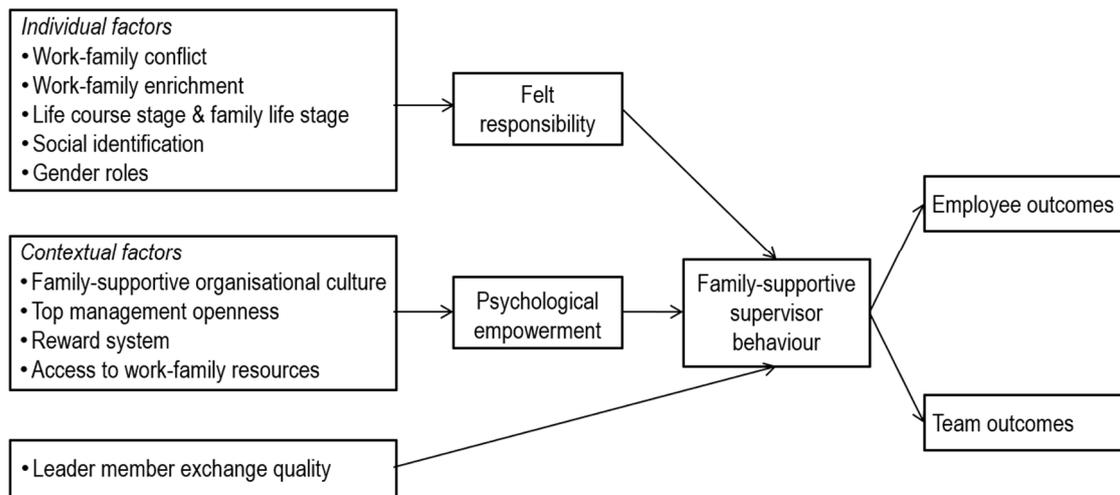
Figure 8. Antecedents and consequences of family-supportive supervisor behaviour (Straub, 2012)

Researchers have empirically tested some of the propositions in Straub's (2012) conceptual model, along with other potential antecedents. For instance, Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, and Weer (2006) found that managers exhibited more family support to subordinates when the organisational culture was characterised as supportive of families. Furthermore, family-supportive supervision was more likely to be experienced when the manager and employee were the same gender.

Epstein, Marler, and Taber (2015) found family-supportive behaviours were more likely to be displayed when subordinates rated the manager as empathetic. Gender and the workgroup's level of work-to-family conflict moderated this relationship. In particular, when the manager was a women and the workgroup's level of work-to-family conflict was higher, the relationship between a managers' empathy and family-supportive behaviours was stronger. Finally, when a manager rated a subordinate as competent, trustworthy and capable of assuming responsibility, that employee was more likely to experience family-supportive behaviours. Epstein et al. concluded that managers' family-supportive behaviours emerge in response to individual managerial traits, particularly gender and empathy, along with workgroup situational characteristics.

In a related study, Pitt-Catsouphes, James, McNamara, and Cahill (2015) examined the antecedents of managerial support for flexible work options. By drawing on the diffusion of innovation theory, these authors argued managers who support employee use of flexible work options can be classified as innovators and early adopters. Managers were categorised as innovators and early adopters when the managers were optimistic about the consequences of workplace flexibility, expressed

less difficulties with implementing schedule adjustments and increased frequency of granting requests for schedule flexibility, coupled with greater actual use of flexible work options within their work units. Amongst a sample of 332 managers in a healthcare organisation, managers were found to be more likely to be innovators when fewer barriers to the implementation of flexible work options were reported.

The conceptual work and empirical research on the antecedents of family-supportive supervision indicate characteristics of the manager, along with the context within which the manager works, are relevant. In the following subsection, the impact of managers engaging in these behaviours is documented.

Outcomes of a family-supportive supervisor

Hammer et al. (2011; 2013; 2009; 2007) argued that employees' perceptions of supervisor support affects their experience of the work-family interface. In particular, employees who perceive their supervisors as supportive experience lower work-family conflict and greater work-family enrichment. In turn, employees' experience of the work-family interface shapes a range of individual, family and organisational level outcomes. This subsection examines the consequences of supervisors' supportive behaviours.

Researchers have demonstrated that supportive supervisors reduce both conflict between the domains of work and family for employees and the concomitant effects of this conflict. For instance, Goff et al. (1990) found that employees experienced less work-family conflict when supervisors were supportive, which in turn was associated with reduced absenteeism. Similarly, in a sample of 398 health care professionals who were parents, Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that supervisor support decreased work-family conflict, both directly and indirectly through employees' perceptions of control over work and family matters. In turn, lower work-family conflict was associated with higher job satisfaction and lower levels of depression, somatic complaints and blood cholesterol. In addition, Kossek and Nichol (1992) found that employees reported more positive attitudes about their ability to manage work and childcare responsibilities when their supervisors were perceived as supportive.

Amongst a sample of 355 managers, O'Driscoll et al. (2003) found supervisor support moderated the relationship between work-family conflict and psychological strain. In particular, when levels of work-to-family interference were high, employees who experienced greater supervisor support reported less psychological strain than employees who experienced lower supervisory support. Thus, managers protect employees from the psychological strain connected with work interfering with family.

Meta-analyses verify the influence of supervisor support. When supervisors are perceived as supportive, employees report lower work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict (Ford et al., 2007; Kossek, Pichler, et al., 2011; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006; Michel et al., 2011). Furthermore, in their meta-analysis, Kossek, Pichler, et al. demonstrated that support focused specifically on work-family, as compared with general forms of social support, is more important in reducing work-family conflict.

Kossek, Pichler, et al. (2011) compared four types of workplace social support: perceived organisational support, supervisor support, perceived organisational work-family support and supervisor work-family support. Thus, the form of support – either general or work-family-specific – and the source of support – either the organisation or supervisor – were differentiated. Kossek, Pichler, et al. explained that the form of support relates to the intended outcomes. That is, general work support optimises personal effectiveness at work, whereas work-family support improves an employee's capacity to reconcile demands from the work and family domains.

Kossek, Pichler, et al. (2011) found that work-family-specific support from the supervisor and organisation were negatively related, whereas general support from the supervisor and organisation were unrelated, to work-to-family conflict. Thus, employees experiencing strong work-family-specific social support were less likely to experience the work role interfering with the family role. In addition, when supervisors were perceived as more supportive, the organisation was similarly perceived as more supportive. Kossek, Pichler, et al. concluded that supervisors are critical influences on employees' perceptions of support at work.

Researchers have also demonstrated that supervisor support relates directly to employee attitudes, behaviours and well-being. When supervisor support is experienced, employees report stronger job satisfaction (T. D. Allen, 2001; Bagger & Li, 2014; Breaugh & Frye, 2007; Thomas & Ganster, 1995), enhanced affective commitment (T. D. Allen, 2001; C. A. Thompson et al., 2004), lower turnover intentions (T. D. Allen, 2001; Bagger & Li, 2014; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999), reduced job search behaviours (C. A. Thompson et al., 2004) and decreased psychological strain (O'Driscoll et al., 2003). Furthermore, greater supervisor support has been related to supervisor reports of higher subordinate task performance and more citizenship behaviours directed at the supervisor (Bagger & Li, 2014).

The studies and meta-analyses reviewed focused on the outcomes of the emotional support provided by supervisors. Research has also focused on the

outcomes of the broader FSSB concept. Hammer and her colleagues demonstrated that FSSB was related to work-family and job outcomes (Hammer et al., 2013; Hammer et al., 2009). In particular, FSSB was negatively related to work-to-family conflict, turnover intentions, obligation to work when sick and perceived stress. FSSB was positively related to job satisfaction, control over work hours and reports of family time adequacy.

Relatedly, Odle-Dusseau, Britt, and Greene-Shortridge (2012) found significant relationships across time between employee perceptions of FSSB and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to leave, along with supervisor ratings of job performance. Work-to-family enrichment partially mediated the effects of FSSB on outcomes over time, whereas work-family conflict did not mediate any relationships.

Thus, when managers are supportive of employees balancing their work and personal commitments, both the organisation and the individuals experience a range of benefits. Employees experience less conflict and greater enrichment between the domains of work and family, and these experiences of the work-family interface shape employees' attitudes, behaviours and well-being. Support and understanding, therefore, translates into benefits. The following section examines specifically the role managers play in facilitating the uptake of work-life policies and programs.

Instrumental support for work-life benefits

Managers exhibit a range of behaviours that influence employees' ability to balance their work and personal commitments. Granting employees access to work-life policies and programs represents a significant form of instrumental support that managers can supply (Hammer et al., 2007). This section considers the decision-making role that managers assume for work-life benefits.

Gatekeepers to work-life benefits

Managers have been described as the gatekeepers to work-life policies and programs (e.g., Barham et al., 1998; Beauregard, 2011; Bond & Wise, 2003; den Dulk et al., 2011; Dex & Scheibl, 2001; Reeve, Broom, Strazdins, & Shipley, 2012; Ryan & Kossek, 2008; Straub, 2012; Sweet et al., 2015). This reference relates to the power typically granted to managers to approve or deny a subordinate's request to utilise a work-life benefit. In the following paragraphs, this gatekeeper role is examined.

With the trend towards devolving people management responsibilities to line managers, the implementation of work-life policies and programs tends to reside with managers (Bond & Wise, 2003). The extent of discretion afforded to managers depends partly on the degree to which programs are formalised within an organisation. The decision may range from the simple administration of an employee right as documented

in a formal policy to the more complex scenario of approving an employee request when no formal policy exists (Poelmans, 2005). For some policies, such as unpaid maternity leave following the birth of a child, managers are granted limited autonomy. In contrast, other policies, such as telecommuting or flextime, afford managers greater scope to negotiate the arrangement (Ryan & Kossek, 2008).

Regardless of the formalisation, managers still, to a large extent, influence the outcome, as evidenced by Wise's (2005) research on the implementation of a centrally developed, statutory-based policy on leave for dependent care emergencies. The managers studied by Wise worked in two financial services organisations within the same corporate group. Through interviews with line and human resource managers, Wise found that the decision making displayed by managers differed between the organisations, with one group emphasising consistency of implementation and the other group emphasising responsiveness to individual circumstances.

Wise (2005) concluded that disparities between the formal policy and informal practice were evident because managers were granted discretion over implementation and their personal attitudes influenced the outcome. This research highlights the complexity inherent in managerial decision making on work-life benefits, especially given the employment policy examined was relatively straightforward.

Managers assume a powerful position within organisations as gatekeepers to work-life policies and programs. As articulated by Poelmans and Beham (2008), "organizational efforts of adopting, designing, and implementing work-family policies converge into single, discretionary decisions of supervisors whether or not to 'allow' these policies to specific employees under their supervision" (p. 393). Furthermore, managers are variable in the decision making displayed when faced with requests for work-life benefits. The following subsections review the qualitative, quantitative and theoretical papers on the factors that shape these decisions.

Managerial decisions on work-life benefits: Qualitative insights

Work-family scholars have demarcated factors that influence managers' decisions when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. In particular, qualitative research has been undertaken to provide insights about managerial decision making by identifying factors that managers profess to consider when evaluating subordinates' requests. These qualitative studies are detailed in this subsection.

In a case study of ten small and medium-sized enterprises and four larger organisations, Dex and Scheibl (2001) documented models of decision making adopted by managers. The models focused on cost implications, potential benefits, business

performance and the contribution of individuals to the organisation. These constructs were found to be applied by managers individually or in combination. Managers often exploited their positional power to act as gatekeepers, offering flexible work arrangements (FWAs) to some employees whilst rejecting or discouraging other employees. Dex and Scheibl concluded that the foremost impediment for employees in accessing flexibility was garnering managerial support, with support being heavily dependent on relationships, internal communication and expectations.

Bond et al. (2002) also found that managers considered the contribution of employees when evaluating requests. These authors examined the decision-making criteria applied by managers in four financial services organisations. Through interviews with line and human resource managers, managerial decision making was found to be influenced by three criteria. As indicated, managers appraised the skills, output and hours worked by an employee, with these factors acting as proxies for commitment. The managers' attitudes to flexible working also influenced their decision making, such as the opinion that these arrangements were only appropriate for non-supervisory roles. Finally, the nature of the employee's job acted as a constraint through the ease of substitutability and time criticality of the tasks.

Managers basing their decisions upon an analysis of the costs and benefits of employees' accessing work-life policies and programs has also been observed by Reeve et al. (2012). These researchers interviewed 36 managers working in the Australian retail and public service sectors. Reeve et al. found that managers balanced the costs of implementing a family-friendly arrangement against the benefit of retaining an employee. When employees were deemed valuable to the organisation because of their skills, knowledge or productivity, managers were more likely to support requests to utilise family-friendly provisions. Reeve et al. also noted the influence of legal provisions, economic conditions, senior management and cultural expectations around working hours on managers' decision-making processes.

The managers in den Dulk et al.'s (2011) study similarly evaluated the costs and benefits associated with the utilisation of work-life policies. These scholars analysed managers' discourse in three finance organisations from the Netherlands, United Kingdom and Slovenia. Managers focused on the potential for work-life policies to impede the achievement of operational requirements, especially because of constraints in replacing employees and the intensification of work. Managers were also cognisant that allowing valuable employees to utilise work-life policies would foster a committed and productive workforce. Finally, a moral discourse was expressed by managers in the

Netherlands and Slovenia. That is, valuing an employee's personal commitments was deemed a moral act and thus access to work-life policies should be facilitated.

Thus, the qualitative research on managerial decision making on work-life benefits indicates managers profess to consider the cost implications of employees accessing these provisions, which include the potential for disruption in achieving operational and performance objectives. The potential benefits are also acknowledged by managers, especially in relation to retaining valuable employees. Access to work-life policies and programs for employees appears to be conditional on their contribution to the organisation, with goodwill, skills, knowledge, productivity and commitment being considered by managers. In the following subsection, quantitative research on managerial decision making on work-life benefits is reviewed.

Managerial decisions on work-life benefits: Quantitative insights

Although qualitative studies provide insights into factors managers purport to consider when evaluating requests from subordinates for work-life benefits, quantitative studies have been undertaken to determine the considerations and circumstances that affect decisions in practice. These quantitative papers are detailed in this subsection.

Researchers have examined the decisions managers reach when evaluating subordinates' requests: namely, Barham et al. (1998), Powell and Mainiero (1999) and Beham et al. (2015). Other studies have adopted slightly different approaches, including Casper, Fox, Sitzmann, and Landy (2004) who measured managers' decisions to refer employees to work-life programs and K. J. Klein et al. (2000) who measured managers and employees' perceptions of their employers' likely response to requests. Managerial attitudes toward employee requests have also been explored by den Dulk and de Ruijter (2008) and Peters et al. (2010). As attitudes influence behaviour, the findings from these papers are pertinent. Table 1 summarises the studies reviewed.

Table 1
Quantitative Studies on Managerial Decision Making

Study focus	Papers
Managers' decisions about employee requests	Barham et al. (1998) Powell and Mainiero (1999) Beham et al. (2015)
Managers' decisions to refer employees	Casper et al. (2004)
Perceived employer responses to employee requests	K. J. Klein et al. (2000)
Managerial attitudes toward employee requests	den Dulk and de Ruijter (2008) Peters et al. (2010)

Barham et al. (1998) examined the influence of employee characteristics on managers' willingness to grant alternate work arrangements (AWAs). Data were collected from 184 managers who worked for a financial services organisation. The AWAs were full-time arrangements – flextime and working at home – and reduced-hours arrangements – part-time, job sharing and an unpaid leave of absence. Several factors influenced responses to requests for reduced-hours arrangements, but not for full-time arrangements. In particular, managers were more willing to grant reduced-hours AWAs for subordinates than managers and for childcare, rather than eldercare, responsibilities. Barham et al. argued managers would be more likely to approve requests from subordinates because the absence of a subordinate would produce a less detrimental impact on organisational performance than a manager. Furthermore, managers would approve requests for childcare because caring for a child is more acceptable and legitimate than caring for an older person.

Barham et al. (1998) also found that reduced-hours AWAs were more likely to be approved for female compared to male managers, but were equally likely to be approved for female and male subordinates. Gender roles assume responsibility for the family rests with women, so there is greater tolerance for women to reduce work hours to meet family obligations. Barham et al. concluded that managers were more selective in their approval of reduced-hours arrangements because these AWAs are more likely to affect the individual and workplace through reductions in contribution, income and workplace visibility and an increase in the need for work redistribution. In these situations, managers rely on the employees' characteristics to decide whether to approve or deny the request, favouring female managers, subordinates and employees with childcare responsibilities.

In a similar study, Powell and Mainiero (1999) examined managers' decisions about requests for working from home, part-time work and unpaid leave. Data were collected from 53 MBA students who were full-time employees with managerial experience. Powell and Mainiero articulated work disruption theory, claiming managers' decisions are influenced by the potential for a requested arrangement to disrupt the conduct of work. In line with this argument, requests that were perceived to be more disruptive received less favourable decisions. That is, managers were found to be less likely to grant requests for unpaid leave rather than working from home, requests from subordinates who were working on critical tasks and had acquired special skills, and requests from employees who had assumed supervisory responsibilities.

Powell and Mainiero (1999) also explored consistency across managers in decision making by subjecting the results to cluster analysis. Four distinct clusters of managers with shared decision policies were found. Managers in three of the clusters were influenced primarily, but not solely, by one factor – Cluster 1 was the type of arrangement requested, Cluster 2 was the reason for the request and Cluster 3 was the criticality of the tasks undertaken by the subordinate. Managers in Cluster 4 were moderately influenced by all variables, suggesting their decision policies were the most complex. Thus, in line with Wise (2005), Powell and Mainiero concluded that managers exhibit considerable diversity in their decision making.

Whereas Barham et al. (1998) and Powell and Mainiero (1999) considered characteristics of the employee, manager and request being submitted, Beham et al. (2015) examined a broader range of antecedents of managers' responses to employees' requests for teleworking. Amongst a sample of 208 German managers, Beham et al. found that requests from women were more likely to be approved by managers, along with requests from employees who were critical to the department's performance and demonstrated self-management skills. Requests were also more likely to be approved when task interdependence amongst team members was low, the supervisors had experience with teleworking, the relationship between supervisors and subordinates was strong and the organisational culture was supportive of families.

Furthermore, Beham et al. (2015) found that formal telework policies moderated the relationship between a family-supportive organisational culture and managers' decisions. That is, when the culture was unsupportive of families, managers were more favourable in their decisions if formal policies were in place. The policies, therefore, guided managers' behaviours when the work-family culture was weak. Beham et al. concluded that, when reaching decisions about requests for telework, managers consider the costs and consequences of employees utilising teleworking, such as increased disruptions and a greater need for coordination and communication, along with the organisational norms and rules as embodied in formal policies and the culture.

In contrast to the decision to approve a request for a work-life benefit, Casper et al. (2004) explored the decision to refer an employee to a work-family program. Their sample comprised 1,972 managers from a large government agency, who were asked to indicate how often in the past year a referral had been made for one of their employees to five dependent care and information services: childcare assistance, eldercare assistance, relocation assistance, family advocacy program and family member employment assistance. Casper et al. found that referrals by managers were

infrequent. However, referrals were more likely to be submitted when managers were aware of the work-family programs and believed the programs benefited the organisation.

In K. J. Klein et al.'s (2000) study, 200 lawyers were asked to indicate the likelihood that their firm would approve hypothetical lawyers' requests for part-time work. Based on dependency theory, K. J. Klein et al. hypothesised that employers would be perceived as more likely to approve requests from employees upon whom the firm was dependent. Consistent with this premise, lawyers reported that their firms would be more likely to approve requests to work part-time from employees who were high-performing, indispensable or well-connected. Threatening to quit if the request was declined moderated the relationship between these employee characteristics and the approval rating. Specifically, threatening to quit significantly increased the likelihood that requests would be approved from employees who the firm was dependent upon.

Drawing on institutional theory, K. J. Klein et al. (2000) also hypothesised that employers would be perceived as more likely to approve requests that align to institutional norms. Consistent with this premise, lawyers reported that their firms would be more inclined to approve requests from women and for reasons of childcare rather than personal reasons. K. J. Klein et al. concluded that the perceptions of partners and associates about their employers' responsiveness to requests for part-time work were influenced by internal organisational needs and institutional pressures.

Finally, the studies by den Dulk and de Ruijter (2008) and Peters et al. (2010). den Dulk and de Ruijter investigated managerial attitudes toward employee requests to utilise a short-term leave the next day to care for a sick child, parental leave, part-time work and working at home occasionally. The sample comprised 46 managers who worked in four financial sector organisations in the Netherlands and United Kingdom. Peters et al. focused exclusively on managerial attitudes toward employee requests to telework. Data were collected from 65 managers in six financial sector organisations in the Netherlands, United Kingdom and Sweden. Peters et al. also conducted interviews with managers about their telework experiences, attitudes and practices.

den Dulk and de Ruijter (2008) found that the type of work-life policy requested influenced attitudes, with less disruptive requests generating more positive attitudes. Managers were more positive about short-term care leave, followed in order by working from home, part-time work and parental leave. Requests for short-term care leave and parental leave were more positively evaluated when submitted by women. Thus, managers appeared to deem childcare a women's responsibility.

den Dulk and de Ruijter (2008) also found that managers expressed more positive attitudes toward requests from employees who had not assumed supervisory positions. Finally, requests for working from home and parental leave were more positively evaluated when submitted by employees who worked in highly educated departments. Peters et al. (2010) similarly demonstrated the influence of education. The nature of the work completed by employees, therefore, affects managers' attitudes. As one manager stated: "It is a task driven thing. It is what people are working on" (Peters et al., 2010, p. 523).

Thus, the quantitative studies on managers' decisions on work-life benefits indicate that the type of arrangement requested by the employee affects the decision, along with the reason for submitting the request. Characteristics of the employee are also influential, including gender, the criticality and interdependence of the work undertaken by the subordinate and whether supervisory responsibilities are assumed.

Characteristics of the decision maker have been investigated, including gender, age, marital status, caregiving responsibilities, seniority, number of direct reports, work and managerial experience, program awareness and personal experience managing and utilising work-life benefits, along with personal attitudes towards and perceptions about the instrumentality of work-life programs. Limited significant findings have been reported, with a few exceptions. For instance, K. J. Klein et al. (2000) and Beham et al. (2015) found that respondents who had personally utilised work-life benefits, or managed subordinates on flexible arrangements, were more positive about requests. Furthermore, Casper et al. (2004) found that referrals were more frequently made for employees when managers were well informed about the work-family programs and perceived the programs as beneficial to the organisation. In the following subsection, theoretical papers are reviewed.

Managerial decisions on work-life benefits: Theoretical insights

Three theoretical papers are examined in this subsection that elaborate on a multitude of factors that may influence the decisions reached by managers when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

Peters and den Dulk (2003) presented a conceptual model on managerial decision making in response to employee requests for home-based telework within different national cultural settings. As depicted in Figure 9, managers' willingness to deal with uncertainty and delegate power to subordinates, which national culture influences, determines their support for teleworking. The organisational context, characteristics of the employee and features of the request directly affect managers'

decisions, but also interact with the national culture. This model highlights the importance of considering the cultural climate in a country when investigating managerial decision making.
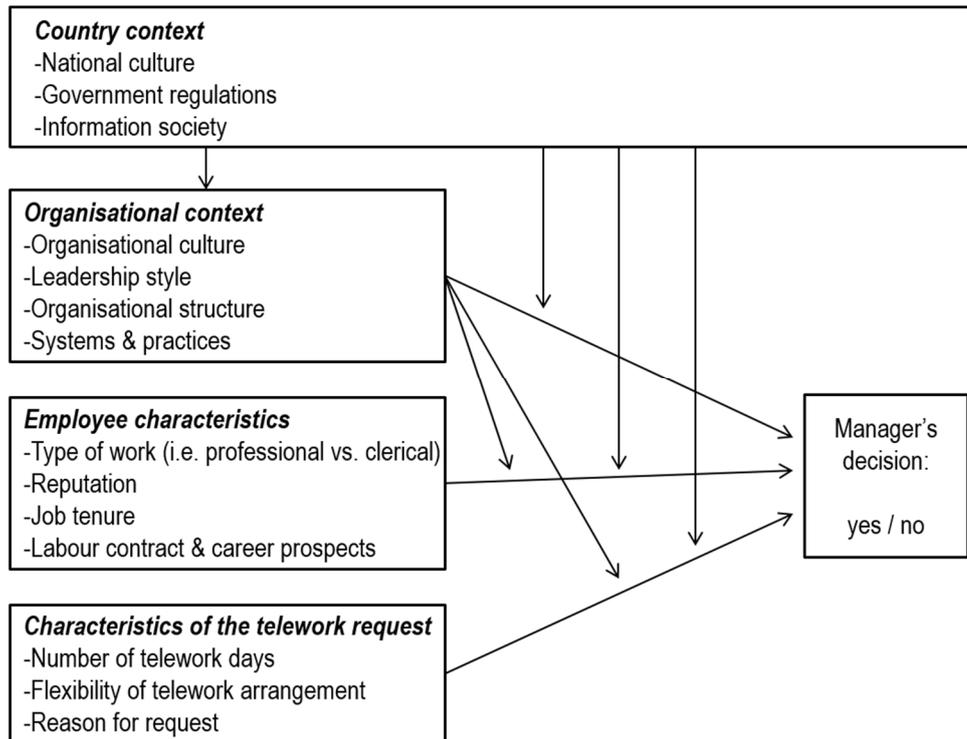
Figure 9. Conceptual model of management decision making on employees' requests for home-based telework (Peters & den Dulk, 2003)

As illustrated in Figure 10, Poelmans and Beham (2008) offered a more comprehensive framework that covers antecedents, consequences and intervening factors to explain managerial decisions about requests for work-life policies. Referred to as allowance decisions, individual, group and organisational factors are proposed that may influence the favourability of these work-family allowance decisions. Poelmans and Beham presented several predictions in relation to managers. For example, requests are more likely to be approved when managers assume caregiving responsibilities, possess work-family values that advocate egalitarian role distribution, adopt a management style that focuses on outputs rather than presence in the office and have participated in work-life policy training.
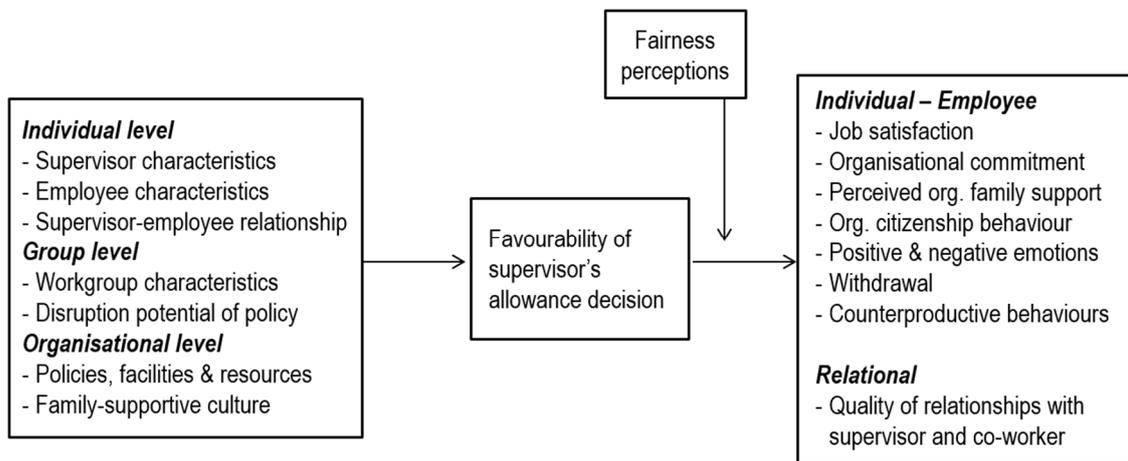
Figure 10. Conceptual framework of the individual allowance decision (Poelmans & Beham, 2008)

Finally, McCarthy, Darcy, and Grady (2010) presented a conceptual model, as shown in Figure 11, documenting factors that may influence managers' attitudes and behaviours toward work-life balance policies, along with the resulting effect on employees' work-life balance experience. Based on the theory of planned behaviour, stronger intentions to enact work-life balance policies will be experienced when managers predict a positive impact of these practices on organisational performance, are subject to social pressure to implement the policies and were involved in the formation and design of these programs. In addition, managers' attitudes are influenced by their awareness and knowledge about, along with their own personal experience with, work-life balance programs. Managers' intentions and behaviours, in turn, influence employees' perceptions of managerial support and awareness of, satisfaction with, and utilisation of work-life balance policies.
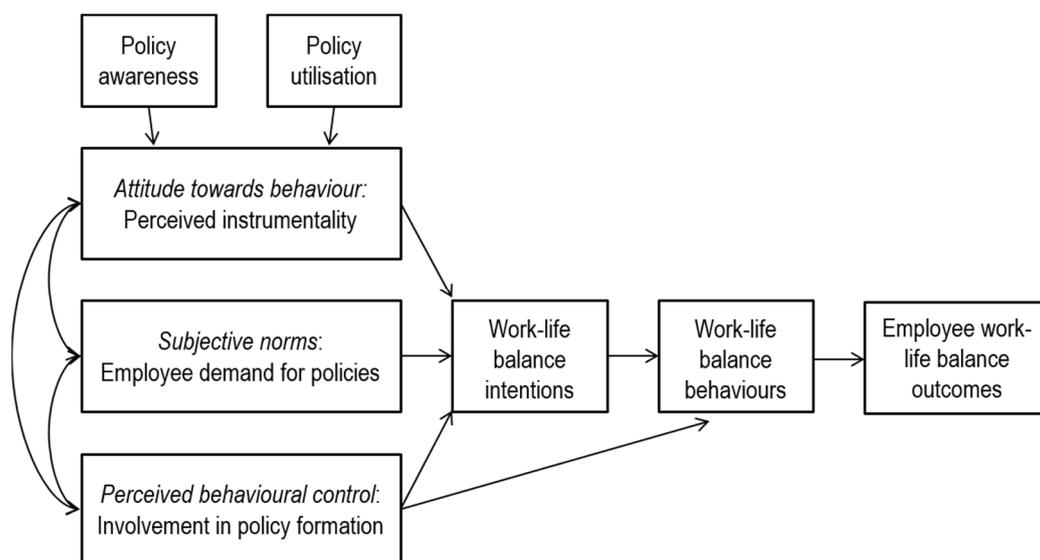
Figure 11. Conceptual model of line manager work-life balance attitudes and behaviours (McCarthy et al., 2010)

According to this framework, work-life balance policies are more likely to be enacted when managers are aware of the relevant policy and knowledgeable about how it operates, possess personal experience utilising work-life benefits or managing subordinates who use these arrangements, receive more work-life benefit requests and were actively involved in formulating the work-life balance policy. McCarthy et al.'s (2010) model endeavours to explain the role of managers in the nexus between policy and practice by examining their attitudes and behaviours.

Thus, the theoretical papers on managerial decision making on work-life benefits propose conditions and characteristics that may influence these decisions. Some of the characteristics of the decision maker detailed have been studied in the research reviewed, such as gender and caring responsibilities. However, other characteristics of the decision maker proposed remain to be tested, including educational level, work-family values, leadership style, criteria for career success, participation in work-life policy training, demand from employees for work-life benefits and involvement in the formation of the organisation's work-life program. In the following subsection, the consequences that may arise from managers' decisions are examined.

Outcomes of managerial decisions on work-life benefits

Limited research attention has been devoted to understanding the outcomes that may eventuate from manager's decisions about subordinates' requests to utilise work-life benefits. Given the significance of this decision to employees' ability to reconcile work and personal commitments, several consequences may be worthy of consideration. This topic is explored in the following paragraphs.

In their conceptual framework, Poelmans and Beham (2008) incorporated the outcomes of allowance decisions. As depicted in Figure 10, these authors predicted that employees respond either positively or negatively through altering their perceptions of, emotions about, and input at work. Relationships with supervisors and co-workers are also predicted to change. As Poelmans and Beham explained, "a manager's approval of a request may signal trust and respect towards the employee, and may thus increase the quality of their relationship, whereas a rejection may signal disrespect or a lack of interest and deteriorate the quality of their relationship" (p. 403).

Perceptions of fairness are proposed to moderate the relationship between the decision and outcomes. In particular, Poelmans and Beham (2008) argued that negative consequences may be avoided if the decision process is perceived as fair, the supervisor demonstrates genuine concern for the employee and information about the decision criteria and process is provided.

Research by Pitt-Catsouphes et al. (2015) does suggest that managers benefit from being more supportive by approving requests from employees to utilise work-life policies and programs. In their study of innovators and early adopters, managers who supported employee use of flexible work options reported stronger team performance and more positive attitudes and interpersonal behaviours of team members.

Thus, the conceptual and empirical work on the outcomes of managers' decisions about employee requests for work-life benefits indicates that employee attitudes and behaviours may be affected, which influences the team and organisation. Further research on this topic is required. In the following section, the proposed variables that may affect managers' decisions on work-life benefits are documented.

Motivational and interpersonal orientations

Poelmans (2005) explained that managers and supervisors "range from knowledgeable… with a fundamentally favorable attitude to managers and supervisors who only vaguely recall the company policy and who are fundamentally against anything that may disrupt their goals, work processes, and workforce needs" (p. 449). So, what determines whether a manager will be on the positive end of this spectrum – knowledgeable and supportive of employees using work-life benefits? This thesis sought to answer that question by examining characteristics of managers that may affect their decisions when evaluating employee requests for work-life benefits.

The research reviewed on managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits demonstrates managers are variable in their decision making. Managers vary in the information considered when reaching decisions and the overall support demonstrated for requests. Work-family scholars have attempted to explain this variability by investigating the demographics, attitudes and experiences of the decision maker. These variables, however, have provided limited insights into the decision-making process.

To further elucidate the influence of the decision maker on the decisions reached when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits, this research investigated individual differences. Based on the theoretical frameworks of work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour, motivational and interpersonal orientations were selected that were predicted to influence managerial decision making about requests for work-life benefits.

Several traits and states might shape the decisions of managers towards requests to utilise work-life benefits. First, whether managers prioritise their immediate needs or future goals could shape these decisions. For example, if managers prioritise

their immediate needs, they may be more sensitive to disruptions. Consequently, an orientation that affects whether people prioritise their immediate needs or future goals was explored: regulatory focus. Second, whether managers prioritise their own needs or the needs of their organisation could also shape these decisions. To illustrate, managers who are sensitive to their own needs might prioritise disruptions over whether or not the decision affects the retention of employees. Therefore, two factors that could influence the degree to which individuals prioritise their own needs or the needs of their organisation were included: affective commitment and self-construal.

Third, whether managers believe that people can change fundamentally could also shape these decisions. Managers who do not believe people can change might not be as concerned about the impact of their decision on the qualities of employees. Thus, assumptions about whether people can change fundamentally were included: implicit theories. Fourth, whether managers believe that employees could exploit work-life policies and programs, such as working from home, could also influence decisions. Therefore, a measure of trust was included in this study.

By providing a better understanding of what encourages managers to support work-life policies and programs, organisations will be able to implement measures to optimise the decisions of managers (Poelmans & Beham, 2008). For instance, orientations that are found to inhibit the approval of requests may need to be redressed through recruitment or training. The selection of the motivational and interpersonal variables was, therefore, guided by the criteria that the orientations needed to be stable over time but also modifiable by the organisation.

In the subsections that follow, the motivational and interpersonal orientations are explained from a theoretical perspective. In Chapter 6, the hypotheses are detailed, which draw together the frameworks of work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour and the motivational and interpersonal orientations of regulatory focus, affective commitment, self-construals, implicit theories and interpersonal trust.

Regulatory focus

In the theory of regulatory focus, Higgins (1997, 1998) differentiated between self-regulation with a promotion focus and self-regulation with a prevention focus. With a promotion focus, self-regulation is concerned with advancement, growth and accomplishment, striving to attain goals represented as hopes and aspirations. People who adopt a promotion focus tend to prioritise their future aspirations over more immediate duties. In contrast, with a prevention focus, self-regulation is concerned with security, safety and responsibility, striving to attain goals represented as duties and

obligations. People who adopt a prevention focus tend to prioritise their immediate duties over future aspirations. Regulatory focus was included to ascertain whether adopting a promotion focus or prevention focus influenced both managers' receptivity to the disruptiveness of work-life benefits and their compliance with institutional pressures.

Regulatory focus theory stemmed from self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 2012). As described by Higgins (1987), self-discrepancy theory contends that representations of the self are constituted upon two cognitive dimensions: domains of the self and standpoints on the self. Three domains of the self are demarcated. The actual self encapsulates the attributes that a person is believed to possess. The ideal self encapsulates the attributes that a person ideally would possess. The ought self encapsulates the attributes that a person should or ought to possess. Two standpoints on the self are distinguished: own personal standpoint and standpoint of a significant other. A standpoint is defined "as a point of view from which you can be judged that reflects a set of attitudes or values" (Higgins, 1987, p. 321).

Therefore, as explained by Higgins (1987), when the domains of the self are combined with the standpoints on the self, six self-state representations are delineated: actual/own, actual/other, ideal/own, ideal/other, ought/own and ought/other. The first two representations signify an individual's actual self or self-concept: actual/own entails the characteristics that people believe they have developed, whereas actual/other entails the characteristics a significant other believes this person has developed.

The other representations are referred to as self-guides, which are defined as "self-directive standards or acquired guides for being" (Higgins, 1987, p. 321). Two types of self-guides are differentiated: ideal self-guides and ought self-guides. Ideal self-guides represent the attributes that the person – or a significant other – would ideally like to possess, which encapsulate hopes, wishes and aspirations. In contrast, the ought self-guides represent the attributes that the person – or a significant other – should or ought to possess, which encapsulate duties, responsibilities and obligations.

Self-discrepancy theory contends that people are motivated to achieve congruence between their actual self-states and their self-guides (Higgins, 1987). That is, people are motivated to reduce discrepancies between the current state, as represented by their self-concept, and desired end-states, as represented by their self-guides. When these self-state representations are discrepant, a specific kind of negative psychological situation is produced, which is linked with particular emotional and motivational problems (Higgins, 1987).

To illustrate, when the ideal self is not achieved, the absence of positive outcomes is experienced and people anticipate not receiving any rewards, manifesting as disappointment or withdrawal. Similarly, when the ought self is not achieved, the presence of negative outcomes is experienced and people anticipate some punitive action. This anticipation of punishment manifests as agitation and anxiety. Thus, self-discrepancy theory clarifies the source of many key emotions.

The desired end-states of self-guides serve as standards for self-evaluation (Higgins, 1996, 2012). That is, individuals experience either congruencies or discrepancies between their actual self and potential selves. In articulating regulatory focus theory, Higgins (1997, 1998) positioned regulatory focus as the means by which discrepancies are reduced. Specifically, people who strive to achieve their ideals are referred to as promotion focussed, whereas people who strive to achieve their oughts are referred to as prevention focussed. By building on self-discrepancy theory, Higgins (1997, 1998) explained how desired end-states can also be represented more broadly as goals that people strive to achieve. In this sense, individuals experience either success or failure in their goal attainment (Higgins, 1996, 2012). Two desired end-states are therefore differentiated: the attainment of accomplishments, hopes and aspirations and the attainment of safety, responsibilities and obligations (Higgins, 1997, 1998).

With regulatory focus theory, Higgins (1997, 1998) sought to explain the ways in which the hedonic principle that people approach pleasure and avoid pain operates. Promotion focus and prevention focus are positioned as two means of regulating pleasure and pain. Labelled regulatory foci, these motivational orientations are conceptualised as chronic tendencies that develop partly through socialisation, but also as orientations that can be induced temporarily in situations (Higgins, 1997, 1998).

A core premise of regulatory focus theory, as explained by Higgins (1997, 1998), is that the hedonic principle operates differently in the service of the survival needs of nurturance and security. By attaining accomplishments and fulfilling hopes and aspirations, people with a promotion focus meet nurturance needs, such as nourishment. In contrast, by insuring safety, acting responsibly and discharging obligations, people with a prevention focus meet security needs, such as protection.

Furthermore, Higgins (1997, 1998) argued that regulatory focus influences the strategies adopted for approaching pleasure and avoiding pain. That is, promotion focus and prevention focus entail different means for attaining desired end-states and averting undesired end-states. Individuals with a promotion focus are strategically inclined to approach both matches to desired end-states and mismatches to undesired end-states.

In contrast, individuals with a prevention focus are strategically inclined to avoid both mismatches to desired end-states and matches to undesired end-states. Therefore, regulatory focus determines a person's strategy for goal attainment, with people with a promotion focus pursuing approach strategies in an eager state and people with a prevention focus pursuing avoidance strategies in a vigilant state.

Higgins, Roney, Crowe, and Hymes (1994) demonstrated the influence of regulatory focus on approach and avoidance tactics for regulating friendships. Participants were presented with strategies for being a good friend and strategies for not being a poor friend, and were asked to indicate those tactics they would personally choose. Participants with a chronic ideal promotion focus were more inclined to select friendship tactics that entailed approaching matches to the goal (e.g., be generous and willing to give of yourself), compared with tactics that involved avoiding mismatches (e.g., try to make time for your friends and not neglect them). The opposite was found for participants with a chronic ought prevention focus. Thus, regulatory focus shaped regulatory strategies, which in turn translated into discrete behavioural tactics.

Higgins (1997, 1998) explained that each regulatory focus is associated with different types of pleasure and pain. With a promotion focus, a person experiences the pleasure of positive outcomes and the pain of the absence of positive outcomes. In contrast, with a prevention focus, a person experiences the pleasure of the absence of negative outcomes and the pain of the presence of negative outcomes. Thus, with both regulatory orientations, pleasure and pain are experienced, but in different ways.

Higgins (1997, 1998) utilised signal-detection terminology to explain the distinction between the two regulatory orientations. With a promotion focus, people are eager to ensure hits and minimise errors of omission or misses. In contrast, with a prevention focus, people are vigilant to ensure correct rejections and minimise errors of commission or false alarms. Therefore, eagerness ensures the presence of positive outcomes (hits, advancement) and curbs the absence of positive outcomes (misses, loss of accomplishment), whereas vigilance ensures the absence of negative outcomes (correct rejections, being careful) and precludes the presence of negative outcomes (false alarms, avoiding mistakes) (Higgins, 2000, 2002).

Higgins (1997, 1998) also argued that regulatory focus influences the type of pleasant and painful emotions experienced by people. With a promotion focus, people experience cheerfulness-related emotions when regulation is working and dejection-related emotions when regulation is not working. In contrast, with a prevention focus,

people experience quiescence-related emotions when regulation is working and agitation-related emotions when regulation is not working (Higgins, 1996).

This proposition has been verified by Higgins, Shah, and Friedman (1997) in their studies on emotional responses to goal attainment. In one study participants were instructed to complete a memory task that was framed in either promotion (i.e., gains and non-gains) or prevention (i.e., losses or non-losses) terms. After completing the task, fake performance feedback was delivered indicating whether the participant had succeeded or failed in attaining a specified goal. Higgins et al. (1997) found that participants with a stronger promotion focus expressed greater cheer after success and greater dejection after failure. In contrast, participants with a stronger prevention focus expressed greater calmness after success and greater agitation after failure.

Regulatory fit occurs when there is a match between the means by which a goal is pursed and a person's regulatory orientation (Higgins, 2000). More specifically, regulatory fit is experienced when a goal is pursued eagerly and a promotion focus adopted, or if a goal is pursued vigilantly and a prevention focus adopted. Higgins (2005) explained that, when regulatory fit is experienced, the manner in which people engage in an activity sustains, rather than disrupts, their regulatory orientation.

Experiencing regulatory fit enhances motivation and performance (Higgins, 1997, 1998, 2000). Latimer et al. (2008) demonstrated this relationship in a study on encouraging physical activity among inactive adults. In this research, participants received messages encouraging participation in regular physical activity. To induce a goal orientation directed toward ensuring positive outcomes, one message emphasised the potential benefits of being active. To induce a goal orientation directed toward avoiding negative outcomes, the other message emphasised the potential costs of being physically inactive.

Latimer et al. (2008) found that participants who reported a promotion focus were more influenced by the message that emphasised the prospect of positive outcomes. Participants who reported a prevention focus were more influenced by the message that emphasised the avoidance of negative outcomes. When regulatory fit was experienced, participants were more likely to report positive feelings and increased participation in physical activity. Thus, Latimer et al. demonstrated that motivation and behaviour were enhanced when participants experienced regulatory fit through congruence between their regulatory focus and messages received encouraging physical activity.

In summary, a promotion focus is concerned with advancement, growth and accomplishment, and regulates the presence and absence of positive outcomes

(Higgins, 1997, 1998). Promotion-focused individuals are motivated to attain maximal goals reflecting hopes and aspirations (Higgins, 2000). In contrast, a prevention focus is concerned with security, safety and responsibility, and regulates the presence and absence of negatives outcomes (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Prevention-focused individuals are motivated to attain minimal goals reflecting duties and obligations (Higgins, 2000). Thus, regulatory orientation signifies particular concerns and directs goal pursuit behaviour (Higgins, 2005), and was, therefore, deemed an important variable to include in this research. For example, if managers adopt a promotion focus, requests that could generate benefits may be approved despite the potential complications.

Affective commitment

Affective commitment has been defined as "the desire to maintain membership in an organisation" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 74). This construct captures employees' emotional connection to the organisation (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment was included to ascertain whether the relationship between regulatory focus and the disruptiveness of work-life benefits was moderated by the managers' affective commitment.

Scholars have acknowledged that the literature cites various definitions and measures of organisational commitment (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990; H. J. Klein, Molloy, & Cooper, 2009; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). The common denominator amongst the conceptualisations is the relationship with turnover: Employees who are committed to their organisation are the least likely to leave (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). In that sense, organisational commitment tends to be construed as a psychological bond that links the employee to the organisation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). For instance, N. J. Allen and Meyer (1990, 1996) defined organisational commitment as a psychological state that binds an individual to the organisation, and thus reduces the likelihood that the employee will voluntarily depart.

Commitment is conceptualised as multidimensional (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), which offers a more comprehensive picture of an individual's bond to an organisation (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Based on a review of existing conceptualisations, Meyer and Allen developed a widely cited model of organisational commitment that demarcates three, distinct forms: affective, continuance and normative (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1991). Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, an organisation. Continuance commitment refers to the perceived costs

that an employee would incur by leaving an organisation, such as the loss of income. Normative commitment refers to the perceived obligation to remain in an organisation.

N. J. Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component model of organisational commitment recognises the similarity between these constructs; that is, all forms of commitment are related to turnover. The difference between the forms of commitment arises from the nature of the link between employees and an organisation. Thus, employees remain with an organisation because they want to when strong affective commitment is experienced, because they need to when strong continuance commitment is experienced and because they feel they ought to when strong normative commitment is experienced. Thus, the three forms of commitment are characterised by the mindsets of desire, perceived cost and obligation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Employees are positioned to experience all three components to varying extents, which taken together reflect a commitment profile (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The three forms of commitment develop from different experiences and demonstrate different implications for attitudes and behaviours (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990). This proposition has been confirmed through meta-analyses on the antecedents, correlates and consequences of organisational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). The relationships between affective commitment and other individual and workplace characteristics and experiences are documented in the paragraphs that follow given the relevance to the present research.

The antecedents of affective commitment examined by Meyer et al. (2002) included demographic variables and work experiences, along with alternatives and investments. Affective commitment was higher amongst employees who were older and married, along with workers who reported longer position and organisational tenures. Gender and education were unrelated to affective commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Meyer et al. (2002) concluded that demographics do not appreciably determine affective commitment.

Work experiences, however, are more influential (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). Meyer et al. (2002) found that employees who reported greater perceived organisational support, more transformational leadership behaviours and increased perceptions of organisational justice expressed stronger affective commitment, whereas workers experiencing role ambiguity and role conflict expressed weaker affective commitment. Finally, when employees had accumulated investments and perceived their skills as transferrable, stronger affective commitment was reported.

For the correlates, Meyer et al. (2002) found that affective commitment was positively correlated with job involvement, occupational commitment and overall job satisfaction. Affective commitment also coincided with facets of satisfaction, including extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction, along with satisfaction with supervision, co-workers, pay, promotional opportunities and work. Meyer et al. (2002) explained that these variables are deemed correlates because causal ordering remains disputed.

Meyer et al. (2002) demarcated the consequences of commitment as employer-oriented, such as turnover, and employee-oriented, such as stress. As predicted, affective commitment was negatively related to turnover. Employees are more likely to remain with an organisation when stronger affective commitment is experienced. Furthermore, employees expressing stronger affective commitment experience lower withdrawal cognitions, reduced absenteeism, higher job performance, increased organisational citizenship behaviour and lower stress.

Affective commitment has garnered research attention in the work-family domain. Employees who experience greater work-family conflict report diminished affective commitment (T. D. Allen et al., 2000). In contrast, when work-family enrichment is experienced, employees report stronger affective commitment (McNall, Nicklin, et al., 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011). Furthermore, the presence and utilisation of work-life benefits bolsters affective commitment (T. D. Allen, 2001; Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Butts et al., 2013; Eaton, 2003; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Haar & Spell, 2004; Prottas et al., 2007; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999; C. A. Thompson et al., 2004).

Affective commitment generates wide ranging implications for attitudes and behaviour. When strong affective commitment is experienced, managers identify with and feel emotionally attached to the organisation (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1991). Managers with a strong affective commitment desire maintaining a connection with the organisation, share values with the organisation and voluntarily engage in supportive behaviours (Meyer, Maltin, et al., 2012). In contrast, when affective commitment is limited, managers might not be as concerned about the organisation, potentially affecting their decisions about requests for work-life benefits. Affective commitment was included as a variable in this study.

Self-construals

Markus and Kitayama (1991) demarcated two schemas for the self: a construal of the self as independent and a construal of the self as interdependent. The independent self is disconnected from the social context – an autonomous, bounded, complete, separate being. For example, when the independent self is primed,

individuals are more attuned to how they differ from their friends and family. In contrast, the interdependent self is connected to the social context – a related, malleable, contextualised being. When the interdependent self is primed, individuals are more attuned to the characteristics shared with their social circle. Self-construals were included to ascertain whether adopting an independent or interdependent self-construal influenced managers' receptivity to their dependence on employees.

Markus and Kitayama (2010) defined the self as "a continually developing sense of awareness and agency that guides actions and takes shape as the individual, both brain and body, becomes attuned to various environments" (p. 420). These scholars drew a connection between culture and the self, arguing that culture influences the precise content, structure and functioning of the self, resulting in varied senses of the self being present in people across different cultures (Markus, 2016; Markus & Kitayama, 1991, 2010). Construals of the self assimilate and reflect the normative expectations about behaviour that cultures implicitly embody (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, 2010). In particular, Western cultures are typified by an independent self-construal and Eastern cultures are typified by an interdependent self-construal.

Markus and Kitayama (1991) described an independent self as primarily defined by private, inner features, which are invariant over time and context. The attributes, abilities, traits, desires and motives of the self govern behaviour – "achieving the cultural goal of independence requires construing oneself as an individual whose behavior is organized and made meaningful primarily by reference to one's own internal repertoire of thoughts, feelings, and action" (p. 226). The independent self is focused on being unique, expressing the self, validating internal attributes, advancing personal goals and being forthright in communication. In the words of Markus and Kitayama (1991), other individuals, or the social situation more broadly, facilitate self-evaluation – "primarily as standards of reflected appraisal, or as sources that can verify and affirm the inner core of the self" (p. 226).

Markus and Kitayama (1991) described an interdependent self as primarily defined by public, relational features. An interdependent self possesses internal attributes, but these qualities tend to be specific to the situation and subordinate to the need to maintain harmonious connections with other people. Behaviour is guided by the envisioned expectations of others – "one's behavior is determined, contingent on, and, to a large extent organized by what the actor perceives to be the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationship" (p. 227). The interdependent self is focused on belonging and conforming, behaving appropriately, advancing others' goals and being

indirect in communication. As described by Markus and Kitayama (1991), other people are essential for self-definition; the self is characterised according to social relationships. Other people play an active and constant role in the definition of the interdependent self.

The main difference, therefore, between these senses of self relates to people's perception about the relationship between the self and others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Self-construals reflect normative expectations about relations between the self and others (Markus & Kitayama, 2010). As explained by Markus and Kitayama (1991), for the interdependent self, other people form part of the self and are required for self-definition. The self is defined according to knowledge about the 'self-in-relation-to-other'. For the independent self, other people are separate from the self and are required for self-evaluation. The self is defined primarily without reference to other people. Thus, the two selves differ based on the extent to which individuals conceptualise themselves as distinct from, or connected with, other people.

To illustrate, researchers have demonstrated how self-construals influence conflict management styles. Individuals with independent self-construals are more likely to adopt direct approaches for resolving conflict, such as confrontation and forceful tactics (Khakimova, Zhang, & Hall, 2012; Ting-Toomey, Oetzel, & Yee-jung, 2001). In contrast, individuals with interdependent self-construals are more likely to avoid direct confrontation by withdrawing from the conflict situation, accommodating the other person's needs and drawing on assistance from an outsider to mediate the conflict (Khakimova et al., 2012; Ting-Toomey et al., 2001).

Markus and Kitayama (1991) hypothesised and demonstrated that self-construals significantly affect individual experience and behaviour. When an activity implicates the self, the outcome of that activity will be shaped by the nature of the self-system. Self-construal could, in principle, affect the decisions of managers toward the requests of subordinates to utilise work-life benefits. For example, if managers adopt an interdependent self-construal, the impact of the decision on their relationship with the subordinate may influence the outcome of the request. Hence, independent self and interdependent self were included as variables in this study.

Implicit theories

Dweck and colleagues maintained that people adopt basic beliefs, or implicit theories, about the nature of human attributes (for reviews, see Dweck, 1986, 2012; Dweck et al., 1995a; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995b; Dweck & Elliott, 1983; Dweck, Hong, & Chiu, 1993; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). These scholars demarcated two theories: an

entity theory, which positions personal attributes as fixed, non-malleable traits, and an incremental theory, which positions personal attributes as malleable qualities that can be altered and developed. Implicit theories were included to ascertain whether adopting an entity theory or incremental theory would influence managers' predisposition to display the helping behaviour of approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

The original articulation of implicit theories was directed to the domain of intellectual achievement (Dweck, 2012). The intent was to document the motivational constructs that affect learning and performance (Dweck & Elliott, 1983). As detailed by Dweck and Elliott, people are purported to espouse theories of intelligence that represent their conceptualisation of intellectual competence. An entity theory of intelligence considers intelligence to be a fixed, global entity that can be evaluated, whereas an incremental theory of intelligence considers intelligence to be a collection of skills and knowledge that can be continuously grown. A person's theory of intelligence, in conjunction with actual ability, determines how effectively knowledge and skills are acquired, transferred and used (Dweck, 1986).

Dweck and Elliott (1983) explained that implicit theories influence the selection and pursuit of two types of achievement goals: performance and learning. Entity theorists prefer performance goals and incremental theorists prefer learning goals. Both types of goals relate to competence but, as Dweck and Elliott outlined, performance goals focus on judgments of competence and learning goals focus on development of competence. The goals adopted by people, in turn, drive their perception of achievement situations. Consequently, entity and incremental theorists structure the same situation in markedly different ways based on whether evaluations of ability or opportunities to learn are pursued.

As explicated by Dweck (1986), a person's goal orientation influences behaviour in achievement settings. Entity theorists, in pursuing performance goals, tend to avoid challenges, concede when faced with difficulties and experience negative self-cognitions and emotions. This maladaptive helpless response promotes failure in the creation of realistic, valued goals, ineffective maintenance in driving toward goals and limited fulfilment of attainable goals. Incremental theorists, in pursuing learning goals, tend to display the opposite – they seek out challenges, persist when faced with difficulties and experience positive self-cognitions and emotions. This adaptive mastery-oriented response promotes the creation, maintenance and fulfilment of personally challenging and meaningful achievement goals.

Robins and Pals (2002) demonstrated the hypothesised associations between implicit theories, goal orientation and the helpless versus mastery response pattern. Using path analyses with a sample of 508 university students, the researchers found entity theorists were motivated to outperform other people and incremental theorists were motivated to develop skills. Students pursuing performance goals were more likely to attribute achievement outcomes to uncontrollable causes, including luck, ability of other students or task difficulty. In contrast, students pursuing learning goals were more likely to attribute achievement outcomes to controllable causes, such as effort or study skills. Students forming helpless attributions were more likely to experience negative affect, and students forming effort attributions were more likely to experience positive affect. Finally, students experiencing negative affect were more likely to behave in a helpless manner by relinquishing their effort in the face of challenge, and students experiencing positive affect were more likely to behave in a mastery-oriented achievement manner by persisting and exerting greater effort.

The model has been extended by Dweck and associates beyond beliefs about intelligence in recognition that other human attributes can be construed according to the dimension of malleability (Dweck, 2012; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). People are assumed to adopt beliefs about the malleability of the range of personal attributes that form the self-concept, conceiving such characteristics as sociability, intelligence, artistic ability, physical competence, morality, attractiveness or health as either relatively unmalleable traits or self-creative processes (Dweck & Elliott, 1983). As with intelligence, these implicit theories orient people toward different goals of either documenting or developing the attribute, along with encouraging varied patterns of behaviour in the form of helpless or mastery-oriented strategies (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

Implicit theories have also been positioned as two alternative, qualitatively dissimilar conceptualisations of the self (Dweck & Elliott, 1983; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). That is, each theory represents a form of self-concept. Hence, with a generalised entity theory, the self is conceptualised as a constellation of fixed traits that can be assessed and evaluated. With a generalised incremental theory, the self is conceptualised as a constellation of malleable qualities that can be changed and developed through individual endeavours (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). People may espouse a single overarching theory that transcends all human characteristics (Dweck et al., 1995a).

Implicit theories have also been generalised beyond the self. Dweck and Leggett (1988) explained that people adopt implicit beliefs about the malleability of attributes external to the self, such as characteristics of other people, places, objects, phenomena

or the world in general. An entity theorist would, therefore, consider these external attributes to be unalterable. In contrast, as Dweck and Leggett elucidated, "an incremental theory would propose that desirable qualities can be cultivated: People can be made more competent, institutions can be made more responsible, the environment can be made more healthful, the world can be made more just" (p. 266).

As detailed by Dweck and Leggett (1988), these alternate conceptualisations about the malleability of attributes external to the self similarly drive goal orientation and responses toward these attributes. Entity theorists prefer judgment goals focused on positive or negative assessments of the attributes, which in turn hinders the initiation and pursuit of change, generates rigid, simplistic thinking and promotes contempt. In contrast, incremental theorists prefer development goals focused on understanding and enhancing the attributes, which in turn fosters the pursuit of improvement of attributes or mastery of valued tasks, process-oriented thinking and compassion or empathy.

Implicit theories are deemed a core assumption in a person's world view, providing a framework that guides people's inferences, judgments and reactions (Dweck et al., 1995a). For example, if managers adopt an incremental theory, greater appreciation may be demonstrated by those managers about how their decisions could shape and improve the behaviour of their subordinates. Thus, managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits should be guided by their beliefs about the nature of human attributes. Hence, this variable was included in the research.

Interpersonal trust

Trust has been described as pivotal to human life – we are doomed if we trust everyone and equally doomed if we trust no one (Stack, 1978). Interpersonal trust was included in the present research to ascertain whether managers' propensity to trust other people would influence their predisposition to display the helping behaviour of approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

The literature on trust is devoid of a concise and uniformly endorsed definition (Hupcey, Penrod, Morse, & Mitcham, 2001; Kramer, 1999), with most authors offering their own version. For example, Stack (1978) defined trust as the assured reliance on another individual. Although the literature is inundated with definitions, the concepts of risk and confidence appear central to most. Risk encapsulates the uncertainty about the outcome associated with trusting another person (Hupcey et al., 2001; Searle et al., 2011; Stack, 1978) and confidence encapsulates the behavioural acceptance of this risk – depending on another person (Currall & Judge, 1995). Thus, trust enables a person to behave with confidence in risky, interdependent situations (McAllister, 1997).

A comprehensive and accepted model of dyadic trust in organisations has been provided by Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995). Thus, the focus is the trust of one individual toward another person in an organisational setting. Integrating research from multiple disciplines, the framework was intended to be parsimonious and generalisable across contexts (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007), and has been verified through a meta-analysis (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Mayer et al. positioned an individual's decision to trust as dependent on both their calculated, rational assessment of risk and their social perspective about people and society in general (Kramer, 1999).

As shown in Figure 12, Mayer et al. (1995) contended that an individual's level of trust is determined by two factors: the perceived trustworthiness of the trustee, which is derived from the trustor's perceptions of the ability, benevolence and integrity of the trustee, and the trustor's propensity to trust, which reflects a generalised expectation about the trustworthiness of other people. Trust, therefore, is high when the trustee is perceived as competent, considerate and principled and the trustor is more willing generally to trust people.

Mayer et al. (1995) explained that the level of trust, along with the perceived risk of the trusting behaviour, determines the behavioural manifestation of trust: that is, risk taking in the relationship. Perceived risk reflects an assessment of the risk in a particular situation: that is, what is the likelihood of gains or losses eventuating in this context. The assessment of risk relates to the situational factors that necessitate trust: that is, what are the factors that make the decision to act significant and uncertain. The actual outcome of the trusting behaviour, which can be either favourable or unfavourable, provides feedback on the perceived characteristics of the trustee.
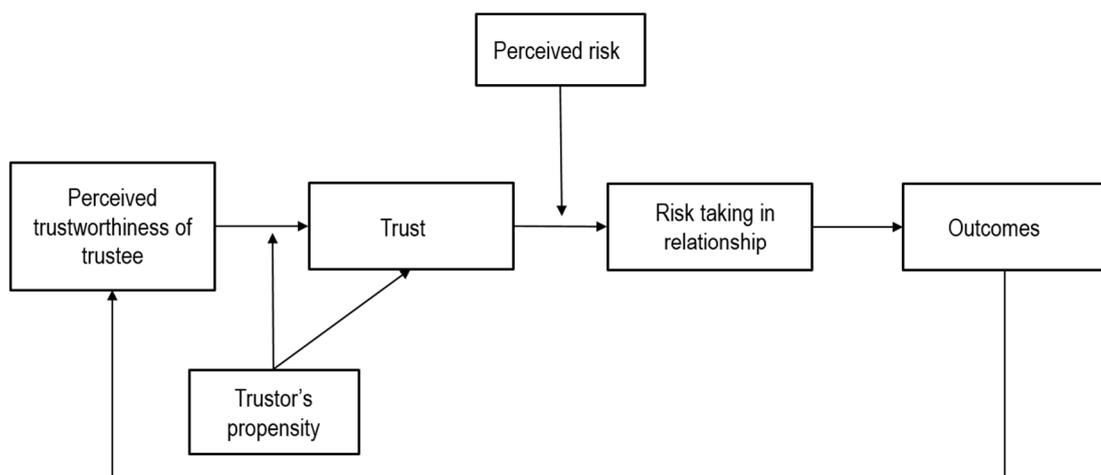
Figure 12. Model of organisational trust (Mayer et al., 1995)

Mayer et al.'s (1995) framework illustrates two conceptualisations of trust that feature in the literature: an individual difference variable and a situational variable. C. L.

Scott (1980) explained these constructs, referring to them as attitudinal and situational. The attitudinal model claims individual differences in trust can be ascribed to attitudes, which are shaped by the unique experiences and socialisation of individuals and applied consistently across trust objects. This conceptualisation recognises that individuals espouse relatively stable perspectives about the general trustworthiness of other people. In contrast, the situational model claims individual differences in trust can be ascribed to situational factors, with variation in trust scores being ascribed to differences in trust objects and settings. This conceptualisation recognises the influence of contextual factors (Mayer et al., 1995; Stack, 1978).

C. L. Scott (1980) provided evidence to support the conceptualisation of trust as a two-factor variable: a broad-based stable factor and a situationally influenced factor. With a sample of 44 university students and business people, participants completed either a trust-building training session or an academic project. Trust towards the group members was measured before and after the activity. Trust scores increased for the individuals that underwent training, whereas no change was observed in the control group. In addition, trust scores varied across participants and within participants.

Attitudinal trust is more relevant than situational trust when relationships are first forming. As documented by Mayer et al. (1995), the level of trust between two parties before a relationship is established is shaped by the trustors' propensity to trust. Similarly, McKnight, Cummings, and Chervany (1998) argued that a person's disposition to trust enables trust to form in organisational settings when firsthand knowledge or experience is absent. Given the managers in this study responded to hypothetical vignettes, their levels of trust towards the subordinates represented would be largely determined by their attitudinal trust. Thus, the present research adopted the attitudinal model.

The attitudinal conceptualisation of trust has been designated many labels in the literature. Rotter (1967) defined interpersonal trust as "an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 651). Stack (1978) employed and defined the term generalised trust as the expectancies people adopt about the general trustworthiness of other individuals. Propensity to trust was utilised by Mayer et al. (1995) to reflect a person's general willingness to trust others. Finally, McKnight et al. (1998) used and defined disposition to trust as a consistent tendency to be willing to depend on other people across a wide range of situations and persons.

Rotter (1967) presented a widely used model of interpersonal trust that draws on social learning theory. According to this theory, behaviour depends on four variables: behaviour potentials, expectancies, reinforcement values and situations (Rotter, 1971). Behaviour potential is a function of expectancy and reinforcement value. As Rotter (1967) explained, "choice behavior in specific situations depends upon the expectancy that a given behavior will lead to a particular outcome or reinforcement in that situation and the preference value of that reinforcement for the individual in that situation" (p. 653). Stated simply, a behaviour will be displayed when an individual is confident the behaviour will produce a desired outcome (Mearns, 2009).

Expectancies and reinforcement values develop over time through the rewards and punishments experienced in interpersonal relationships (Mearns, 2009). As documented by Rotter (1967), people vary in their experiences of promised negative or positive reinforcements transpiring, and accordingly different expectancies that such reinforcements will eventuate when promised by other people develop. Social interaction, therefore, influences people's expectations about being able to attain desirable outcomes.

Expectancies can be either specific or generalised (Rotter, 1971). A specific expectancy is based on experiences in a particular situation, whereas a generalised expectancy is based on experiences across a range of situations that are perceived as similar (Rotter, 1980). A generalised expectancy that a particular behaviour will translate to a particular outcome in all situations develops based on recurring experiences in similar situations (Hamsher, Geller, & Rotter, 1968). This generalisation process explains the consistency and stability of behaviour across situations (Rotter, 1971).

Rotter (1967) positioned trust as a generalised expectancy; that is, a generalised expectancy that other people can be believed. Consistent with social learning theory, he argued an individual develops a generalised expectancy for trust when expectancies that other peoples' communications are truthful and can be relied upon are generalised from one social agent to another (Rotter, 1967, 1980). Thus, individuals develop generalised, relatively stable expectancies for trusting or distrusting other people (Rotter, 1971).

Thus, trust is important in interpersonal exchanges and prior research has demonstrated meaningful differences between high and low trusters in attitudes and behaviour (Searle et al., 2011). For example, distrusting managers could assume that employees might exploit various work-life benefits, such as the request to work from home, impeding approval. This variable was included in the research to examine the

influence of generalised levels of trust on managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

Summary

This chapter reviewed the conceptual and empirical work on supervisor support. A family-supportive supervisor demonstrates emotional and instrumental support toward subordinates, role models effective behaviours for managing work and non-work responsibilities and implements strategic solutions to achieve mutually beneficial outcomes for employees and the organisation (Hammer et al., 2011; Hammer et al., 2013; Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2007).

The conceptual and empirical work on managerial decision making on work-life benefits was also reviewed. When supervisors grant employee requests for work-life benefits, they are exhibiting instrumental support (Hammer et al., 2007). This thesis examined the influence of managers' individual differences on the decisions reached when evaluating these requests from employees. The motivational and interpersonal orientations that were predicted to influence these decisions were detailed.

Research on the barriers that preclude the widespread utilisation of work-life policies and programs consistently highlights the pivotal role of managers (Cooper et al., 2001; Drago, Crouter, Wardell, & Willits, 2001; Hewitt Associates, 2008; S. Lewis et al., 2002; Newman & Mathews, 1999; Waters & Bardoel, 2006). Improving the decisions reached by managers when evaluating subordinates' requests to utilise work-life benefits will assist in shifting managers from acting as gatekeepers and barriers to the utilisation of these arrangements to acting as facilitators and enablers for employees, and thus contribute to resolving the provision-utilisation gap. In the following chapter, an overview of judgment and decision making (JDM) research is presented, including the technique applied to evaluate managers' decisions: judgment analysis.

Chapter 5: Judgment analysis

In the preceding chapter, the motivational and interpersonal orientations of managers that were predicted to influence the decisions reached about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits were documented. In this chapter, the focus is on the decision. An overview of the judgment and decision making (JDM) field is presented, including a summary of the techniques utilised to investigate human judgments and decisions. Judgment analysis, the technique employed in the present research to evaluate managers' decisions, is then examined with a discussion of the theoretical underpinnings of the approach. The methodological implications of designing and conducting a judgment analysis study are addressed in the methods chapter.

Judgment and decision making

Human beings are constantly formulating judgments and reaching decisions. This section defines the constructs of decision making, judgments and decisions, and details the development of the academic field that studies these cognitive activities.

Judgments and decisions

Judgment and decision making are essential cognitive activities (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). As articulated by Connolly, Arkes, and Hammond (2000), judgment and decision making are "pervasive, important intellectual activities engaged in by all of us in academic, professional, and social pursuits throughout every day" (p. 2). In the paragraphs that follow, these constructs are described and a process map presented that explicates their interrelationship.

Carroll and Johnson (1990) defined decision making as a "process by which a person, group, or organization identifies a choice or judgment to be made, gathers and evaluates information about alternatives, and selects from among the alternatives" (p. 19). Judgment is the step whereby the alternatives or options are evaluated (Connolly et al., 2000). Forming a judgment entails obtaining an understanding or appraisal of the situation (Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997). Reaching a decision is the step whereby a course of action is decided upon or chosen (Connolly et al., 2000; Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997). Connolly et al. (2000) provided a practical example by way of selection. Forming a judgment entails answering the question of how strong is this candidate, whereas reaching a decision answers the question of who should be hired.

Stevenson, Busemeyer, and Naylor (1990) explained that judgments inform decisions. For instance, an executive relies on judgments about divisional performance and external factors to decide on the allocation of research and development funds. As illustrated in Figure 13, Stevenson et al. depicted decision making as an exchange

between two interdependent systems: the decision maker and the environment. The decision maker formulates judgments that initiate action, which creates environmental consequences that provide feedback to the decision-making system, and so on. The two systems, therefore, constantly evolve as a result of their mutual exchange.
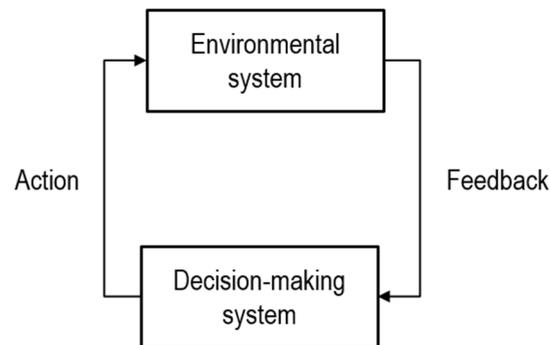
Figure 13. Decision-making process (Stevenson et al., 1990)

In this subsection, the constructs of decision making, judgments and decisions have been defined, with a process map explained that details the relationship between these cognitive activities. The emergence of a discipline that scientifically and empirically studies judgments and decisions is considered in the next subsection.

Research on judgments and decisions

JDM emerged as an accepted research discipline in the 1950s, encompassing a range of independent and interdependent streams of research (Hammond, McClelland, & Mumpower, 1980; Highhouse, 2001; Stevenson et al., 1990). The evolution of the JDM field is reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Goldstein and Hogarth (1997) explained that JDM is not a paradigmatic, unanimously accepted, all-encompassing theoretical framework. Instead, several schools of thought are incorporated, each with their own areas of interest, theories, methodologies and programs of research. The shared starting position of researchers is that judgment and decision making can be scientifically and empirically studied, and that such systematic observations will promote understanding and improved judgments and decisions (Hammond et al., 1980). Decisions reached after some degree of deliberation generally are examined by researchers; that is, individuals reach decisions after predicting possible consequences of alternative actions, along with their evaluative responses to these consequences (Connolly & Ordóñez, 2003; Connolly et al., 2012).

The dominant streams of research that emerged during the 1950s were choice and judgment (Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997; Highhouse, 2001). Research on choice emanated from economics and focused on how people select a course of action, whereas research on judgment emanated from psychology and focused on how people

integrate information to formulate judgments (Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997; Hammond et al., 1980). Historically, researchers have operated within one of these two streams, and communication between paradigms has been limited. More recently the research programs have begun to converge (Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997; Highhouse, 2001).

Consistent with other social and behavioural sciences, both descriptive and prescriptive approaches are represented in JDM research. Descriptive or behavioural research explains how a decision is reached (Dawes, 1998; Hammond et al., 1980). The intent is to document the actual processes in which decision makers engage (Connolly & Ordóñez, 2003; Connolly et al., 2012). In contrast, prescriptive or normative research explains how a decision should be reached (Dawes, 1998; Hammond et al., 1980). The intent is to advise people about optimising these processes (Connolly & Ordóñez, 2003; Connolly et al., 2012). These alternate perspectives reflect why a decision is being investigated (Carroll & Johnson, 1990).

The two approaches are strongly interconnected. Behavioural studies often generate normative questions, whereas normative studies are dependent upon the realism with which they capture the psychology of the decision maker (Connolly & Ordóñez, 2003; Connolly et al., 2012). As an example, a behavioural study on how a physician arrives at a diagnosis also generates questions about the accuracy of the diagnosis and suggestions about improving the process (Connolly et al., 2000). When considering normative recommendations, practitioners are advised to assess the accuracy of the assumptions. Likewise, when considering a descriptive analysis of decision making, practitioners should assess the quality of the decision reached by the decision maker (Connolly & Ordóñez, 2003; Connolly et al., 2012).

With the emergence of JDM as a research domain, a range of techniques were developed to facilitate the exploration of human judgments and decisions. These research methods are detailed in the following subsection.

Methods for studying judgments and decisions

The field of JDM affords researchers with various techniques for the study of human judgments and decisions. The methods can be divided into two categories: process and structural. These alternate approaches are explained in this subsection, with a particular emphasis on the reasons for utilising judgment analysis.

Process approaches document the sequence of cognitive processes that intercede between the presentation of information and the formation of a judgment (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Stevenson et al., 1990). The focus is the steps preceding the judgment (Highhouse, 2001). These methods entail decision makers introspecting

and articulating their thought processes as a judgment is formulated (Priem & Harrison, 1994). Verbal protocols and information search are examples.

In contrast, structural approaches decompose the judgment in terms of the information presented and information used (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). The focus is the outcomes of the cognitive processes (Highhouse, 2001). These methods entail presenting decision makers with combinations of different levels of relevant variables and assessing their judgment of each combination (Priem & Harrison, 1994). Judgment analysis and conjoint analysis are examples.

Meta-theoretical considerations inform the selection between the research methods (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). The present study was focused on the content of the managers' decisions (Highhouse, 2001); thus, a structural technique was appropriate. Prior studies of managerial decision making on work-life benefits have employed judgment analysis (e.g., Barham et al., 1998; Beham et al., 2015; den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008; K. J. Klein et al., 2000; Peters et al., 2010; Powell & Mainiero, 1999). Therefore, by utilising the same method, comparisons can be drawn between previous results and present findings.

JDM offers researchers various means to investigate human judgments and decisions. In summary, process methods are concerned with the cognitive processes underpinning the judgment, whereas structural methods are concerned with the judgment itself (Priem & Harrison, 1994; Priem et al., 2011). For this research, the structural approach of judgment analysis was applied to investigate managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The following section considers the theoretical framework that underpins judgment analysis.

Social judgment theory

Judgment analysis is a research method designed to examine the strategies that a judge utilises to integrate information into judgments and decisions (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). The paradigmatic application is analysing how a clinician utilises available information on a patient, such as laboratory test results or manifest symptoms, to formulate a judgment about a diagnosis and reach a decision on a treatment plan (Hoffman, 1960). The theoretical foundation of judgment analysis is social judgment theory (SJT), which was originally articulated by Hammond and colleagues (1975). This section explores SJT because, as explained by Hammond et al. (1980), the method of judgment analysis is closely connected with the theory of SJT. The discussion follows the descriptive framework presented by Hammond et al. (1980) with the origins, principles, scope and intended functions of the theory covered.

Origins of SJT

SJT emanated from the theoretical and methodological work of Egon Brunswik on visual perception. This subsection details how the principles of perception espoused by Brunswik were applied and extended to human judgment and decision making.

Brunswik's main contention was that the goal of psychology should be explaining how organisms become attuned to and function in their environments (Goldstein, 2004; Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997). Rather than focus primarily on the organism, research attention should, therefore, be directed toward understanding the adaptive interrelations between organisms and the environments in which they are embedded (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971).

Brunswik labelled his approach *probabilistic functionalism* and visually depicted his theoretical precepts with the lens model (Cooksey, 1996; Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). As portrayed in Figure 14, an organism forms a judgment (Y_s) based on proximal cues from the environment (X_i), which are representations of the distal criterion (Y_e) to be judged. Brunswik applied the lens model to visual perception and maintained that an organism forms a perception by processing an incomplete and fallible array of sensory cues (Cooksey, 1996; Goldstein, 2004; Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997). By way of example, an organism judges the size of an object based on sensory information available in the environment (Goldstein, 2004).
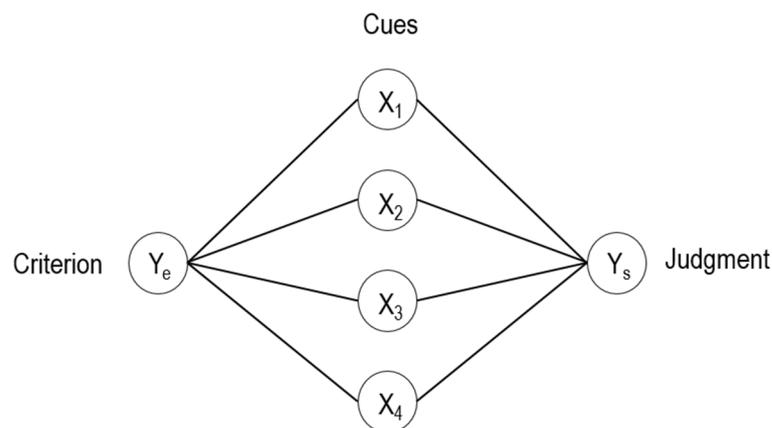
Figure 14. Brunswik's lens model (Adapted from Cooksey, 1996)

Brunswik further argued that the functional relationship between an organism and its ecology was probabilistic in nature because of uncertainty in the environment (Cooksey, 1996; Goldstein, 2004; Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997). Proximal cues are ambiguous, unreliable and entangled (Hammond et al., 1975). Thus, when judging the object's size, the object may be perceived by the organism as large either because of proximity or because of actual size (Goldstein, 2004).

Probabilistic functionalism was applied to the study of human judgment in the 1950s and 1960s through a series of papers by Hammond and his associates (B. Brehmer, 1988; Cooksey, 1996; Goldstein, 2004; Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997; Hammond et al., 1980). In particular, Hammond first demonstrated the applicability of Brunswik's approach to the study of clinical judgment in a paper published in 1955.

Hammond (1955) explained that most non-clinicians would describe clinicians' judgments as private, quasi-rational and non-repeatable. That is, in Hammond's words, "it is as if we put our empirical data into a computing machine, the processes of which we did not understand and which frequently produced different results depending on which machine we used and when we used it" (p. 255). The private, quasi-rational nature of clinical judgments, Hammond contended, had prevented a systematic, methodological examination of this cognitive process.

Hammond (1955) explored two methodological issues with the study of the clinical method: observer-object interaction and non-communicability. First, Hammond posited that the traditional approach of considering the clinician as partitioned from the patient failed to acknowledge the interaction between the observer and the object. The clinician interacts with the patient and vice versa, and this exchange may influence the act of observation. Second, Hammond argued that the intersubjective non-communicability of behaviour hampered the analysis of the clinical method. That is, when forming a judgment, clinicians are unable to communicate the reason for their decisions, or their decisions may have been based on different evidence.

To study the clinical method, Hammond (1955) advocated a theory and methodology that addressed these two methodological concerns. The theoretical concept of vicarious functioning was employed, which refers to the changeability of input and behavioural output. As Hammond explained, "the patient substitutes one form of behaviour for another… The clinician perceives these behaviours, as they substitute for one another, as cues which also substitute for one another" (p. 258). That is, one cue can substitute another, as can one form of behaviour substitute another. Due to this vicarious functioning, the clinician struggles to communicate the basis for a decision and the partition between observer and object is indeterminate.

Hammond (1955) contended that non-communicability and observer-object interaction are expressions of vicarious functioning, and provided the foundations for the analysis of the clinical method. These clinical occurrences should not be conceptualised as events to ignore or eliminate. As Hammond stated, "vicarious functioning... lies at the heart of the private, quasi-rational nature of the clinical decision" (p. 258). The lens

model, as articulated by Brunswik, was congruent with vicarious functioning and thus afforded an appropriate methodology for studying the clinical method.

Hammond (1955) explained that the clinician-patient interaction is acknowledged in the analysis by moving the partition from between the clinician and patient to a point beyond the clinician. Thus, the clinician is considered as an instrument to be analysed and understood, rather than as a reader of instruments. In addition, the clinician is analysed and understood with a probability model because the relations between cues and behaviour are indeterminate. To illustrate the approach, Hammond presented a study that utilised multiple regression analysis to model clinicians' estimation of intelligence based on cues from psychological test responses.

The applicability of mathematical models to represent the utilisation of information by clinicians when formulating judgments was further demonstrated by Hoffman (1960). Building on Hammond's (1955) work, Hoffman argued and illustrated how the intervening process between the presentation of information and a judgment can be rigorously investigated and described as a functional relationship between input (information) and output (judgment).

Several hundred empirical studies accompanied this early theoretical and methodological work, spurred by a growing appreciation of the importance of the topic and the appearance of the computer which facilitated complex data analysis (Hammond et al., 1975; Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). Progressing beyond clinical judgments, the theory and associated methodology have been applied to a broad range of contexts. Indeed, a very early example is provided by H. A. Wallace (1923) who modelled expert judges of corn. This thesis studied decision making in the workplace (Highhouse, 2001).

Thus, SJT emerged from the work of Brunswik on visual perception. Several scholars contributed to establishing the relevance of Brunswik's theoretical and methodological propositions to the study of human judgment and decision making, with Hammond and colleagues (1975) formalising the approach with SJT. In the next subsection, the main tenets of SJT are considered.

Principles of SJT

B. Brehmer (1988) explained that SJT is a general framework for the psychological study of human judgments and decisions, guiding and directing researchers. Several principles of SJT can be extracted and articulated that inform research. These core elements are detailed in the following paragraphs.

The first principle of SJT relates to the fundamental behavioural unit for psychological analysis (B. Brehmer, 1988; Cooksey, 1996). Hammond (1955) argued

that the partition between the clinician and patient must be moved to a point beyond the clinician to ensure the observer-object interaction was incorporated into the analysis. Therefore, as explained by B. Brehmer (1988), the organism and the environment are studied as one system with two subsystems: the task system and the cognitive system. The task system encompasses the cues and the distal variable, whereas the cognitive system encompasses the cues and the judgment. Equal emphasis is placed on the organism and the environment (Cooksey, 1996; Goldstein, 2004).

The second principle of SJT is that the relations amongst environmental variables are ambiguous and entangled (Hammond et al., 1975). Humans are required to exercise judgment because "multiple, uncertain and entangled dimensions in new constellations precludes any simple and straightforward application of prior knowledge to find the best course of action" (B. Brehmer & Joyce, 1988, p. 1). A distal criterion is less than perfectly correlated with the proximal cues. Likewise, proximal cues are less than perfectly correlated with a judgment (Hammond, 1955). As a consequence, probabilistic, rather than deterministic, models are required to represent human judgment. Vicarious functioning – the changeability of input and behavioural output – prevents deterministic relations between cues and judgments (B. Brehmer, 1988).

The third principle of SJT is that by studying the relations between systems, the organism's ability to function and adapt to its environment can be investigated. Social judgment theorists are interested in two relations: achievement and agreement (B. Brehmer, 1988). Achievement compares the judgments with the distal criterion and measures the accuracy of the judgments (Cooksey, 1996). Agreement compares the judgments of two decision makers and measures the correspondence between the judgments (Cooksey, 1996). Thus, the relation between the judge's cognitive system and the task system is captured by achievement and the relation between two judges' cognitive systems is captured by agreement.

To illustrate, in the case of clinical judgments, the distal criterion would be the disease, the proximal cues would be the patient's symptoms and the judgment would be the clinician's diagnosis. Achievement would measure the accuracy of the clinician's diagnosis and agreement would measure the similarity between clinicians' diagnoses. Shifting the partition to beyond the clinician enables the examination of these relations (Hammond, 1955).

The fourth key principle of SJT is representative design. As explained by Slovic and Lichtenstein (1971), "an organism should be studied in realistic settings, in experiments that are representative of its usual ecology" (p. 655). Brunswik's position

was that the naturally entangled and redundant characteristics of the environment should not be artificially disentangled for the purposes of research (Cooksey, 1996). When the requirements of representative design are achieved the results are generalisable (Goldstein, 2004; Hammond et al., 1975; Karelaia & Hogarth, 2008).

Thus, several theoretical precepts of SJT can be explicated that guide and inform research. In the subsection to follow consideration is given to the situations in which researchers investigate human judgments and decisions.

Scope of SJT

Human judgment can be exercised in various contexts. Four situations have been differentiated: single-system, double-system, triple-system and n-system (Hammond et al., 1980; Hammond et al., 1975). These four cases are defined in this subsection and the scope of behaviour covered by SJT explained.

As detailed by Hammond et al. (1975), the single-system considers the judge, whereas the double-system expands the analysis to consider the judge and the task environment. The lens model depicts the double-system. The triple-system considers two judges and the task environment. Finally, the n-system considers a comparison across more than two judges. Thus, the four categories differ in the number of judges and the availability of a criterion for assessing the accuracy of the judgments (Cooksey, 1996; Hammond et al., 1980).

The scope of behaviour researched within the SJT paradigm encompasses all four contexts. Hammond et al. (1975) illustrated some applications. The single-system can be applied to examine the competence of the judge. The double-system can be applied to examine how a judge learns from feedback and the resulting impact on the accuracy of judgments. The triple-system can be applied to examine interpersonal conflict arising from judges with differing judgment policies interacting, along with interpersonal learning arising from judges learning about and from each other. Finally, the n-system can be applied to examine the formation of social policy.

The terms judgment analysis and policy capturing are used interchangeably. Judgment analysis technically refers to all four cases and policy capturing refers to the single-system (Cooksey, 1996). Judgment analysis explores the relation between the judge and the environment, whereas policy capturing only focuses on the judge (Doherty, 2007). The label policy capturing derives from the researcher's intent to capture the judgment policy of the decision maker (Graham & Cable, 2001). That was the focus for the present research – capturing the judgment policy of managers for responding to requests for work-life benefits.

Human judgment can be exercised in four situations and SJT studies all four of these cases. SJT theory and research, therefore, contributes insights on judgment competence, learning about a physical environment, learning in a social context and group decision-making (Hammond et al., 1980). In the following subsection, the intended functions of SJT are considered.

Intended functions of SJT

The intended functions of a theory signify the purpose or theoretical aims, with elements of description and prescription represented (Hammond et al., 1980). The intended functions of SJT are detailed in the paragraphs that follow.

Social judgment theorists seek both to understand and improve human judgments and decisions (Hammond et al., 1975). When research is descriptive or behavioural, the focus is the processes the decision maker applies to the information that is available (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). In contrast, when research is prescriptive or normative, the focus is the processes the decision maker should apply to the information that is available (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). Guidance about making better decisions is facilitated by a comparison between the judge and the environment (B. Brehmer & Joyce, 1988; Carroll & Johnson, 1990).

As with other JDM theories and associated research methods, the behavioural and normative perspectives are strongly interconnected for SJT. For instance, Hammond et al. (1975) documented how studies of disputes arising from dissimilar judgments have also spawned research on cognitive aids designed to resolve disputes.

Thus, SJT provides the theoretical framework for researchers, guiding and directing their endeavours when utilising judgment analysis as a research method. The origins, principles, scope and intended functions of SJT were discussed in this section. Judgment analysis can be applied to describe the decisions reached when decision makers are presented with information. In addition, the approach can prescribe means to improve these decisions. This study sought to describe and explain, rather than prescribe and improve. The following section details the construction of the vignettes that were employed to describe managers' decisions.

Constructing the vignettes

Executing a judgment analysis study entails presenting a series of vignettes to a selected group of decision makers to capture their judgments (Hammond et al., 1975). Thus, identifying and selecting the information cues is critical because these variables determine the content of the vignettes. As explained by Hoffman (1960), the amount,

type and nature of information presented to the judge must be consistent and objective. This section explains how the information cues were chosen for the research.

Various means can be applied to identify a comprehensive list of potential cues. Surveys, interviews or focus groups with experienced decision makers can be conducted to source potential cues (Aiman-Smith, Scullen, & Barr, 2002; Cooksey, 1996; Karren & Barringer, 2002; Stewart, 1988). Written documentation can also be reviewed, such as theoretical and empirical research, company or other related records, and the popular press (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Cooksey, 1996; Karren & Barringer, 2002). Accordingly, judgment analysis is particularly effective when researchers have established an extensive body of theory and empirical research (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010; Graham & Cable, 2001; Priem & Harrison, 1994).

The literature contains varied recommendations on selecting the cues once they have been identified. Stewart (1988) recommended using the criteria of "most important and comprehensive", Karren and Barringer (2002) recommended selecting cues with consistent support across several sources, and Cooksey (1996) recommended using no more than nine cues because of the limited cognitive resources of humans.

Examining the cues already investigated in research is an objective method to determine *a priori* the factors that may influence the decision makers (Cooksey, 1996; Karren & Barringer, 2002). Thus, for this study, a list of potential cues was compiled from previous research on managerial decision making on work-life benefits, as detailed in Table 2. By way of example, Beham et al. (2015) manipulated the following cues: gender, criticality of employee, self-management skills, occupation, relationship quality with supervisor and task interdependence amongst team members.

Based on the commonalities amongst the studies and the theoretical frameworks of work disruption, dependency and institutional, three information cues were selected: type of request, performance and gender. These cues were deemed important information variables that were likely to influence the decisions of managers when evaluating requests for work-life benefits. More specifically, the type of work-life benefit requested by a subordinate was predicted to influence managers' perceptions about the potential for disruption to the conduct of work. The performance of the subordinate submitting the request was predicted to influence managers' dependence on that team member. Finally, the gender of the subordinate was predicted to influence the institutional pressures faced by managers when evaluating requests.

Summary

In this chapter, an overview of the JDM discipline and its research methods was provided, along with a detailed description of the theoretical foundation for judgment analysis: SJT. Research has demonstrated that individuals differ in the manner in which judgments are formulated and decisions reached (Mohammed & Schwall, 2009). Based on a review of judgment analysis studies, A. Brehmer and Brehmer (1988) concluded that individuals vary on all facets of judgment, including the extent of information considered when reaching a judgment, the relative importance attributed to that information, the way the information is integrated and the extent to which judgments are consistent. Hoffman (1960) advocated relating these variations to factors such as training, personality and intellectual characteristics. The present research considered the influence of the motivational and interpersonal orientations of managers on their decision making for responding to requests for work-life benefits. The aims and hypotheses of the study are outlined in the succeeding chapter.

Table 2

Summary of Information Cues from Previous Research on Managerial Decision Making

Paper	Type of Arrangement	Information cues
Barham et al. (1998)	Flextime Work from home Part-time Job share Unpaid leave	Type of request Reason for request (childcare / eldercare) Gender Job status (manager / subordinate)
Beham et al. (2015)	Telework	Gender Criticality for department's performance Self-management skills Occupation (administration / sales) Relationship quality between supervisor and employee Task interdependence amongst team members
den Dulk & de Ruijter (2008)	Short-term care leave Work from home Parental leave Part-time	Type of request Gender Replaceability of knowledge and skills Supervisory position State of labour market
K. J. Klein et al. (2000)	Part-time	Reason for request (childcare / personal) Gender Performance Ease of replacement Organisational connections Dependency threat
Peters & den Dulk (2003)	Telework	Type of telework arrangement Reason for request (childcare / work / commute time) Gender Performance Job tenure
Peters et al. (2010)	Telework	Gender Replaceability of knowledge and skills Supervisory position State of labour market

Table 2 continued
Summary of Information Cues from Previous Research on Managerial Decision Making

Paper	Type of Arrangement	Information cues
Poelmans & Beham (2008)	Work-life policies	Type of request Gender Caring responsibilities Replaceability of knowledge and skills Performance Organisational connections Supervisory position Criticality of knowledge Suitability of employee (e.g., self-management skills) Relationship quality between supervisor and employee
Powell & Mainiero (1999)	Work from home Part-time Unpaid leave	Type of request Reason for request (childcare / eldercare / health) Gender Criticality of tasks and skills Supervisory position

Chapter 6: Aims and hypotheses

In the preceding chapters, the literature that informed this study was reviewed. As outlined, four theoretical frameworks were selected based on the extant literature and research topic. The frameworks are work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour. Five motivational and interpersonal orientations were selected that were hypothesised to affect managers' decisions when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The orientations are regulatory focus, affective commitment, self-construals, implicit theories and interpersonal trust. In this chapter, the research question, aims and hypotheses are detailed, which explain how the theoretical frameworks informed the predictions about the orientations.

Research question and aims

This study sought to answer the question of what factors influence the decisions of managers when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Two research aims flow from this question, both of which are detailed in this section.

The first research aim builds on the previous studies on managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Prior research on the factors that influence managers' decisions has provided insights. The main focus has been on understanding the effect of two factors: characteristics of the employee and features of the request. This study endeavoured to clarify the impact of two attributes of the employee – gender and performance, along with one feature of the request – the type of work-life benefit requested – on managers' decision making.

The second research aim extends the body of knowledge on managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Limited attention has been devoted to understanding the impact of the managers' characteristics on their decision making. This omission reflects the work-family field more broadly, which has predominantly emphasised situational and environmental factors, with individual differences being neglected (T. D. Allen, 2012; Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002; C. A. Thompson et al., 2006). Thus, this study sought to augment the picture by exploring the impact of individual differences on decision making. The two research aims, therefore, for the present study were:

> Aim 1: To identify the information cues that influence managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.
>
> Aim 2: To identify the motivational and interpersonal orientations of managers that influence their use of these information cues and ultimately their decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

Theoretical frameworks

The hypotheses of this study were derived from the theoretical frameworks of work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour. The four frameworks are explained in this section, with the hypotheses detailed in a subsequent section.

Work disruption theory

According to work disruption theory, employees and managers oppose situations that disrupt the conduct of work and will, consequently, react more negatively to circumstances perceived as disruptive (Powell, 2001; Powell & Mainiero, 1999). Powell and Mainiero applied work disruption theory to explain managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for alternate work arrangements (AWAs), arguing managers consider the potential for a requested arrangement to disrupt the conduct of work and will respond less favourably to requests anticipated to be more disruptive. The tenets of work disruption theory are described in the following paragraphs.

Powell and Mainiero (1999) maintained that the extent to which managers' perceive a request as disruptive depends on three factors: the type of work-life benefit requested, the nature of the tasks, skills and responsibilities of the subordinate submitting the request and the reason for the request. When considering the type of arrangement, the argument is that some work-life benefits are more disruptive than other benefits. Powell and Mainiero also argued that work-life benefits are more disruptive when employees undertake critical tasks or possess special expertise. Work-life benefits for supervisors are especially disruptive because such employees are accountable for directing the work of other people, along with their own.

The reason for submitting the request is also posited to influence managers' expectations about work disruption (Powell & Mainiero, 1999). Managers may deem requests to be more disruptive when the reason suggests an extensive, long-term commitment for the subordinate, compared with requests that suggest a limited, short-term commitment. Other researchers have proposed that managers may be more supportive when the reason is work-related, such as study leave, rather than personal, because the execution of work will not be impeded when work-life benefits are utilised to manage work commitments (Peters & den Dulk, 2003; Peters et al., 2010).

Work disruption theory was applied to formulate predictions about the type of work-life benefit requested, along with the manager's regulatory focus. That is, managers consider the potential for disruption to the conduct of work when evaluating requests for different types of work-life benefits, with these perceptions about disruption being influenced by the manager's regulatory focus.

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Dependency theory

Bartol and Martin (1988) articulated dependency theory, arguing managers' allocate pay as a means to contain dependence upon subordinates, awarding greater pay raises to employees upon whom they are most dependent. K. J. Klein et al. (2000) adapted dependency theory, contending that managers control their dependence on subordinates by granting requests for work-life benefits from employees upon whom they are most dependent. The intent of managers is to retain these valuable individuals. As expressed by K. J. Klein et al., "better to retain a valued employee part-time, a manager may reason, than to risk losing the employee entirely" (p. 86). Dependency theory is explained in this subsection.

In their account of dependency theory, Bartol and Martin (1988) posited that managers are reliant upon subordinates to exhibit appropriate behaviours that ensure work goals are achieved. As pay is a restricted and desirable resource, compensation represents a source of power and influence that assists managers with balancing this dependency on subordinates. Thus, when reaching compensation decisions, Bartol and Martin (1988) argued that managers are influenced by their dependence on subordinates with more generous pay allocations being awarded to employees upon whom they are most dependent.

Managers are not reliant upon employees equally. Several objective sources of managerial dependence are suggested by Bartol and Martin (1988), including task uncertainty, ability to monitor performance, visibility of performance, specialisation of skills, replaceability, centrality of tasks and organisational connections. Subjective sources of dependence related to the characteristics of the manager are also acknowledged by Bartol and Martin (1988), such as self-esteem and career goals.

In addition, pay allocation decisions are predicted to be influenced by potential threats to managerial dependence. Bartol and Martin (1988) provided three categories of dependence threats: potential turnover of the subordinate, potential deterioration in subordinate behaviours in critical areas and potential subversive behaviours directed at the supervisor. To illustrate, Bartol and Martin (1989) found bank managers allocated higher pay rises to a subordinate with specialised skills who had threatened to leave.

Drawing on Bartol and Martin's (1988, 1989, 1990) work, K. J. Klein et al. (2000) predicted that managers would be more likely to approve requests from employees who were high-performing, indispensable or well-connected to other members of the organisation. Thus, dependence was conceptualised as a function of performance, ease of replacement and organisational connections. Managers rely more heavily on

employees who perform well and subordinates who possess knowledge or skills that are hard to replace. Managers are also more dependent on subordinates who are well connected with powerful individuals in the organisation, because these associates protect and advocate for the employees' interests.

K. J. Klein et al. (2000) also considered dependence threats, predicting that threatening to resign would increase the likelihood that requests from high-performing, difficult to replace and well-connected subordinates would be approved. When requests are denied, subordinates may deliberately reduce their effort or leave the organisation.

Dependency theory was applied to formulate predictions about the subordinate's performance, along with the manager's self-construal. That is, managers consider their dependence on subordinates when evaluating requests from high performers and average performers, with the salience of dependency and performance being influenced by the manager's self-construal.

Institutional theory

Institutional theory considers organisation-environment relations and the means by which organisations respond to external laws, regulations, norms and expectations (Oliver, 1991). K. J. Klein et al. (2000) applied institutional theory to explain managerial decision making on work-life benefits, arguing organisations encounter institutional expectations to permit certain segments of employees to utilise work-life policies and programs. Institutional theory is explored in the following paragraphs.

Davis (2010) explained that organisation and management theory focuses on organisations and organising, with a specific emphasis on organisations as discrete, countable units of analysis. The research domain is characterised by a number of paradigms, with institutional theory the dominant approach to studying organisations. Institutional theory attends to the "processes by which structures, including schemas, rules, norms, and routines, become established as authoritative guidelines for social behavior" (W. R. Scott, 2005, p. 460).

W. R. Scott (2004) demarcated the central tenets of institutional theory. That is, institutions operate as governance structures that represent rules for social conduct. Institutions encompass regulatory structures, government agencies, laws, courts and professions (W. R. Scott, 1987). Furthermore, by conforming to these institutional rules, organisations are afforded legitimacy, which contributes to their survival (W. R. Scott, 2004). Finally, institutions are resistant to change, with past institutional structures inhibiting and directing new arrangements (W. R. Scott, 2004).

In one of the seminal articles on institutional theory, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) differentiated three mechanisms that drive interdependent organisations to become increasingly similar in strategies, structure, climate, processes and behaviour. Coercive pressures arise from regulatory institutions and cultural expectations. Mimetic pressures result from organisations modelling themselves on other organisations that are perceived as successful. Finally, normative pressures stem from shared rules and standards that define acceptable organisational and professional behaviour.

Institutional theory has been applied in a range of contexts to study organisations (W. R. Scott, 2004, 2008). In the work-family field, institutional theory has primarily been employed to explain organisational responsiveness to work-family issues (e.g., Bardoel, 2003; Goodstein, 1994; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Pasamar & Alegre, 2015; Pasamar & Valle, 2015). Organisations adopt work-life policies and programs in response to institutional pressures, thereby securing their external legitimacy and addressing the needs of internal constituencies (Cook, 2004; Goodstein, 1994).

K. J. Klein et al. (2000) invoked institutional theory to explain employers' receptiveness to requests to work part-time. These authors contended that, when reaching decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits, managers are influenced by the institutional environment. In particular, the institutional context espouses normative beliefs about the role employers should assume in assisting employees with balancing their work and personal commitments (den Dulk et al., 2011; den Dulk et al., 2012; Goodstein, 1994; Pasamar & Alegre, 2015).

K. J. Klein et al. (2000) considered institutional pressures from two perspectives – gender and carer status. That is, institutional support for women and parents to work part-time is greater than institutional support for men and non-parents to work part-time. For instance, K. J. Klein et al. explained that contemporary social ideals advocate for parents to be involved in the upbringing of their children. Thus, by allowing parents to work part-time, organisations comply with the institutionalised expectation that parents prioritise spending time with their children. Permitting women and parents to work part-time secures institutional conformity and credibility for the organisation.

Institutional theory was applied to formulate predictions about the subordinate's gender, along with the manager's regulatory focus. That is, managers consider institutional pressures when evaluating requests from women and men, with the predisposition to comply with these expectations being influenced by the manager's regulatory focus.

Helping behaviour

Helping behaviour refers to voluntary action designed to benefit another individual – a prosocial behaviour, which encompasses acts valued by society and intended to incite desirable change (Brown, 2006; Dovidio & Penner, 2001; Eagly, 2009; Vaughan & Hogg, 2008). When requesting access to work-life benefits, employees are seeking help from their organisation and manager to balance work and personal commitments (Veiga et al., 2004). Thus, a manager's decision to approve such a request can be construed as helping another person, with managers varying in their predisposition to provide help and approve requests. Helping behaviour is examined in this subsection.

Straub (2012) argued that family-supportive supervisor behaviours – which includes facilitating employee access to work-life benefits – can equally be considered a prosocial behaviour. That is, family-supportive supervisor behaviours are "geared toward taking the initiative to improve current circumstances and challenge the status quo" (p. 16). The need for assistance may arise for many reasons, including a change in personal commitments or the organisation overloading workers. In this last instance, employees may be seeking support or acknowledgement about workload issues when requesting work-life benefits.

Research on helping behaviour has been guided and informed by the pioneering work of Latané and Darley (Dovidio, 1995; Dovidio & Penner, 2001; Piliavin, Dovidio, Gaertner, & Clark, 1981). Latané and Darley (1970) sought to explain the failure of bystanders to intervene in emergencies by analysing the motives and processes that govern when help is or is not offered. Both adherence to moral norms and aspirations to act generously or compassionately were discounted as determinants of helping behaviour. Rather, Latané and Darley focused on the ways situations were interpreted and how rewards and costs of potential actions were perceived.

Latané and Darley (1970) proposed a model that detailed five decisions that determine whether a bystander will help in an emergency. The first decision a bystander must reach is whether to detect that something is happening. If the bystander becomes cognisant of the event, the next decision relates to whether the situation is an emergency, or more generally, a situation that requires help. If deemed an emergency, the extent of responsibility for helping must then be evaluated. When responsibility is assumed, the rewards and costs associated with various courses of action need to be assessed, with an option selected and then implemented by the bystander. Intervention, therefore, is one outcome of a series of decisions. Evidence supports this model in the

emergency domain and, more broadly, in other situations in which people require assistance (Dovidio, 1995; Dovidio & Penner, 2001).

In addition to Latané and Darley's (1970) cognitive model of bystander intervention, another influential framework in the helping behaviour literature is the arousal: cost-reward model. As detailed by Piliavin et al. (1981), the model is focused on the psychological processes of bystanders as the decision to provide or withhold assistance is reached. The framework proposed that bystanders are aroused by observing an emergency and are motivated to reduce this arousal. A response to the emergency that achieves this objective, whilst generating the least net costs, will be sought by the bystander. Evidence supports the assertion that observing another's distress is physiologically arousing, with bystanders more likely to intervene to reduce this arousal when the costs for helping are low and the rewards for helping and costs for not helping are high (Dovidio, 1995; Dovidio & Penner, 2001; Piliavin et al., 1981).

These models of helping behaviour indicate that a request for a work-life benefit will be approved when a manager attends to the request, classifies the situation as one in which help is required, assumes responsibility for helping, decides that approving the request is the appropriate course of action and then acts by approving the request. A request will be denied, therefore, when a manager reaches the contrary decision at any of these five decision points. Furthermore, a manager will progress through these decision steps when emotionally aroused by the predicament of the subordinate, proceeding down the affirmative path when the net costs for helping outweigh the costs for not helping at each choice point.

Helping behaviour was applied to formulate predictions about three attributes of the manager – gender, implicit theory and interpersonal trust. That is, managers are presented with the opportunity to help employees when evaluating requests, with the predisposition to display this helping behaviour being influenced by the manager's gender, the implicit theory ascribed to and their level of interpersonal trust.

Information cue hypotheses

The first research aim sought to identify the information cues that influence managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The theoretical frameworks of work disruption, dependency and institutional informed the hypotheses about the predicted impact of the information cues. That is, the frameworks predicted certain effects of the type of request, performance and gender on managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The hypotheses that relate to this research aim are detailed in the following paragraphs, and depicted in Figure 15.
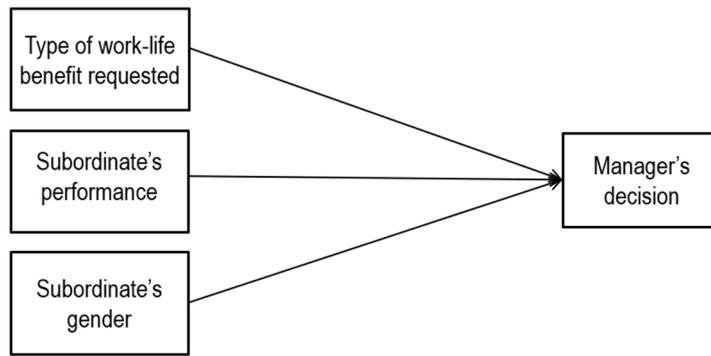
Figure 15. Thesis theoretical model: The influence of type of request, performance and gender on managerial decision making on work-life benefits

Hypothesis 1: Type of request

Based on work disruption theory, managers consider the potential for a requested work-life benefit to disrupt the conduct of work, with requests that are perceived to be more disruptive receiving less favourable decisions (Powell & Mainiero, 1999). Several researchers have acknowledged that work-life policies and programs are not equal in terms of potential for work disruption. As Powell and Mainiero (1999) explained, arrangements that reduce hours, such as part-time work or leaves of absence, entail a reduction in contribution from the employee making the request and necessitate a redistribution of work. Thus, managers would deem these as disruptive. In contrast, arrangements that retain the employee's contribution but introduce a more flexible work schedule may be perceived as less disruptive, such as working from home.

Even when considering a single type of work-life benefit, the way the arrangement is structured influences the potential for work disruption. In their papers, Peters, den Dulk and de Ruijter contrasted regularly working from home with occasionally working from home, arguing and demonstrating that managers are less positive about more structured and fixed arrangements (den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008; Peters & den Dulk, 2003; Peters et al., 2010). If occasional, the manager retains more discretion to apply the arrangement flexibly, resulting in fewer days worked from home overall and consequently less disruption.

Previous research substantiates the assertion that managers are more supportive of work-life benefits that are less disruptive to the conduct of work. Barham et al. (1998) found managers were more likely to approve requests for full-time arrangements – flextime and working from home – than reduced-hours arrangements – part-time, job sharing and an unpaid leave of absence. In line with this finding, Powell and Mainiero (1999) found managers were more likely to approve requests to work from home than requests for 6-months unpaid leave. den Dulk and de Ruijter (2008) found

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managers were more positive about employees' taking a short-term leave the next day to care for a sick child, followed in order by working from home occasionally for a day, reducing to 4 days per week and taking 3-months of full-time parental leave.

Consistent with Powell and Mainiero (1999), the present research compared working from home and taking an unpaid leave of absence. The unpaid leave, however, was presented as an extended career break and was hypothesised to be less disruptive because of the protracted period (2 years). With a career break, the manager would need to reassign the duties undertaken by the employee or backfill the position. Once cover was in place for the role, the conduct of work would proceed. In contrast, working from home is an ongoing arrangement that requires constant consideration and adjustments from the manager and co-workers.

Hypothesis 1: Managers will be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than requests for working from home.

Hypothesis 2: Performance

According to dependency theory, managers consider their dependence on subordinates when evaluating requests for work-life benefits, granting requests from subordinates upon whom they are most dependent (K. J. Klein et al., 2000). High-achieving employees contribute more to the performance of the department and organisation (den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008; Peters et al., 2010). Managers, therefore, depend more heavily on subordinates who are high performers than low or average performers to achieve performance targets. Thus, as argued by K. J. Klein et al. (2000), requests from high performers are more likely to be approved by managers to secure the contribution of these individuals through reinforcing their commitment.

Consistent with this assertion, K. J. Klein et al. (2000) found lawyers reported that their firms would be more likely to approve requests to work part-time from employees who perform proficiently rather than inadequately. In their conceptual models, Peters and den Dulk (2003) and Poelmans and Beham (2008) predicted managers would be more likely to approve requests for work-life benefits from employees who were strong performers.

In line with this premise, qualitative research has found managers consider the goodwill, contribution, productivity and commitment of employees when evaluating requests for work-life policies (Bond et al., 2002; den Dulk et al., 2011; Dex & Scheibl, 2001; Peters et al., 2010; Reeve et al., 2012). This sentiment is exemplified in a quote

from a manager in Peters et al.'s study about allowing teleworking "for people who perform well. People who do not perform well, I forbid to work from home" (p. 525).

Consistent with K. J. Klein et al. (2000), the performance of the subordinate submitting the request was either moderate or high. A poor performer would be unlikely to apply for a work-life benefit and may also be undergoing performance counselling.

Hypothesis 2: Managers will be more likely to approve requests from high performers than requests from average performers.

Hypothesis 3: Subordinate gender

Institutional theory maintains managers consider the institutional environment when evaluating requests from subordinates for work-life benefits, with their decisions being influenced by the norms and expectations about who should utilise work-life benefits. As explicated by K. J. Klein et al. (2000), managers feel obliged to comply with the prevailing norms and sanctions of their environment, especially the expectation that women rather than men should avail themselves of work-life benefits.

In their study, K. J. Klein et al. (2000) explained that there is greater institutional pressure to allow women to work part-time because women are more likely to pursue and utilise part-time arrangements, plus working part-time is assumed to be more appropriate and less damaging to women's career prospects. Social expectations about the roles of men and women dictate that women should be prioritised for assistance and are, therefore, the primary target audience for work-life benefits (T. D. Allen, 2003; Barham et al., 1998; K. J. Klein et al., 2000). Consistent with this argument about normative expectations and gender, women report a stronger sense of entitlement to support for reconciling paid employment and family life (S. Lewis & Smithson, 2001).

Previous research partly substantiates the assertion that managers are more supportive of requests for work-life benefits from women than men. Bond et al. (2002) found men were more likely to report that their requests for flexible working practices were refused. Consistent with this finding, the managers in Nadeem and Hendry's (2003) and den Dulk et al.'s (2011) studies reported that women were more likely to request and receive support to utilise work-life policies.

den Dulk and de Ruijter (2008) found managers expressed more positive attitudes overall toward requests from women. When managers' attitudes toward specific types of requests were examined, however, the situation was more nuanced. den Dulk and de Ruijter, along with Peters et al. (2010), found gender did not affect managers' attitudes for occasionally working at home or part-time work. In contrast,

gender affected managers' attitudes for short-term care leave and parental leave; more positive attitudes were expressed toward requests from women for these two benefits.

When considering other papers, K. J. Klein et al. (2000) found lawyers indicated that their firms would be more likely to approve requests for part-time work from women than men. Beham et al. (2015) found managers were more likely to approve requests for teleworking from women than men. Barham et al. (1998) found requests for reduced-hours arrangements were more likely to be approved for female, than male, managers. Gender, however, did not influence participant's decisions around requests for full-time AWAs from managers, nor requests for any type of AWA from subordinates. Similarly, Powell and Mainiero (1999) found gender did not affect the decisions of managers when evaluating requests.

Hypothesis 3: Managers will be more likely to approve requests from female subordinates than requests from male subordinates.

Motivational and interpersonal orientation hypotheses

The second research aim sought to identify the motivational and interpersonal orientations of managers that influence their use of the information cues and ultimately their decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The theoretical frameworks of work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour informed the hypotheses about the predicted impact of the managers' motivational and interpersonal orientations. That is, the frameworks predicted certain effects of regulatory focus, affective commitment, self-construals, implicit theories and interpersonal trust on managers' use of the three information cues, along with their overall tendency to approve requests for work-life benefits, which is referred to as their approval tendency. The hypotheses that relate to this research aim are detailed in the following paragraphs, and depicted in Figure 16.
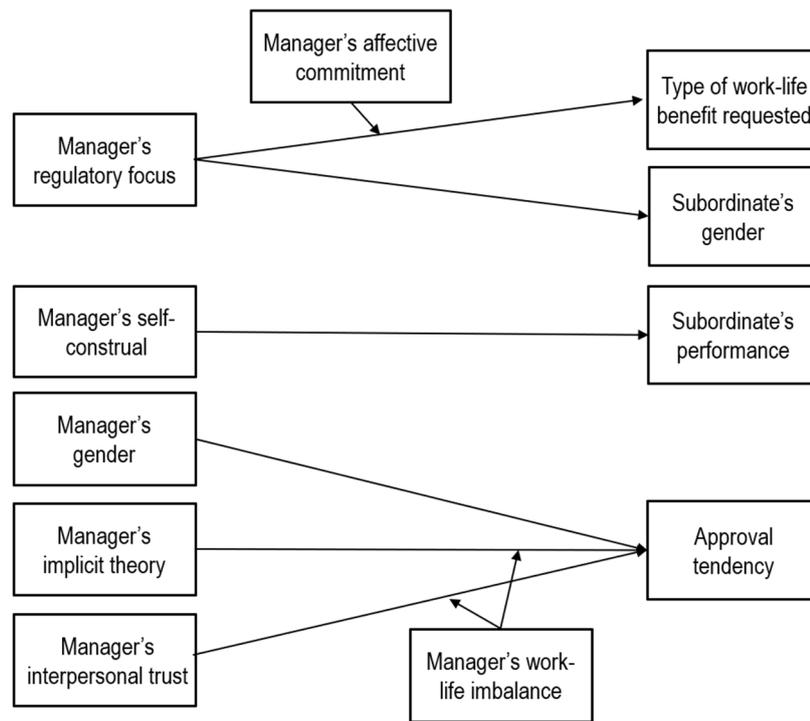
Figure 16. Thesis theoretical model: The influence of the managers' motivational and interpersonal orientations on managerial decision making on work-life benefits

Hypotheses 4 and 5: Type of request and regulatory focus

Work disruption theory posits that managers often adopt a short-term focus – prioritising short-range departmental and organisational goals, such as ensuring the required work is completed and disruption is minimised (den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008). Powell and Mainiero (1999) explained that managers adopt this short-term, limited perspective for decision making because of the extra demands work-life benefits place on them, coupled with the absence of incentives to support these arrangements. Certain managers may be more likely to assume this short-term standpoint and, therefore, be more attuned to the potential for work-life benefits to disrupt the conduct of work.

Prevention focused managers were predicted to be more likely to prioritise immediate needs and thus approve the less disruptive work-life benefit. By pursuing short-range departmental and organisational goals with a vigilant, avoidance strategy, managers with a prevention focus are concentrating on maintaining safety and preventing losses (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Managers with this regulatory orientation are sensitised to uncertainty, ambiguity and unpredictability (Gorman et al., 2012; Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012). In vigilantly seeking security and safety, prevention focused managers were, therefore, predicted to be risk-averse, cautious and conservative in their decision making about requests from subordinates for work-life benefits. Thus, a prevention focus should be negatively associated with openness to work disruption.

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In support of this proposition, research on regulating decision making by Crowe and Higgins (1997) demonstrated that a prevention focus entails a conservative strategy, whereas a promotion focus entails a risky strategy. Participants completed a recognition memory task, which involved memorising nonsense words, completing a filler task and then indicating whether or not the nonsense words previously seen were amongst a new set of nonsense words. Participants with a prevention focus displayed a conservative response bias of answering 'no' and participants with a promotion focus displayed a risky response bias of answering 'yes'. Crowe and Higgins concluded that a promotion focus entails approaching accomplishments, evidenced by recognising as many items as possible. In contrast, a prevention focus entails being precautionary and prudent, evidenced by avoiding mistakes.

Further support for this hypothesis emanates from research that shows individuals with a prevention focus prefer the status quo, whereas individuals with a promotion focus seek change. Liberman, Idson, Camacho, and Higgins (1999) explored the influence of regulatory focus on decisions between stability and change. This relationship was investigated with two choice scenarios: task substitution and endowment. In both situations, an opportunity for change is presented – either changing an existing course of action or changing the object in one's possession – but the decision to change is not driven by dissatisfaction with the original option.

With the task substitution paradigm, Liberman et al. (1999) found prevention focused individuals preferred to continue with an activity following an interruption rather than change to a new activity. Similarly, with the endowment paradigm, prevention focused individuals were more reluctant to exchange an object in one's possession for an alternative than promotion focused individuals. Liberman et al. concluded individuals with a prevention focus favour stability, because the original alternative is a relatively safe and secure choice. In contrast, individuals with a promotion focus are more open to change, because the new alternative offers potential advancement and gain.

When managers adopt a prevention focus, goals represented as duties and obligations are approached in a vigilant and careful manner (Higgins, 1997, 1998, 2012). In vigilantly seeking safety and non-losses, prevention focused managers display a preference for stability and avoid change in the pursuit of protection and security (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Liberman et al., 1999). Thus, risk-averse, cautious and conservative decision making was predicted for prevention focused managers when evaluating requests from subordinates.

Hypothesis 4: Managers who report high prevention focus, as compared to managers who report low prevention focus, will be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than requests for working from home.

When managers adopt a promotion focus, goals represented as hopes and aspirations are approached in an eager and enthusiastic manner (Higgins, 1997, 1998, 2012). In eagerly seeking progress and gains, promotion focused managers display greater openness to change and approach change in the pursuit of advancement (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Liberman et al., 1999). Promotion focused managers were, therefore, predicted to be more accepting of change and risk when reaching decisions about requests from subordinates for work-life benefits. Thus, a promotion focus should be positively associated with openness to work disruption.

Research, however, indicates promotion focused individuals do not always consistently opt for the riskier option. Utilising a stock investment paradigm, Scholer, Zou, Fujita, Stroessner, and Higgins (2010) found that promotion motivation was unrelated to risk-taking in situations involving loss. In a related study, Zou, Scholer, and Higgins (2014) found that promotion motivation was related to risk-taking in situations involving gains only when the option presented the possibility of progress. Thus, promotion focused individuals are equally likely to be risk-seeking and risk-averse when faced with potential losses. When faced with potential gains that may provide significant progress, promotion focused individuals are more likely to be risk-seeking.

Zou and Scholer (2016) sought to explain the variability in risk-seeking preferences demonstrated by promotion focused individuals. These authors examined the influence of regulatory focus on risk preferences across major domains of decision making. Regulatory focus was positioned as influencing individuals' sensitivity and response to the two components of risk preferences: the expected benefit and perceived risk of the situation. The decision domains investigated were health and safety, ethics, recreation, gambling, investment and social.

In line with previous research, Zou and Scholer (2016) found that prevention focus was negatively related with risk-taking across all the decision domains. The risky situations presented to participants involved potential losses and – because a prevention focus is associated with a sensitivity to potential losses – individuals with a prevention orientation consistently behaved in a risk-averse manner. Prevention focused individuals are primarily concerned with avoiding losses and maintaining the security of the status quo (Scholer et al., 2010; Zou & Scholer, 2016).

In contrast, Zou and Scholer (2016) found that promotion focus was positively related with risk-taking only when the perceived gains of the situation outweighed the perceived losses. Thus, individuals with a promotion focus responded to the potential benefits inherent in the presented risky situations and demonstrated risky behaviours when gains and progress were likely. Promotion focused individuals are primarily concerned with achieving gains and advancing from the status quo to a better state (Zou & Scholer, 2016; Zou et al., 2014).

Thus, promotion focused managers may not risk approving the more disruptive arrangement when this decision does not present the opportunity for clear gains or progress. Zou and Scholer (2016) found that promotion focused individuals behaved like prevention focused individuals for ethical decisions. In this decision domain, the perceived losses outweighed the expected gains. There was, therefore, no potential for gains or progress, and promotion focused individuals demonstrated risk aversion.

Promotion focused managers were predicted to be more likely to approve the less disruptive, safer work-life benefit when affective commitment was low. When managers experience low affective commitment, they are more likely to contemplate terminating their employment at the organisation. Low affective commitment tends to coincide with intentions to leave the organisation. Managers in this situation are not as likely to contemplate the future of the organisation, nor demonstrate concern about how the organisation will evolve in the future. Therefore, when reaching decisions about subordinates' requests, greater consideration is given to how these decisions affect the managers' more immediate activities instead of their future aspirations. These managers, hence, manifest the tendencies of someone with a prevention focus – even if they typically exhibit a promotion focus.

> Hypothesis 5: When affective commitment is low, managers who report high promotion focus will be more likely than managers who report low promotion focus to approve requests for career breaks than to approve requests for working from home. In contrast, as affective commitment increases, this tendency of promotion focused managers to approve requests for career breaks rather than requests for working from home will diminish. Specifically, when affective commitment is high, managers who report high promotion focus will be more likely than managers who report low promotion focus to approve requests for working from home than to approve requests for career breaks.

Hypothesis 6: Performance and self-construals

Dependency theory assumes managers often adopt a long-term focus – prioritising longer-range goals, such as retaining employees upon whom they are dependent by responding to their personal and family needs (den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008). Some managers may be more likely to assume this long-term perspective and, therefore, be more attuned to this dependence on employees.

K. J. Klein et al. (2000) found partners were more inclined than associates to emphasise performance in their decision making. These scholars argued dependency, and thus performance, was more salient to partners than associates. Similarly, managers' self-construal may influence the salience of dependency and performance when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. More specifically, managers with an interdependent self-construal may be more accepting of their dependence on, and more attuned to, the performance of subordinates. Interdependent managers were, therefore, predicted to be more likely to approve requests from employees upon whom they are dependent because of their high performance.

Research supports the assertion that the interdependent self is more accepting of connectedness and dependence on other people. Hackman, Ellis, Johnson, and Staley (1999) investigated the relationships between self-construals and leadership style. With a sample of 670 university students from the United States, New Zealand and Kyrgyzstan, two leadership styles were measured: consideration – the degree to which a leader displays concern for the welfare of group members – and initiation of structure – the degree to which leaders initiate activity, coordinate work and stipulate the way work is to be completed. Consideration was positively related to interdependent self-construal, whereas initiation of structure was positively related to independent self-construal and negatively related to interdependent self-construal. Thus, interdependent leaders focused more on the maintenance of the group, whereas independent leaders focused more on the task.

Further support for this hypothesis is provided by Holland, Roeder, van Baaren, Brandt, and Hannover (2004). These authors studied the effect of self-construals on interpersonal closeness, manifested as physical distance between the self and other people. In Studies 1 and 2, university students' self-construals were primed through an activity, prior to being asked to sit in a waiting room where personal belongings indicated the presence of another person. Compared to participants in a control group (Study 1) and participants primed with an interdependent self (Study 2), participants primed with an independent self sat farther away from the anticipated other person.

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In Study 3, Holland et al. (2004) assessed chronic self-construal, prior to participants being randomly assigned to dyads to complete an activity. Dyads with more interdependent self-construals sat closer to each other than dyads with more independent self-construals. Thus, interdependent individuals sought physical interpersonal closeness, whereas independent individuals sought physical interpersonal distance. Hackman et al.'s (1999) and Holland et al.'s findings illustrate how people who adopt an interdependent self-construal attempt to maintain harmonious connectedness with other people (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Interdependent managers are also assumed to be more attuned to the performance of team members. As Markus and Kitayama (1991) explained, "if people conceive of themselves as interdependent parts of larger social wholes, it is important for them to be sensitive to and knowledgeable about the others who are the coparticipants in various relationships" (p. 231). Interdependent managers, therefore, in their quest to maintain connections, should be more informed about their subordinates.

Evidence for this proposition emanates from a study by Ellis and Wittenbaum (2000) on the relationships between self-construals and verbal promotion. University students with extreme scores on independence and interdependence participated in a telephone interview for an award of recognition. Interview responses were content coded to represent the extent of self-promotion – extolling one's own attributes – and others-promotion – extolling significant others' contributions to self-success.

Ellis and Wittenbaum (2000) found that self-promotion was positively associated with an independent self-construal and negatively associated with an interdependent self-construal, whereas others-promotion was positively associated with an interdependent self-construal and negatively associated with an independent self-construal. Thus, the students presented a competent impression by either extolling their own or others' attributes, with this choice being influenced by their self-construal. Interdependent selves acknowledged the efforts and contributions of other people, which indicates these individuals were attuned to the actions and performance of significant others.

Hypothesis 6: Managers who report high interdependence, as compared to managers who report low interdependence, will be more likely to approve requests from high performers than requests from average performers.

Hypothesis 7: Subordinate gender and regulatory focus

Institutional theorists have acknowledged that some managers may be more likely to comply with institutional norms and expectations (Oliver, 1991). Regulatory focus may influence managers' predisposition to comply with the expectation that women rather than men should utilise work-life benefits. In particular, managers who adopt a promotion focus were predicted to be more likely to conform and approve requests from female subordinates.

Support for this hypothesis derives from studies on the influence of regulatory focus on processing styles. More specifically, researchers have demonstrated that promotion focus is associated with a more holistic, global processing style, underpinned by the use of heuristics, whereas prevention focus is associated with a more analytical, detailed processing style. Institutional norms and expectations may act as a heuristic in decision making, therefore guiding promotion focused managers to approve the socially sanctioned requests from women.

R. S. Friedman and Förster (2000, 2001, 2002) undertook a series of experiments in which participants completed creative and analytical problem-solving tasks. Motivational orientation was manipulated by two means: participants either pressed upwards or downwards on a table and participants completed a maze that was construed in either nurturance or security terms. Pressing upwards on a table activates approach motivation and pressing downwards on a table activates avoidance motivation. Thus, non-affective processing cues were used to incidentally manipulate promotion focus (i.e., motivation to approach and attain nurturance) and prevention focus (i.e., motivation to avoid and attain security). Across all the experiments, R. S. Friedman and Förster found that promotion focus was associated with a heuristic, explorative processing strategy, whereas a prevention focus was associated with a systematic, perseverant processing strategy.

Further evidence for the link between regulatory focus and processing styles emanates from research by Pham and Avnet (2009). These authors demonstrated that regulatory orientation influenced people's reliance on affect as a heuristic in judgment and decision making. Labelled the affect heuristic, this evaluation heuristic entails relying on subjective affective responses when reaching decisions rather than cognitive assessments. Across four different judgment contexts – person-impression formation, product evaluations, social recommendations and contingent valuations of public goods – Pham and Avnet found that promotion focused individuals, as compared with prevention focused, were more likely to rely upon the affect heuristic.

Thus, promotion focused individuals assume a heuristic, explorative processing strategy and prevention focused individuals assume a systematic, perseverant processing strategy (R. S. Friedman & Förster, 2000, 2001, 2002; Pham & Avnet, 2009). Promotion focused managers should, therefore, be more inclined to employ institutional norms as a heuristic when reaching decisions.

Hypothesis 7: Managers who report high promotion focus, as compared to managers who report low promotion focus, will be more likely to approve requests from female subordinates than requests from male subordinates.

Hypothesis 8: Approval tendency and managers' gender

Helping behaviour scholars have demonstrated that people vary in their predisposition to display helping behaviour (Latané & Darley, 1970; Piliavin et al., 1981). Thus, characteristics of the manager may influence whether helping behaviour is displayed or not when evaluating requests from subordinates to utilise work-life benefits. The managers' gender may be pertinent, with female managers predicted to be more likely to approve requests than male managers.

Evidence for this assertion derives partly from research that indicates helping behaviour is related to gender roles. As explained by Eagly and colleagues, social role theory asserts that behaviour is regulated by the shared beliefs that are associated with the roles people assume (Eagly, 2009; Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Eagly & Wood, 2012). A person's socially identified sex – female or male – provides one such social role. Thus, gender roles represent the shared beliefs connected with being a woman or a man (Eagly & Crowley, 1986).

Based on a review of the literature, Eagly (2009) concluded that both women and men help other people, but the types of behaviour displayed depends on gender roles. Women tend to display prosocial behaviours that emphasise communal and relational features, including caregiving to children and elderly relatives, sensitive emotional support to spouses and friends and relational support to workplace colleagues and subordinates. In contrast, men tend to display prosocial behaviours that are agentic and collectively oriented, including heroic rescuing in emergencies, interventionist assistance to strangers facing accidents and difficulties, chivalrous help to women and collectivist support that furthers the interests of families, organisations and nations.

Consistent with these propositions about gender roles and helping behaviour, Bowes-Sperry, Veiga, and Yanouzas (1997) demonstrated that female, as compared to male, managers were more likely to display the gender-consistent helping behaviours of

understanding and probing, and less likely to display the masculine-related behaviour of evaluating. In their study, managers indicated how they would respond to employees seeking help with work-related interpersonal problems, with the answers classified according to five managerial helping responses: understanding, probing, supporting, interpreting and evaluating. In a related study, Hopkins (2002) found subordinates were more likely to seek help with personal and family problems from female supervisors than male supervisors.

Thus, when examining the effect of gender on helping behaviour, the situation needs to be considered (Eagly, 2009; Myers, 2010). With the present research, the expression of helping was the approval of a request for a work-life benefit in an existing work relationship. This scenario corresponds more with the female gender role (Straub, 2012); thus, based on gender roles, female managers would be predicted to demonstrate this helping behaviour more than male managers.

Female managers may also be more likely to display the helping behaviour of approving work-life benefit requests because of perceived similarity with the subordinate seeking help. Helping behaviour is related to the similarity between the person seeking help and the person providing help (Piliavin et al., 1981). Despite some changes over time, women continue to assume greater responsibility for domestic work and caregiving than men (Craig & Mullan, 2010). Thus, female managers may appreciate the challenges of balancing work and other commitments.

Furthermore, female managers may be more likely to display the helping behaviour of approving work-life benefit requests because of their own experience with personally needing help and witnessing the provision of help – factors that have also been found to be related to helping behaviour (Latané & Darley, 1970). Female managers are more familiar with the helping scenario of receiving managerial approval because work-life benefits are utilised more by women (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Bond et al., 2002; Kossek et al., 1999; S. J. Lambert, 1998; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003; Sandberg, 1999). Similarly, women are more likely to value work-life benefits (Haar & Spell, 2004; Hill, Jacob, et al., 2008), along with more inclined to express interest in these arrangements (Bond et al., 2002; Butler et al., 2004; Kossek et al., 1999; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003; Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2002).

Previous research supports the prediction that female managers are more inclined to display the helping behaviour of approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Poelmans and Beham (2008) hypothesised that female managers would be more supportive of work-life policies, which was verified by Powell and Mainiero

(1999). Relatedly, Jaoko (2012) found that the subordinates of female, as compared to male, supervisors were more likely to utilise flexible work arrangements (FWAs).

Barham et al. (1998) found female managers were more likely than male managers to grant reduced-hours arrangements. No difference between male and female managers was found for full-time arrangements. Similarly, the managers' gender was unrelated to decisions about requests for teleworking (Beham et al., 2015) and attitudes toward telework requests (Peters et al., 2010). K. J. Klein et al. (2000) found women and men were equally likely to indicate that their firms would approve requests for part-time work.

Casper et al. (2004) found managers' gender was unrelated to referral frequency, but female managers were more supportive of work-family programs and more likely to believe these programs would be instrumental in generating organisational outcomes. Other researchers have similarly demonstrated that gender influences attitudes toward work-life benefits, with women expressing more positive attitudes. For instance, Haar and O'Driscoll (2005) found that women were more positive about the benefits, and expressed more positive attitudes toward users, of work-family practices. Giannikis and Mihail (2011) found that women perceived more benefits and fewer costs arising from the use of FWAs. Conversely, Nadeem and Hendry (2003) found that male managers were negatively biased towards flexible working.

Hypothesis 8: Female managers will be more likely to approve requests than male managers.

Hypothesis 9: Approval tendency and implicit theories

Implicit theories may also influence managers' predisposition to display the helping behaviour of approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. In particular, managers may be more likely to approve requests when an incremental, rather than entity, theory is espoused. Incremental theorists consider human attributes, such as intelligence, to be dynamic properties that can be shaped and cultivated, which positions them to help other people grow and develop (Dweck et al., 1995a).

Research supports the assertion that incremental theorists are more willing to help other people. Chiu, Dweck, Tong, and Fu (1997) investigated the relationship between implicit theories and university students responses to a professor who unfairly altered the grading policy without communicating the change. Entity theorists were more likely than incremental theorists to support punishing the professor. Incremental theorists focused more on changing the professor's immoral behaviour.

Similarly, Gervey, Chiu, Hong, and Dweck (1999) found that, when asked about the functions of imprisonment after reading a summary transcript of a fictitious murder trial, entity theorists were more likely to cite punishment or retribution and incremental theorists were more likely to cite rehabilitation. The studies by Chiu et al. (1997) and Gervey et al. indicate that, in their reactions to wrongdoers, entity theorists advocate punishment and incremental theorists advocate education.

Further evidence for this hypothesis is provided by Heyman and Dweck (1998). These authors investigated the relationship between implicit beliefs and responses to someone facing an academic challenge by presenting scenarios to children. In the first scenario, children were asked about helping a child who commits errors on their schoolwork; incremental theorists provided more detailed learning and task-oriented advice than entity theorists.

In the second scenario, Heyman and Dweck (1998) asked children about teaching a child to count. Compared to entity theorists, incremental theorists were more likely to recommend simply trying to count again when the child made errors. Heyman and Dweck concluded that incremental theorists wanted to foster learning through processes and entity theorists wanted to judge underlying ability based on traits. The children's questions as they approached the situation differed: incremental theorists asked how can I help this person learn and entity theorists asked how smart is this person (Dweck & Elliott, 1983).

In a related study, Karafantis and Levy (2004) demonstrated how implicit theories influence attitudes and behaviour toward groups needing help. The relationship between implicit theories and children's beliefs about disadvantaged people and their willingness to volunteer were investigated across two studies. In Study 1, children with an incremental theory were found to have volunteered more in the past and to express more positive attitudes toward homeless children.

In Study 2, Karafantis and Levy (2004) found children with an incremental theory reported more positive attitudes toward UNICEF-sponsored children, greater active participation and enjoyment with volunteering, more willingness to help in the future and greater likelihood of recommending volunteering to a peer. Karafantis and Levy concluded that incremental theorists volunteer because they believe people can change, and volunteering is a means to foster improvements in the lives of other people. Entity theorists, in contrast, believe the human attributes that underpin life conditions are fixed and thus volunteering is ineffectual.

These studies relied on students as participants, but Heslin, Vandewalle, and Latham (2006) provided evidence that the conclusions are generalisable to managers. These scholars examined the influence of implicit theories on managers' coaching behaviour. Across three studies, incremental managers were more willing to coach employees to improve performance than entity managers. The managers in Study 1 completed an implicit theory measure and six weeks later requested anonymous feedback on their coaching behaviour from their employees. Managers' implicit theory was positively related to employee ratings of the degree to which they were coached. Study 2 employed a different methodology and the observed association persisted.

Heslin et al. (2006) adopted an experimental approach in the final study to examine the causal relationship between implicit theories and coaching behaviour. Prototypical entity theorists were selected from the sample and randomly assigned to either an incremental induction or control condition. Each group underwent a workshop of the same length, format and activities, but with different content. The incremental induction emphasised how people can change and the placebo control emphasised how people possess multiple abilities with strengths and weaknesses. Six weeks after the workshops, participants viewed two videotaped scenarios of a hypothetical employee demonstrating poor negotiation behaviour. Compared to the entity theorists in the control condition, entity theorists who received the incremental induction provided higher quantity and quality performance improvement advice and expressed greater willingness to coach the poor performing employee.

Incremental theorists believe in the potential for growth and change (Dweck et al., 1995b), and are thus more likely to educate and help other people. Nevertheless, the relationship between implicit theories and managers' tendency to display the helping behaviour of approving requests may be moderated by work-life balance. Straub (2012) hypothesised that managers' personal experiences of the work-family interface influence whether family-supportive behaviours are displayed. That is, managers are predicted to be more aware and attached to work-life issues when exposed to positive and negative work-family experiences; these experiences consequently shape their assumed responsibility for behaving in a supportive manner.

Straub's (2012) conjectures, therefore, suggest that, when managers experience work-life imbalance, there is greater motivation to change the situation. Only incremental theorists, who recognise that such change is plausible, will help in these instances. When work-life imbalance is elevated, approval is more likely in individuals who adopt an incremental rather than entity theory.

Hypothesis 9: When managers experience work-life imbalance, those managers who assume an incremental theory will be more likely than those managers who assume an entity theory to approve requests. In contrast, as work-life imbalance reduces, this tendency of incremental theorist managers to approve requests will diminish. Specifically, when managers experience work-life balance, those managers who assume an incremental theory will be less likely than those managers who assume an entity theory to approve requests.

Hypothesis 10: Approval tendency and interpersonal trust

Finally, interpersonal trust may also influence managers' predisposition to display the helping behaviour of approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. In particular, managers may be more likely to approve requests when high, rather than low, levels of interpersonal trust are expressed.

Research supports the assertion that trust is related to helping behaviour. Choi (2006) investigated the relationship between trust and interpersonal helping behaviour in a large-scale, longitudinal data set collected from a Korean electronics company. Trust was measured by assessing participants' perceptions of co-workers on various aspects of interpersonal trust, such as responsibility, integrity, mutual respect and benevolent motivation. Helping behaviour was defined as assisting co-workers. Trust predicted interpersonal helping. Thus, employees were more likely to help their co-workers when the work unit was characterised by high trust amongst members. Choi argued individuals are more open to helping when the social setting is characterised by mutual trust and common goals. Specifically, when trust is established and goals are mutual, individuals feel less vulnerable to potential exploitation by other people.

In line with this premise, Colquitt et al. (2007) found, in their meta-analysis on the effect of trust, trustworthiness and trust propensity on risk taking and job performance, individuals who were more likely to trust other people displayed more citizenship behaviours and less counterproductive behaviours. In addition, individuals with a high trust propensity were more likely to perceive other people as trustworthy. Wells and Kipnis (2001) also found that trust influenced behaviour in their study. Managers were less controlling of, and more reliant on, those employees who were trusted.

Researchers have conjectured that managers consider trust when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Poelmans and Beham (2008) hypothesised that the quality of the supervisor-employee relationship would influence

managerial decisions about requests for work-life policies. In particular, supervisors were predicted to be more likely to approve requests from employees with whom they have developed a high-quality, as compared to low-quality, relationship. Mutual respect, trust and commitment characterise high-quality relationships (Poelmans & Beham, 2008; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). In support of this prediction, Beham et al. (2015) found that requests for teleworking were more likely to be approved when the supervisor-subordinate relationship was high-quality.

Peters and her colleagues discussed the importance of trust with working from home arrangements (Peters & den Dulk, 2003; Peters et al., 2010). Peters and den Dulk explained that, when an employee works from home, managers can no longer directly coordinate, motivate and control the effort of this person. Managers must delegate power to, and trust, home-based teleworkers. In their words, "workers' time-spatial flexibility is likely to increase managers' uncertainty about the work being done correctly, because employees' possibilities of acting in an untrustworthy way have increased" (p. 333). Consistent with this proposition, the managers in Peters et al.'s study reported that trust was considered when evaluating requests to telework.

Further evidence that managers consider trust when evaluating subordinates' requests is provided by Dex and Scheibl (2001). These authors found that, when managers relied on an assessment of an individuals' contribution to the organisation to reach a decision about a request for a FWA, trust and 'give and take' were key themes. In this individual balance sheet model of decision making, employees had to accrue credit by helping the business and being trustworthy before this credit could be utilised over time. Consistent with this argument, Flack (1999) found managers reported that trust in employees was a primary reason for supporting the use of work-life benefits.

Other research underscores the importance of trust in the effective implementation, uptake and operation of work-life benefits. Newman and Mathews (1999) found limited trust between managers and employees acted as an organisational barrier to the implementation of family-friendly workplace policies within federal cabinet-level departments in the United States. Managers expressed concern about employees completing their work without supervision, which partly reflected their tendency to measure time on the job rather than work completed.

S. Lewis and colleagues also found trust impeded the successful implementation of flexible working practices in the accountancy profession in England and Wales (Cooper et al., 2001; S. Lewis et al., 2002). The sentiment was that employees needed to be trusted not to misuse the arrangements, with a strong relationship between the

line manager and employee being a pre-requisite. The potential for employee abuse and the significance of trust was also mentioned by managers in Maxwell et al.'s (2007) study on FWAs in small businesses. As stated by one manager, "flexible working is workable, but you must have strong trust and respect from all parties involved" (p. 154).

Thus, trusting managers are predicted to be more likely to help other people. These managers are more inclined to perceive subordinates as able, benevolent and principled and will, therefore, be more confident that an employee working flexibly will have acquired the skills and abilities required to behave appropriately and developed the character to act in the best interests of the manager and according to sound moral and ethical principles (Colquitt et al., 2007).

Being more inclined to trust other people predisposes managers to approve subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The relationship between interpersonal trust and managers' tendency to approve requests, however, may be moderated by work-life balance. When work-life imbalance is elevated, managers are predicted to be more inclined to help and support subordinates (Straub, 2012).

Hypothesis 10: When managers experience work-life imbalance, those managers who report high interpersonal trust will be more likely than those managers who report low interpersonal trust to approve requests. In contrast, as work-life imbalance reduces, this tendency of high trust managers to approve requests will diminish. Specifically, when managers experience work-life balance, those managers who report high interpersonal trust will be less likely than those managers who report low interpersonal trust to approve requests.

Summary

In this chapter, the research question, aims and hypotheses have been outlined. The hypotheses document the information cues that are predicted to influence managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The hypotheses also document the motivational and interpersonal orientations of managers that are assumed to influence their use of these information cues and ultimately their decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. In the following chapter, the method used to test these hypotheses is presented.

Chapter 7: Method

In the previous chapter, the research question, aims and hypotheses were explicated. This chapter describes the method employed to test these hypotheses, with details presented on the managers that participated in the study, the measures for the control and predictor variables, the design of the judgment analysis study, the procedure used to gather data and the analysis undertaken on the collected data.

Participants

Participants were 50 male and 71 female managers who reported a minimum experience of one year managing other people. The managers were recruited using a snowball sampling technique. The initial sample comprised managers known to the researchers who were then used to generate additional contacts. This technique can introduce bias, reducing the likelihood that the sample will comprise a broad representation of the population.

Participants ranged in age from 28 to 62, with a mean age of 43.70 years (SD = 8.93). Participants were generally married (65%), with the remainder never married (21%), separated (3%), divorced (9%) or widowed (3%). The majority of participants were parents (72%), with 17% having one child, 37% having two children and 18% having three or more children. The number of children ranged from 0 to 7, with the mean number of children equal to 1.62 (SD = 1.46).

Participants were relatively well educated; 33% had acquired a bachelor degree, 13% a graduate diploma or graduate certificate and 40% a postgraduate degree. The remainder had either acquired a secondary education (5%) or advanced diploma, diploma or certificate (9%). Participants ranged in management experience from 1 to 35 years, with the mean years of experience equal to 13.74 years (SD = 8.80). Most participants were in either middle management (39%) or upper middle management (36%), with the remainder at executive level (12%) and chief executive level (13%).

Participant's tenure in their current organisation ranged from 1 to 35 years, with the mean tenure equal to 8.71 years (SD = 7.56). Participants tended to work between 40 to 50 hours per week (44%), with the remainder working between 1 – 34 hours (12%), 34 – 40 hours (15%), 50 – 60 hours (21%), 60 – 70 hours (7%) or 70+ hours (1%). Participants mostly worked for large organisations with a workforce of over 1000 employees (40%), compared to organisations with 200 to 1000 employees (25%) and organisations with 20 – 199 (30%). A small number of participants worked for organisations with fewer than 19 employees (6%). The participants worked across a range of industries, as outlined in Table 3.

Table 3
Participants' Industry

Industry	Number	Percentage
Accommodation and Food Services	2	2%
Administrative and Support Services	0	0%
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0	0%
Arts and Recreation Services	0	0%
Construction	1	1%
Education and Training	15	12%
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	4	3%
Financial and Insurance Services	17	14%
Health Care and Social Assistance	15	12%
Information Media and Telecommunications	4	3%
Manufacturing	6	5%
Mining	1	1%
Other Services	21	17%
Prof, Scientific and Technical Services	19	16%
Public Administration and Safety	8	7%
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	0	0%
Retail Trade	1	1%
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	5	4%
Wholesale Trade	2	2%

Measures: Demographic and organisational variables

The survey included several demographic and employment-related questions. The selection and incorporation of these variables was guided by Casper et al. (2007), who advocated to include such variables to enable a critique of the representativeness of the sample and the generalisability of the findings.

The following demographic variables were measured: gender, age, registered marital status, number of children and highest level of educational attainment. Age was measured in years. Registered marital status was measured by five categories: never married, married, separated, divorced or widowed. Education was measured by five categories: postgraduate degree, graduate diploma and graduate certificate, bachelor degree, advanced diploma, diploma or certificate and secondary education.

Two dichotomous variables were created from registered marital status and number of children: marital status (married, unmarried) and parental status (parent, non-parent). Rothausen (1999) found that, conceptually and empirically, marital status reflects role in the family and potential for support in caring for dependents, whereas number of children reflects size of family and responsibility for dependents. Although these measures implicitly define family as spouse and children, which is rather narrow

given the ever-increasing complexity and diversity of families, marital status and parental status are commonly used measures of family structure and responsibility and thus appropriate for the present research.

The following employment-related variables were measured: years managing other people, tenure with current organisation, current job level, average hours worked per week, number of employees in the current organisation and industry of the current organisation. The categories for job level were Chief (Chief Executive Officer, Chief Operating Officer, Chief Financial Officer), Executive (Vice President, Director, Board Level), Upper Middle (Department Head, Superintendent, Plant Manager), and Middle (Team Leader, Senior Professional Staff, Supervisor). The options for average weekly hours were 1-34, 34-40, 40-50, 50-60, 60-70 and 70+. The categories for number of employees were 0-19, 20-199, 200-1000 and 1000+. The industry of organisation was based on the Australian and New Zealand Standard industrial classification framework (Australian Bureau of Statistics and Statistics New Zealand, 2006).

Measures: Control and predictor variables

Measures were chosen to assess the control and predictor variables. A key consideration was ensuring the survey was parsimonious, partly to bolster response rates. This objective was particularly pertinent for the present research because obtaining adequate response rates with senior managers can be difficult (Abbott & De Cieri, 2008; Priem et al., 2011; E. R. Thompson & Phua, 2005).

The scales demonstrated adequate reliability, except for social desirability, prevention focus and interdependence. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the social desirability scale was .39; thus, too low to be included in subsequent analyses. For the prevention focus and interdependence scales, an item was removed to improve the coefficient. The levels demonstrated in the current study were comparable with previous research and are reported for the scales. The factor structure of each scale was examined with principal axis factoring. The scree plots, which are included in Appendix D, supported one factor for each scale. The measures are reviewed in this section.

Work-life imbalance

Work-life balance was measured with a 5-item scale developed by Brett and Stroh (2003). Participants rated the frequency with which five feelings were experienced on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = from time to time, 4 = often and 5 = very often. The items were averaged, with higher scores reflecting work-life imbalance and lower scores reflecting work-life balance. As such, this variable is referred to as work-life imbalance.

Items included "Feeling that your job negatively affects your psychological well-being", "Feeling that your job negatively affects your physical health", "Feeling tension about balancing all your responsibilities", "Feeling that you should change something about your work in order to balance all your responsibilities" and "Feeling that your personal commitments interfere with your job". As a global measure, the scale captures elements of interference between work and personal responsibilities, along with perceived success in achieving balance.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .76, which is comparable to the .79 reported by Brett and Stroh (2003). Ellwart and Konradt (2011) reported a coefficient alpha of .85 with a sample of 698 employed adults and Seong (2016) reported a coefficient alpha of .83 with a sample of 765 employees from a manufacturing company.

Social desirability

Social desirability was measured with a shortened 6-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (M-C SDS), adapted from Crowne and Marlowe (1960). Participants indicated whether statements concerning personal attitudes and traits were either true or false as they pertained to them personally. The items were added together, with higher scores reflecting greater socially desirable responding.

Wiggins (1968) clarified that social desirability can be considered as both a property of items and as an individual difference variable. The first conceptualisation relates to items and scales differing in the desirability of their responses. The second conceptualisation reflects a disposition to respond in a socially desirable manner. That is, individuals differ in their responsiveness to the social desirability characteristics of items (McCrae & Costa, 1983). Thus, individuals' high on social desirability will score artificially high on socially desirable traits, such as conscientiousness, whereas individuals low on social desirability will be more accurate in their presentation.

Social desirability as an individual difference variable reflects a response style, which Wiggins (1968) defined as "organized dispositions within the individual to respond in a consistent manner across a variety of substantive domains" (p. 303). A response style is evident when responses to items are not based on the item content (Paulhus, 1991). With socially desirable responding, the responses present overly positive, rather than accurate, self-descriptions (Paulhus, 2002). Controlling for socially desirable responding would be advantageous in the present research because senior managers assume a fiduciary obligation to present their organisations – and potentially themselves – in a favourable light (E. R. Thompson & Phua, 2005).

The M-C SDS is a commonly employed measure of social desirability (Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992; Paulhus, 1991). Crowne and Marlowe (1960) developed the M-C SDS to be independent of psychopathology. The authors focused rather on behaviours that are culturally sanctioned and approved, but enacted infrequently. Personality inventories were consulted to establish an initial set of 50 items, which were subsequently rated by judges as either socially desirable or not. Judges also rated the extent of maladjustment indicated by socially undesirable responses to ensure minimal pathological or abnormal content. Based on the judges' ratings and item analysis, 33 items were retained, with 18 items keyed as true for socially desirable and 15 items keyed as false for socially undesirable. With a sample of university students, the internal consistency coefficient was .88 and test-retest correlation .89 over a 1-month interval.

Consistent with Crowne and Marlowe (1960), other researchers have reported internal consistency reliabilities in the range of .71 to .86 (Fraboni & Cooper, 1989; Holden & Fekken, 1989; Nordholm, 1974; O'Grady, 1988; Tanaka-Matsumi & Kameoka, 1986; Wilkerson, Nagao, & Martin, 2002). Crino, Svoboda, Rubenfeld, and White (1983) found the test-retest reliability was .86 over a 1-month period.

Crino et al. (1983) also examined the correlation between the negatively and positively keyed items. The correlation, corrected for the different proportions of each set of items, was .87; the tendencies to declare positive behaviours and deny negative behaviours are thus equivalent. Greenwald and Clausen (1970) reported a comparable correlation of .84. C. E. Lambert, Arbuckle, and Holden (2016) demonstrated that the M-C SDS effectively detects participants who are faking in their self-report. Finally, Tanaka-Matsumi and Kameoka (1986) reported low correlations between the M-C SDS and several measures of depression and anxiety. The M-C SDS is, therefore, independent of pathology-relevant content, as intended by Crowne and Marlowe (1960).

Researchers have investigated the sensitivity of the M-C SDS, with evidence indicating that some items are not sufficiently sensitive to discriminate between high and low scorers. For instance, Goldfried (1964) subjected the responses of 100 students to item analysis and found that only 17 and 15 of the 33 items discriminated for men and women, respectively. Eight items discriminated across genders. Ballard, Crino, and Rubenfeld (1988) found that five items discriminated between high and low scorers.

Crino, Rubenfeld, and Willoughby (1985) similarly explored the sensitivity of the M-C SDS items. The authors used the randomised response technique, which entails participants using a random device – in this instance a dice – to determine their response to items. As the researcher does not know the outcome of the random device,

participants are expected to answer more honestly. Nine items were found to be sensitive-socially desirable, five were sensitive-socially undesirable and 19 were non-sensitive or neutral. Of the sensitive items, only one (item 3) demonstrated a response pattern in the opposite direction to Crowne and Marlowe (1960).

In line with Crino et al. (1985), other researchers have documented inconsistencies in the direction of the keying for the M-C SDS items. Goldfried (1964) instructed 68 students to rate the M-C SDS items in terms of perceived social desirability, indicating whether the personal attributes and traits were considered socially desirable or undesirable in society. Ratings were consistent with the original keying for 25 items for men and 27 items for women. Across genders, 23 items were rated in the scored direction and four items were rated as neutral.

In a related study, Ballard et al. (1988) instructed participants to rate the M-C SDS items according to perceived social desirability. Twenty items were rated consistently, with 4 of these keyed in the opposite direction as documented by Crowne and Marlowe (1960). There was no consensus in ratings for the remaining 13 items. In a further study, participants were instructed to rate the desirability of the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = very undesirable to 5 = very desirable. Twenty-six items keyed in the original direction, three keyed in the opposite direction and four keyed as neutral. Synthesising the findings from Crino et al. (1985) and Ballard et al. generates nine items that are consistently rated as either desirable or undesirable.

The dimensionality of the M-C SDS has also been investigated. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses have indicated that multiple factors appear to be represented by the scale (Barger, 2002; Crino et al., 1983; Holden & Fekken, 1989; Leite & Beretvas, 2005; Loo & Thorpe, 2000; Ramanaiah, Schill, & Leung, 1977; Ventimiglia & MacDonald, 2012). Other research, however, has supported a unidimensional model (Ramanaiah & Martin, 1980; Seol, 2007).

Several short forms of the M-C SDS have been developed. In particular, Strahan and Gerbasi (1972), Reynolds (1982) and Ballard (1992) proposed scales derived from principal components analyses. Amongst these three studies, nine items are common and another four items are identified in two of the studies. Ballard proposed a composite scale comprising these 13 items.

Researchers have conducted confirmatory factor analyses on the full and short versions of the M-C SDS, with evidence indicating the short versions fit the data better than the full M-C SDS (Barger, 2002; Fischer & Fick, 1993; Leite & Beretvas, 2005; Loo & Loewen, 2004; Loo & Thorpe, 2000). Beretvas, Meyers, and Leite (2002) conducted a

reliability generalisation study on the M-C SDS using scores on the various versions with differing populations. The predicted internal consistency reliability coefficient, across forms and samples, was .73.

For the present research, six items from the M-C SDS were chosen based on their ability to discriminate between high and low scorers and their consistency in keying. A short version was deemed more appropriate for managers to complete, especially because some items of the scale have been deemed "trite, convoluted or simply irrelevant to senior managers" (E. R. Thompson & Phua, 2005, p. 543). Items included "I always try to practice what I preach", "I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget", "I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable", "I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoings", "I never resent being asked to return a favour" and "I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings".

As indicated, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .39. A potential explanation for the low alpha is that, once an individual concedes they are socially undesirable on the first item, other items may be answered more accurately, because the individual has already established themselves as socially undesirable (cf. Monin & Miller, 2001).

Other researchers have similarly found low reliabilities with non-student samples. For instance, O'Gorman (1974) reported reliability coefficients ranging from .16 to .46 for the full version and short forms of the M-C SDS with a sample of army recruits. Ray (1984) reported a reliability coefficient of .60 for a 6-item version of the M-C SDS with a random sample of adults. Finally, with a sample of 380 senior managers, E. R. Thompson and Phua (2005) reported a reliability coefficient of .51 for a 10-item version. These authors concluded their article by stating that the M-C SDS is disaffecting to business respondents, as evidenced by participants in their study verbalising concerns about the superficiality and relevance of the scale items.

Regulatory focus

Promotion focus and prevention focus were measured with a shortened 9-item version of the General Regulatory Focus Measure (GRFM), adapted from Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002). Participants indicated the extent to which they endorse items relevant to both promotion goals and prevention goals on a 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = not at all true of me to 9 = very true of me. The items for each subscale were averaged, with higher scores reflecting stronger promotion goal strength and stronger prevention goal strength.

In constructing the items for the GRFM, Lockwood et al. (2002) intended to directly assess the theoretical constructs of promotion focus and prevention focus. The scale includes 18 items, nine for each regulatory orientation. The items were created for an academic context, and thus four items reference academic performance and achievement. With a sample of 704 university students, Lockwood et al. found the subscales were reliable (promotion α = .81, prevention α = .75) and modestly positively correlated. Lockwood, Chasteen, and Wong (2005) found comparable reliabilities (promotion α = .88, prevention α = .83) amongst a sample of adults.

The reliability of the GRFM has been documented by other researchers. In a sample of supervisors, Brebels, De Cremer, Van Dijke, and Van Hiel (2011) reported reliabilities of .78 for promotion focus and .80 for prevention focus. Haws, Dholakia, and Bearden (2010) found reliabilities that ranged from .78 to .85 for promotion focus and .77 to .85 for prevention focus. The test-retest reliabilities were .67 for the promotion scale and .62 for the prevention scale over a 5-week interval. Haws et al. demonstrated support for the two-factor model with exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses.

Alternate means for assessing regulatory focus as a chronic individual difference variable were considered for the present research. In a recent meta-analysis, Gorman et al. (2012) identified 14 self-report explicit measures of regulatory focus. The GRFM and the Regulatory Focus Questionnaire (RFQ, Higgins et al., 2001) are the most common measures (Gorman et al., 2012; Summerville & Roese, 2008). These scales differ in theoretical coverage, development, content and applications (Haws et al., 2010; Summerville & Roese, 2008).

Higgins and colleagues (2001) constructed the RFQ to measure subjective histories of success or failure in promotion and prevention self-regulation. Participants are asked how often specific events have occurred in their life. Six items measure promotion pride, for example "Compared to most people, are you typically unable to get what you want out of life?", and five items measure prevention pride, for example "Not being careful enough has gotten me into trouble at times".

Regulatory focus can also be measured implicitly through response latencies. The latency with which a participant responds to questions about a self-guide reflects the chronic accessibility or strength of that schema. To complete the idiographic measure of regulatory focus developed by Higgins, Shah, and Friedman (1997), participants are instructed to list attributes describing their ideal and ought selves. The ideal and ought attributes are rated by participants on the extent to which they ideally want to possess that attribute (ideal-self extent rating) and the extent to which they

ought to possess that attribute (ought-self extent rating), respectively. The extent to which they actually possess the attribute is also rated (actual-self extent rating). Regulatory focus strength is calculated based on the response times for the ratings.

For the present research, the GRFM was employed, partly because evidence indicates that the GRFM is more reliable than the RFQ. In their meta-analysis, Gorman et al. (2012) found that the mean internal consistency estimates for promotion focus were .82 for the GRFM and .70 for the RFQ. For prevention focus, the mean internal consistency estimates were .82 for the GRFM and .80 for the RFQ.

Furthermore, the GRFM was more relevant because, as clarified by Summerville and Roese (2008), the GRFM emphasises goals represented as gains and losses, whereas the RFQ emphasises ideal and ought self-guides. The hypotheses were derived from the notion that people with a prevention focus orient their attention more to the losses and complications, rather than benefits and merits, of change. Consequently, a scale that underscores this attention to losses or gains was more applicable.

A subset of items from the GRFM was selected for the research. The omitted items either pertained specifically to academic goals (e.g., "My major goal in school right now is to achieve my academic ambitions") or were confounded with temporal orientation. Two items were re-worded by replacing academic with work (e.g., "I often think about how I will achieve academic / work success") (cf. Lockwood et al., 2005).

Five items were included for promotion focus, which were "I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future", "I often think about how I will achieve work success", "In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life", "I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me" and "Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure". For prevention focus, four items were included, which were "In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life", "I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations", "I often worry that I will fail to accomplish my work goals" and "I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains". The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .69 for promotion focus and .76 for prevention focus.

Affective commitment

Affective commitment was measured with a revised 6-item version of the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), proposed by Meyer et al. (1993). Participants responded to the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The items were averaged, with higher scores reflecting stronger affective commitment.

The organisational commitment measure developed by N. J. Allen and Meyer (1990; see also Meyer & Allen, 1984) consists of 24 items, with eight items corresponding to each of the three facets of commitment: affective, continuance and normative. Items are rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Amongst a sample of 256 employees, N. J. Allen and Meyer (1990) reported the following reliabilities: .87 for the ACS, .75 for the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) and .79 for the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS). Principal components factor analysis supported the three-factor model.

Consistent with N. J. Allen and Meyer (1990), other researchers have reported internal consistency reliabilities for the ACS in the range of .74 to .87 (Cohen, 1996; Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994). Furthermore, confirmatory factor analyses have verified that the ACS and CCS load on two factors (Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990), and the ACS, CCS and NCS load on three factors (Cohen, 1996; Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 1993).

N. J. Allen and Meyer (1996) evaluated construct validity with a narrative review of research using the organisational commitment measure. The review included over 40 samples, incorporating more than 16,000 employees from a range of organisations and occupations. Reliability, factor structures and patterns of correlations between the commitment scales and other variables were examined. The authors concluded that the scales are reliable, differ from each other and relate to antecedent and consequence variables as hypothesised. Meyer, Stanley, et al. (2012) also uncovered, in a recent meta-analysis, evidence for the cross-cultural validity of the measure.

For the present research, a revised version of the ACS was utilised. Meyer et al. (1993) amended the scales by eliminating and rewriting items. For brevity, the two ACS items with the weakest loadings in the confirmatory factor analyses reported by Meyer et al. (1990) were removed. Meyer et al. (1993) found the internal consistency reliability for the shortened version was .82 for the ACS amongst a sample of nurses.

Items included "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation", "I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own", "I do not feel like 'part of the family' at this organisation", "I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation", "This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me" and "I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation". A 5-point Likert scale was applied, rather than a 7-point scale, to maintain consistency in the agree-disagree rating scales across the survey. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .88.

Self-construals

The strength of the managers' independent and interdependent self-construals were measured with the 24-item Self-Construal Scale (SCS), developed by Singelis (1994). Participants responded to the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The items for each subscale were averaged, with higher scores reflecting a stronger self-construal.

Singelis (1994) created the SCS to measure the feelings, thoughts and behaviours that reflect independent and interdependent self-construals. Based on items from related measures and newly written items, 45 items were collated that focused on the individual's self-construal and captured behaviours in the sphere of a normal student's experience. A multiethnic sample of 364 students rated their agreement with the items on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Based on principal components factor analysis, 24 items were retained, 12 for each factor. A two-factor solution was imposed *a priori* by Singelis, consistent with the theoretical framework. Confirmatory factor analysis also supported the two-factor model.

The SCS demonstrated acceptable reliability in Singelis' (1994) sample; Cronbach's alpha for the independent and interdependent subscales were .69 and .73, respectively. Consistent with Singelis, other researchers have reported internal consistency reliabilities in the ranges of .69 to .76 for independence and .67 to .75 for interdependence (Grace & Cramer, 2003; Hardin, 2006; Hardin, Leong, & Bhagwat, 2004).

Evidence to support the validity of the SCS was also provided by Singelis (1994). Construct validity was demonstrated by showing that Caucasian Americans were more independent and less interdependent than Asian Americans, which concurs with Markus and Kitayama's (1991) postulations. Predictive validity was demonstrated by showing that individuals with higher interdependence scores were more likely to attribute events to situational influences than individuals with lower interdependence scores.

Alternate approaches for measuring self-construals were considered. There are two main options: free descriptions of the self and Likert-style attitude scales (Harb & Smith, 2008; Markus & Kitayama, 2010). The Twenty Statements Test by Kuhn and McPartland (1954) exemplifies the free descriptions method. Participants write twenty answers to the question "Who am I?", with responses content analysed to uncover independent and interdependent themes. In contrast, self-construal attitude scales capture the core elements of independent and interdependent selves with specific

items. Singelis (1994) and Gudykunst et al. (1996) have constructed scales. The SCS is the more common measure (Bresnahan et al., 2005; Hardin et al., 2004).

For the present study, the items and rating scale for the SCS were adjusted slightly. In particular, four items were altered to ensure the scale was applicable to employees in a work context, rather than students in an educational or home setting. For example, the original item "Speaking up during a class is not a problem for me" was replaced with "Speaking up during a meeting is not a problem for me". A 5-point Likert scale was applied, rather than a 7-point scale, to maintain consistency in the agree-disagree rating scales across the survey.

Sample items for the independent scale were "My personal identity independent of others, is very important to me", "Having a lively imagination is important to me" and "I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards". Sample items for the interdependent scale were "It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group", "I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in" and "I should take into consideration my managers' advice when making education or career plans". The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .68 for independence and .64 for interdependence.

Implicit theories

The managers' implicit theory about the malleability of human attributes were measured with the 3-item implicit person theory measure, developed by Dweck and colleagues (for scale details, see Dweck et al., 1995a). Participants responded to the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The items were averaged, with higher scores reflecting a stronger entity theory.

Given implicit theories can refer to a range of human attributes and attributes external to the self, measures have been created to reflect these varied conceptualisations. Dweck et al. (1995a) documented four such measures, pertaining to intelligence, morality, people and the world. The scales utilise the same scoring approach and format. In particular, a 6-point Likert scale is applied, where 1 = strongly agree and 6 = strongly disagree, and an overall implicit theory score is derived by averaging the item scores. The format of the scales is presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Implicit Theory Measures

Measure	Items
Implicit theory of intelligence	1. You have a certain amount of intelligence and you really can't do much to change it.
	2. Your intelligence is something about you that you can't change very much.
	3. You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic intelligence.
Implicit theory of morality	1. A person's moral character is something very basic about them and it can't be changed very much.
	2. Whether a person is responsible and sincere or not is deeply ingrained in their personality. It cannot be changed very much.
	3. There is not much that can be done to change a person's moral traits (e.g., conscientiousness, uprightness and honesty).
Implicit person theory	1. The kind of person someone is, is something basic about them and it can't be changed very much.
	2. People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed.
	3. Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much that they can do to really change that.
Implicit theory of the world	1. Though we can change some phenomena, it is unlikely that we can alter the core dispositions of our world.
	2. Our world has its basic or ingrained dispositions, and you really can't do much to change them.
	3. Some societal trends may dominate for a while, but the fundamental nature of our world is something that cannot be changed much.

When a specific domain is being investigated, such as intelligence, domain-specific implicit theories are relevant for predicting judgment and behaviour (Dweck et al., 1993). When judgments and behaviour invoke a range of attributes, which was the case in the present research, a more domain-general measure of implicit theories is appropriate (Dweck et al., 1995a). The focus of the current study was also judgments of other people, as opposed to judgments of self. As such, the implicit person theory was the construct utilised. This measure reflects the domain-general belief about people as a whole or the kind of person someone is (Dweck et al., 1995a).

As evident in Table 4, the implicit theory measures all contain three items, with similar wording within and across them. Dweck et al. (1995a) explained that only three items are included because implicit theory is a simple construct with a unitary theme; rephrasing the same concept repeatedly may confuse and bore respondents. Furthermore, the three items reflect only an entity theory. Disagreement with the entity items, therefore, is assumed to reflect agreement with an incremental theory. The rationale for this approach is that incremental items were found to be highly persuasive. As detailed by Dweck et al. (1995a), participants who endorsed entity items often also

endorsed the opposite incremental items when both theories were presented in pilot studies. The finding that incremental items are socially desirable has been reported by other researchers (e.g., Heyman & Dweck, 1998).

As further support for only including entity items, Dweck and colleagues demonstrated that, when asked to explain their responses, participants who disagreed with entity statements provided incremental reasons (Dweck et al., 1995a). Thus, participants who disagree with the entity items appear to espouse an incremental theory, as opposed to simply rejecting the entity theory (Dweck et al., 1995b).

Dweck et al. (1995a) also considered whether agreement with the entity statements reflects an acquiescence set. The implicit person theory measure was regressed on the intelligence, morality and world theory measures. As expected, implicit person theory was related to intelligence theory and morality theory but not the world theory. Given the implicit person theory measures beliefs about a person as a whole, the intelligence and morality theories are conceptually related. The non-significant correlation between implicit person theory and implicit world view indicates an acquiescence set was not pronounced. Respondents differentiated between the statements and did not simply agree with all the items regardless of the content. This position has been supported by other researchers who have shown entity theorists are no more likely to display a general tendency to agree than incremental theorists (Chiu, Dweck, Tong, & Fu, 1997; Chiu, Hong, et al., 1997; Heyman & Dweck, 1998).

Dweck et al. (1995a) presented evidence for the reliability and validity of the implicit person theory measure. Across four studies, internal reliability ranged from .90 to .96. The test-retest reliability over a 2-week interval was .82. The implicit person theory measure was unrelated to the gender and age of respondents, and was also not confounded with self-presentation tendencies, such as self-monitoring or social desirability. The measure was not related to cognitive ability, confidence in intellectual ability, confidence in other people and the world, self-esteem or social-political attitudes, thus establishing discriminant validity.

Evidence regarding the psychometric properties of the implicit person theory measure has been documented by other researchers. Reliabilities have been reported in the range of .73 to .93 (Chiu, Hong, et al., 1997; Levy, Stroessner, & Dweck, 1998). Furthermore, Levy et al. found the implicit person theory measure was unrelated to social desirability, verifying Dweck et al.'s (1995a) finding. Heslin et al. (2006) demonstrated that the measure was unrelated to gender, age or managerial experience.

Dweck and her associates positioned implicit theories as relatively stable personal attributes, which was supported by test-retest reliabilities in the 80s (Dweck et al., 1995a). Robins and Pals (2002) provided further evidence for temporal stability by analysing normative stability during the transition from high school to university and the consistency of individual differences. A 5-item implicit theory of intelligence measure was administered to high school seniors and university students in their second, third and fourth years. As predicted, no significant differences were found in the means across the samples, and the correlations between scores across the three time periods were high. The authors concluded that attending university does not produce normative mean-level change in implicit self-theories, and individuals' levels of implicit theories remain relatively constant over time; thus, implicit theories are stable constructs.

For the present research, the rating scale of the implicit person theory measure was adjusted. The original version utilised a 6-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly agree and 6 = strongly disagree. To maintain consistency in the agree-disagree rating scales across the survey, a 5-point scale was applied and the end points reversed so that 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. Therefore, high scores reflect a stronger entity theory, rather than a stronger incremental theory. The items are presented in Table 4. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .87.

Interpersonal trust

Trust was measured with a shortened 12-item version of Rotter's (1967) Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS), proposed by Chun and Campbell (1974). Participants responded to the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The items were added together, with higher scores reflecting stronger interpersonal trust.

Rotter (1967) created the ITS to measure individual differences in the generalised expectancy for interpersonal trust. The experimental form of the scale comprised 28 items, consisting of two types: specific items in which participants expressed their trust toward social objects and general items that examined participants' broad optimism about society. The items were constructed to be balanced; half reflected trust for agreeing and half reflected distrust for agreeing. The scale was completed by 547 university students on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = strongly agree, 2 = mildly agree, 3 = agree and disagree equally, 4 = mildly disagree and 5 = strongly disagree. The M-C SDS and a personal information questionnaire were also completed.

Rotter (1967) retained items when three criteria were satisfied: (i) a significant correlation with the total of the other trust items when that item was removed, (ii) a

relatively low correlation with the social desirability score, and (iii) a relatively equal distribution of responses across the Likert categories. By eliminating items with high correlations with social desirability, Rotter diminished the influence of need for social approval (Wrightsman, 1991). The final version of the scale comprised 25 items, plus 15 filler items designed to conceal the nature of the scale.

The social agents referenced are classes of significant others, such as teachers, students, judges and politicians (Rotter, 1971). These social objects were selected to ensure the ITS gauges trust toward a generalised other – that is, someone with whom the individual has not interacted with frequently (Rotter, 1980). A high score, therefore, represents trust for a wide range of social agents (Rotter, 1967). Consequently, Rotter refers to the ITS as an additive test that samples a range of situations of more or less equivalent strength, as compared to a power test that samples a limited range of situations of varying strength, such as an achievement test (Rotter, 1971).

Rotter (1967) reported an internal consistency based on split-half reliability, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, of .76. Test-retest reliabilities for two alternate samples were .56 over seven months and .68 over three months. Rotter (1967) found no significant relationships between ITS scores and gender, age, family size, time at university or general ability. Religious students were more trusting than non-religious students, and students with religious differences between their parents were less trusting than students who did not report a difference between their parents. In addition, students reporting a higher socio-economic status were more trusting, although this finding was not replicated by Sawyer, Pasewark, Davis, and Fitzgerald (1973) with their sample of 959 high school students.

Rotter (1967) applied a sociometric technique to test the validity of the ITS against observations of daily behaviour. A sample of 156 university students completed the ITS and a self-rating of trust, along with sociometric measures of trust, dependency, gullibility, trustworthiness, humour, popularity and friendship. The sociometric measures required participants to nominate members of their group who were the highest and lowest on these characteristics. Evidence of construct validity was provided by significant positive correlations between the ITS and sociometric trust and sociometric trustworthiness. Trusting people were perceived by other students as trustable and more truthful. The ITS was also positively correlated with the self-rating of trust; trusting people perceived themselves as more trusting. Evidence of discriminant validity was provided by non-significant correlations between the ITS and the M-C SDS, sociometric humour, sociometric gullibility and sociometric friendship.

The ITS has been used in numerous studies, with the scale consistently demonstrating acceptable psychometric properties. Internal reliabilities in the range of .64 to .80 have been reported (Gurtman, 1992; Hunt, Kohn, & Mallozzi, 1983; Sabatelli, Buck, & Dreyer, 1983). With a sample of university students, Kumar, Rehill, Treadwell, and Lambert (1986) reported a test-retest reliability of .76 over a 1-week interval.

Cash, Stack, and Luna (1975) examined the validity of the ITS, hypothesising that a convergent relationship would exist between interpersonal trust and overt trusting behaviour and a divergent relationship would exist between interpersonal trust and self-disclosure. To measure overt trusting behaviour, Cash et al. recorded the time before a participant commenced and completed a backward fall into the hands of a prepared assistant. Trust was expressed in this behavioural task because the student had to believe what they had been told: that the assistant would catch them and protect them from harm. As expected, high trusters exhibited shorter latencies compared with low trusters and interpersonal trust was unrelated to self-disclosure, thus providing evidence for convergent-behavioural and discriminant validity.

Rotenberg (1990) provided evidence for the validity of the ITS with an adult sample, supporting the generalisation of Rotter (1967) and Cash et al.'s (1975) findings with students. Rotenberg simplified and adapted the ITS to measure trust beliefs of elderly individuals. A 20-item version was completed by 40 elderly individuals, along with sociometric nominations of peers on the attributes of humour, trust and popularity. As expected, the trust scale score was significantly correlated with the sociometric ratings of trust, but not with the sociometric ratings of humour or popularity. Rotenberg concluded that the ITS measures interpersonal trust, as distinct from other attributes.

The effectiveness of the filler items at concealing the nature of the ITS has been questioned by researchers. Kumar, Lebo, and Gallagher (1991) asked 246 university students to identify the trait measured by the ITS with and without the filler items. Most participants were unable to accurately detect the trait measured, regardless of condition, thus suggesting the filler items were unnecessary for masking the intent of the scale. Excluding the filler items has been shown not to compromise the reliability or validity of the scale (Kumar et al., 1986). The filler items were excluded in the present research because these two studies indicate they can be omitted without any detriment.

Researchers have also examined the efficiency of the ITS, with evidence of redundant and ineffective items. At a symposium on trust, Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis proposed a modified and shortened version of the ITS (for the conference paper, see Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2016). The coefficient alpha for the 8-item scale was

.71 and confirmatory factor analysis supported the hypothesised factor structure. This version was used by Mayer and Davis (1999) in their study on the impact of a new performance appraisal system on trust for management at a manufacturing firm. The coefficient alphas were .55 for time 1 and .66 for time 2 with a sample of production employees and supervisors.

Chun and Campbell (1974) proposed a 12-item version of the ITS, which retained the factor structure and generated a coefficient alpha of .69 in a sample of 187 university students. In a study of trust between individuals who bridge organisational boundaries, Currall and Judge (1995) reported coefficient alphas of .80 for the school district superintendents and .74 for the local teachers' unions presidents.

Other self-report trust measures were considered for the present research, including Mac Donald, Kessel, and Fuller's (1972) 10-item Self-report Trust Scale and the trust subscales in personality inventories, such as the NEO Personality Inventory. The ITS was selected to measure interpersonal trust because Rotter's work presents both the theoretical and operational definition of interpersonal trust (Wrightsman, 1991).

The 12-item short form of the ITS proposed by Chun and Campbell (1974) was employed in the current research. A shorter version was preferred over the full ITS and the psychometric properties of Chun and Campbell's version were better than the version developed by Schoorman et al. (2016). As with the implicit person theory measure, the rating scale was reversed so that 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. Sample items from the ITS are "In dealing with strangers one is better off to be cautious until they have provided evidence that they are trustworthy", "It is safe to believe that in spite of what people say, most people are primarily interested in their own welfare", and "In these competitive times one has to be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you". The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .74.

Judgment analysis design

Judgment analysis is a straightforward research methodology but important details warrant attention to ensure findings are interpretable and informative (Connolly & Ordóñez, 2003; Connolly et al., 2012). As expressed by Carroll and Johnson (1990), "any research method can be used well or poorly, intensively or casually, creatively or by rote, and applied in different ways to different research situations" (p. 116). This section addresses the study design and experimental design. The summary draws on articles and books published on the method of judgment analysis, along with studies of managerial decision making on work-life benefits that employed judgment analysis.

Study design

The topics for consideration in study design fall under three categories: the nature of the method, the scope of the research and representativeness. As explained by Aiman-Smith et al. (2002), a representative design requires researchers to provide "an appropriate sample of respondents with scenarios and decision options that those respondents will perceive as being realistic representations of actual decision situations" (p. 395). The factors, therefore, that need to be aligned to the natural judgment environment include the cues to be investigated and the distributional and correlational characteristics of those cues, the presentation of the judgment task, the judgment to be captured and the judges to complete the judgment task. The selection of the cues was covered in Chapter 5. The remaining topics are addressed in this subsection.

Study design is critical because it determines the statistical and practical validity and utility of all that follows when conducting research (Cooksey, 1996; Hammond et al., 1975; Stewart, 1988). As Allport (1937) stated, "if the argument is sound, statistics can do no more than symbolize the fact; if the argument is unsound, statistical elaboration can never make it sound and may even increase the confusion" (p. viii).

Determining the nature of the method

There are two types of methodologies that can be utilised in judgment analysis: nomothetic and idiographic. Nomothetic and idiographic methods are conceptually different and shape later decisions around data collection, data analysis and results interpretation (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002). The nature of the method for the present research is discussed in the following paragraphs.

The nomothetic method seeks to identify generalised truths (Allport, 1937). This approach is premised on the assumption that all judges are replicates of one another (Hammond et al., 1980). By way of example, Cable and Judge (1994) examined a nomothetic research question in their study on the pay preferences of job seekers: What are job seekers general preferences for certain types of pay systems? With the nomothetic method, data analysis commences by aggregating across judges (Hammond et al., 1980).

In contrast, the idiographic method seeks to understand a particular event (Allport, 1937). This approach assumes that important and reliable individual differences are present between judges (Hammond et al., 1980). Cable and Judge (1994) also examined an idiographic research question: Are different types of job seekers attracted to certain types of pay systems? With the idiographic method, data analysis commences by aggregating across responses (Hammond et al., 1980).

Hammond et al. (1980) explicated the advantages and disadvantages of the methods. Nomothetic research affords the advantages of statistical power and simple analytical procedures, but the disadvantage of being misleading if individual differences between judges are present. In contrast, idiographic research confers the advantage of individual analysis, but the disadvantage of complex analytical procedures. Idiographic research can be used to understand individual preferences, uncover significant differences in the policies of individuals within or between particular groups and identify discernible clusters of individuals with different policy types (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002).

Allport (1937) advocated considering idiographic and nomothetic as overlapping methods that complement each other. Consistent with this proposition, the present research adopts both approaches. More specifically, the first research aim reflects a nomothetic question: Which information cues influence managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits? A nomothetic approach was employed to examine general principles about managerial decision making on work-life benefits. The second research aim reflects an idiographic question: Which motivational and interpersonal orientations influence managers' use of these information cues and ultimately their decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits? An idiographic approach was employed to examine individual differences in managerial decision making on work-life benefits.

The nature of the research method determines the manner in which data is collected and analysed, along with the way the results are interpreted (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002). The present research used both methodologies, nomothetic and idiographic.

Selecting the study scope

As noted in Chapter 5, judgment analysis can be applied to study human judgment in four contexts, which have been denoted the single-system, double-system, triple-system and n-system (Hammond et al., 1980; Hammond et al., 1975). The scope of judgment examined in the present research is detailed in the following paragraphs.

The four systems described previously determine the scope of the research design (Cooksey, 1996). As explained, the single-system considers the judge, the double-system considers the judge and the task environment, the triple-system considers two judges and the task environment, and the n-system considers more than two judges (Hammond et al., 1980; Hammond et al., 1975).

The choice between the study scopes is governed by the intent of the research, the availability of an ecological criterion and whether feedback will be provided (Cooksey, 1996). The primary intent of the current study was to examine managers' use

of information when reaching decisions about work-life benefit requests. Furthermore, there is no right or wrong answer in this decision task (Hammond et al., 1980), thus an ecological criterion is unavailable and irrelevant (Cooksey, 1996). Deciding to approve or deny the request are equally valid responses. Finally, the managers were not provided with feedback. The study scope is, therefore, single-system.

The scope of behaviour examined by judgment analysis can vary across research endeavours. For the present research, the focus was the decision making displayed by individual managers, thus representing a single-system research design.

<u>Defining the values and distributions of the cues</u>

Following the selection of the cues to be included in the research, the potential values for each cue need to be defined, along with the distributional characteristics of those cues. To ensure a representative design, the formal statistical properties of the judgment task presented to participants, along with the format of the information, need to correspond with the task in the natural judgment environment (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). The values and distributions of the information cues for the present research are detailed in the following paragraphs.

When considering the format of the information, the levels of the cues can be expressed either abstractly or concretely. Abstract representations entail using measurement units that are not normally encountered in the environment, such as a low to high scale for a general ability test, whereas concrete representations entail using measurement units that are normally encountered in the environment, such as the actual score on a general ability test (Cooksey, 1996).

The format of the information presented to judges needs to resemble the form in which the information is encountered in the natural judgment environment (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). Thus, the principle of representative design decrees that concrete representations should be used whenever possible (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Stewart, 1988). As A. Brehmer and Brehmer explained, abstract representations eliminate the perceptual process of coding the cues and remove the need to extract cue information from the profile.

When considering the formal statistical properties, the principle of representative design requires that the distributions of the cues be preserved in the judgment task presented to the judges (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Hammond et al., 1980; Stewart, 1988). The distributions of the cues covers the mean and standard deviation of each cue, the range of possible cue values, the shape of the cue value distribution and the relative frequency of each cue value across the profiles (Cooksey, 1996).

For the range of possible cue values, Aiman-Smith et al. (2002) recommended that the difference between levels should be similar across the cues to mitigate against some cues having narrow ranges and other cues having wider ranges. Variability in cue ranges has been shown to influence responses to judgment tasks (Highhouse, Luong, & Sarkar-Barney, 1999). In addition, the number of levels should be consistent across the cues (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010; Karren & Barringer, 2002).

The present research sought to understand whether managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits were influenced by the type of work-life benefit requested, along with the performance and gender of the employee making the request. Thus, three information cues were selected: type of request, performance and gender. Gender was a dichotomous cue. Two levels were similarly used for type of request and performance to ensure consistency in the number of levels for the cues.

Furthermore, categorical responses were used for the information cues. Gender was reflected by the employee's name (male or female) and by personal pronouns (he or she). Consistent with Powell and Mainiero (1999), the type of request was either working from home or an unpaid leave. In line with K. J. Klein et al. (2000), performance was either moderate or high. These levels were deemed appropriate and realistic because a subordinate with poor performance would be unlikely to apply for a work-life benefit. The manipulations are listed in Table 5.

Table 5
Information Cues with Cue Values

Information cue	Conditions	Manipulation
Type of work-life benefit	Working from home	Work from home for 2 days per week
	Unpaid level	Take unpaid leave for up to 2-years
Performance	Moderate	She/he has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical of her/his work but others are quite impressed.
	High	She/he has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed with her/his work.
Gender	Male	He
	Female	She

Representative design dictates that the format of the information presented to participants, along with the formal statistical properties of the judgment task, correspond to the natural judgment environment (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). Three information cues were included in the present research, each with two levels.

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<u>Defining the correlations between the cues</u>

Representative design also considers the correlational relationships between the cues. This formal statistical property of the judgment task presented to managers is examined in the following paragraphs.

As with the distributions of the cues, the intercorrelations among the cues should match associations in the natural judgment environment (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Hammond et al., 1980; Stewart, 1988). If the intercorrelations are not representative, cases might vary from instances typically encountered by the judges (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988).

When considering type of request, performance and gender, the cues may not be independent of each other. Given employees' perceive that requests from high-performers are more likely to be approved (K. J. Klein et al., 2000), requests may be more likely to be submitted by high, than moderate, performers. Furthermore, women and men are equally likely to work from home (Flack, 1999; McNamara et al., 2012; Peters et al., 2004), whereas gender influences the utilisation of some leave arrangements (Kossek et al., 1999; Sandberg, 1999). Thus, women and men may not apply equally for different types of work-life benefits. These studies suggest performance and gender are related to the type of work-life benefits that are approved by managers. They do not, however, address whether performance and gender are related to requests submitted, and this relationship can only be speculated upon.

Finally, research has found that male employees tend to receive lower performance appraisal ratings than female employees (Furnham & Stringfield, 2001). Thus, men may be more likely to be rated moderate performers than high performers. Managers are unlikely, however, to perceive moderate and high performers of both genders as inconceivable or even uncommon.

The associations between the cues presented in the judgment task need to correspond with the relationships between cues encountered by the judges in the natural judgment environment. The intercorrelations between type of request, performance and gender are unknown. These cues may be correlated in the natural judgment environment. However, no combination of the cues would create unrealistic or atypical vignettes for managers to evaluate.

<u>Presenting the judgment task</u>

The manner in which the cue information is presented to judges is an important consideration when designing judgment analysis research. This subsection details the decisions reached about the depiction of the judgment task for the current research.

Cooksey (1996) explained that the judgment task needs to be presented in a way that ensures the cues are interpreted unambiguously and appropriately. Factors to consider were noted by Cooksey, including the cognitive capacity and experience of the judges, the use of decomposed versus whole judgmental stimuli and the order in which the cues are presented from case to case.

As indicated, the judgmental stimuli can be presented in different formats. With decomposed or schematic stimuli, judges are presented with more abstract profiles whereby the information has been distilled into the values on the cues (Cooksey, 1996; Hammond et al., 1980). For the present research, this approach would entail presenting the managers with a list of subordinates categorised according to their gender, performance and the type of work-life benefit requested. Alternatively, judges can be presented with whole, non-decomposed objects, such as photographs, video-recordings or written scenarios (Cooksey, 1996; Hammond et al., 1980). This approach would entail presenting the managers with descriptions of the subordinates based on the relevant variables.

The advantage of whole judgmental stimuli is that the judgment task more closely resembles the decisions faced by judges in everyday situations, thus achieving a more representative design (Cooksey, 1996). The managers in the present study, therefore, were presented with whole judgmental stimuli in the form of written vignettes about the subordinates. When creating written profiles, the content needs to be easily readable and contain enough detail to be realistic and engaging but not so much detail that the reader is fatigued or bored by the task (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002). Also, any ambiguity needs to be removed to ensure the judgment task is entirely judgmental, rather than perceptual, in nature (Hammond et al., 1975).

The operationalisation of the judgment task for the current research is illustrated with the following two examples. The order of the information within each vignette was random to control for possible order effects. The order in which the vignettes were presented was also random.

> Alison has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical of her work but others are quite impressed. She has submitted a request to work from home for 2 days per week.
> Toby has submitted a request to take unpaid leave for up to 2-years. He has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed with his work.

By utilising written scenarios, the managers in the research were presented with the relevant information about the subordinates in a format that more closely resembles the way in which these decisions would be reached within organisations.

<u>Defining the judgment</u>

The judgment to be reached must be clearly described and comprehended by the participants and an appropriate means for recording the judgment selected (Hammond et al., 1975; Stewart, 1988). This subsection considers how the judgment was defined and obtained in the present research.

In judgment analysis research, the judgment measure constitutes the criterion variable. The response modes can be either numerical, graphical or categorical (Cooksey, 1996; Stewart, 1988). Given the requirement of representative design, the most appropriate judgment measure will employ the same units of measurement and format that participants would employ in the natural judgment environment (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Cooksey, 1996).

Prior research on managerial decision making on work-life benefits has used a range of judgment measures. Barham et al. (1998) simply measured the decision as either grant or deny. Powell and Mainiero (1999) used two measures: favourability towards request (9-point Likert scale) and a grant / deny decision. These two measures were endorsed by Peters and den Dulk (2003) in their theoretical paper. Powell and Mainiero found the measures were highly correlated; hence, the two measures were standardised and incorporated into a single scale.

Beham et al. (2015) measured the likelihood of approving the request on a 4-point Likert scale. Finally, Poelmans and Beham (2008) proposed a "favourability of the supervisor's allowance decision" measure, which was conceptualised as a continuum anchored at one end by complete approval – the most favourable outcome for the employee – and at the other end by rejection – the least favourable outcome for the employee. Between the end-points were hybrid forms of allowance decisions, such as a supervisor partially approving a request or granting the request on a temporary basis.

In the present research, participants were asked to read the vignettes and reach a decision about the request being made by the employee. The decision was to approve or deny the request. For affirmative responses, managers were also asked to indicate when the arrangement would be reviewed to ascertain level of comfort, similar to Powell and Mainiero's (1999) favourability rating. Thus, managers were asked to indicate their decision on a 4-point rating scale where 1 = No, 2 = Yes, review in 3 months, 3 = Yes, review in 9 months and 4 = Yes, review in 12 months or longer.

Defining the judgment to be reached and selecting a measure to capture that decision are important considerations when designing a judgment analysis study (Hammond et al., 1975; Stewart, 1988). In this instance, a 4-point judgment measure captured managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

Selecting the judges

The final matter when designing a judgment analysis study is the judges. This subsection considers the judges targeted to complete the decision-making task of approving or denying subordinates' requests to utilise work-life benefits.

The principle of representative design requires participants in a judgment analysis study to have the same level of familiarity and experience with the judgment task as individuals in the wider population to which the researcher seeks to generalise the results (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002). The judges, therefore, need to have knowledge of the domain of judgment being investigated and possess experience in reaching similar judgments (Cooksey, 1996). If the participants are unfamiliar or inexperienced with the judgments required, there cannot be a policy to capture and the focus shifts to the formation of a policy (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). By targeting knowledgeable and experienced participants, the research examines how the judges use information, rather than how the judges learn to use information (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971).

Given this study is on managerial decision making, managers were targeted to complete the survey. Furthermore, only managers with a minimum experience of one year managing other people were included in the sample to ensure the participants were adequately familiar and experienced with the responsibilities of management. The decision makers, therefore, resembled the decision makers who typically reach these decisions in the natural environment, which facilitates generalisation of the results.

Thus, the study design for judgment analysis research considers the nature of the research methodology, the scope of the research and issues of representativeness. The content of the judgment task and purpose of the analysis predominantly shape the study design (Hammond et al., 1975; Stewart, 1988). Aspects of the experimental design are covered in the next subsection.

Experimental design

The experimental design of a judgment analysis study ensures the statistical estimation of parameters of judgment is possible and the procedure is not too prolonged (Stewart, 1988). Researchers need to be attuned to several considerations when constructing a judgment analysis experiment, including the number of vignettes, the

orthogonality of the design, the number of judges, the reliability of the judgments and the cross-validation of the findings. These topics are addressed in this subsection.

Selecting the number of vignettes

Determining the number of vignettes that will be evaluated by the judges is an important decision point when designing a judgment analysis experiment, with this decision requiring trade-offs. This subsection examines the decision reached about the number of vignettes for the present research.

When deciding on the number of vignettes, researchers are required to balance statistical power and respondent fatigue (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Karren & Barringer, 2002). Thus, as explained by Stewart (1988), statistical requirements to generate stable estimates determine the lower limit and the number of judgments that can be completed by a judge in a reasonable timeframe determines the upper limit. Too few vignettes may produce unstable, ambiguous results (Stewart, 1988). Too many vignettes can require considerable time and concentration for respondents and could potentially undermine data quality, lower response rates and evoke stress (Graham & Cable, 2001). A means to address this predicament is asking respondents to judge a subset of the full factorial set, but this approach presents challenges for data analysis and results interpretation (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010; Graham & Cable, 2001).

Several factors inform the decision about the number of vignettes, including the number of cues, the function forms to be investigated, the anticipated fit of the model to the judgments and the intercorrelations among the cues (Cooksey, 1996; Stewart, 1988). The first consideration is the number of cues. To generate stable statistical estimates and results that can be generalised, Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006) recommended a minimum ratio of 5 observations to 1 predictor variable. That equates to five vignettes for each cue. The implication of this recommendation is that adding cues increases the number of vignettes required (Stewart, 1988). The number of levels for each cue also affects the number of vignettes required. The effect is the same: the number of vignettes increases exponentially as the number of levels for each cue rises (Graham & Cable, 2001).

The number of vignettes is also influenced by whether the researcher intends to explore nonlinear function forms. In particular, the number of cues increases when nonlinear function forms are investigated, thus augmenting the number of vignettes required (Cooksey, 1996; Stewart, 1988). The anticipated statistical fit of the model also affects the number of vignettes. Multiple correlations in judgment research tend to range from .7 to .9 (Stewart, 1988). If the task is complex, unpredictable or unfamiliar such

that levels of consistency below .7 are predicted, the number of vignettes should be increased to ensure stable estimates are produced (Cooksey, 1996). The final factor is cue intercorrelations. If the cues are correlated, the stability of the estimates can be reduced, thus requiring more vignettes to counteract the instability (Stewart, 1988).

For the present research, nonlinear function forms were not being examined, the fit of the model to the judgments was anticipated to be good and cue intercorrelations were set to zero. Thus, the starting position for the number of vignettes was the number of cues. The number of vignettes required to meet the minimum ratio of 5 observations to 1 predictor variable would be 15 (15 vignettes: 3 cues).

The design decision about the number of vignettes to include in a judgment analysis experiment is influenced by a multitude of factors. The following subsection examines further the correlations among the cues, which explains why the managers in this study evaluated 16 vignettes.

Selecting an orthogonal vs. non-orthogonal design

When constructing a judgment analysis experiment, an orthogonal design can be adopted whereby all cue intercorrelations are assumed to be zero; that is, the cues are independent of each other (Stewart, 1988). In contrast, with a non-orthogonal design the cues are correlated. This subsection explains the orthogonal design of this research.

The advantage of an orthogonal design is that uncorrelated cues generate the most stable and unambiguous statistical estimates (Carroll & Johnson, 1990; Cooksey, 1996; Priem & Harrison, 1994; Stewart, 1988). There are, however, limitations with an orthogonal design. Arranging the cues orthogonally disrupts their intersubstitutability, which is incongruent with vicarious functioning (Hammond, 1955). Orthogonal cues can produce implausible cases, which can distort the policy captured (Connolly & Ordóñez, 2003; Connolly et al., 2012). Furthermore, the number of vignettes can increase considerably if additional cues or levels of cues are added to the research.

For the present research, an orthogonal design was selected to enable stable and unambiguous statistical estimates to be generated. An orthogonal design was achieved by creating factorial combinations of the cues (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). That is, all values of each cue were matched with the values of the other cues. Completely crossing the cues generates eight vignettes (2^3), as shown in Table 6. However, as explained, the minimum acceptable number of vignettes based on the 5:1 ratio is 15. The eight vignettes were, therefore, duplicated in terms of the information presented to generate 16 vignettes for the managers to evaluate. All combinations of the three cues are plausible.

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Table 6

Fully Crossing the Information Cues

Vignette	Type of work-life benefit	Performance	Gender
1	Working from home	High	Female
2	Working from home	High	Male
3	Working from home	Moderate	Female
4	Working from home	Moderate	Male
5	Unpaid leave	High	Female
6	Unpaid leave	High	Male
7	Unpaid leave	Moderate	Female
8	Unpaid leave	Moderate	Male

Previous studies of managerial decision making on work-life benefits vary in the number of vignettes included. Some have presented only a few vignettes to the decision makers, such as the studies by Barham et al. (1998) and Beham et al. (2015) that included one and four, respectively. At the other end of the spectrum, Powell and Mainiero (1999) included 50 and K. J. Klein et al. (2000) included 64. The number of vignettes for the present research seems acceptable, thus negating the need for participants to evaluate a subset of the full factorial set.

An orthogonal design was implemented for the present research with all cue intercorrelations set at zero. Thus, the final decision about the number of vignettes was informed by the number of cues, along with the orthogonality of the design.

Selecting the number of judges

Another consideration when designing a judgment analysis experiment is the number of judges that will be required to complete the decision-making task to produce stable and unambiguous statistical estimates. This subsection considers this topic.

In a judgment analysis study, the nature of the method determines the number of judges required. With idiographic research, the number of vignettes per judge is more relevant than the number of judges (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Cooksey, 1996; Hammond et al., 1980). In theory, an idiographic study could employ only one participant. The sample size, however, is relevant if other types of analysis are to be performed, such as cluster analysis (Karren & Barringer, 2002).

With nomothetic research, a larger number of judges is required to bolster statistical power (Cooksey, 1996; Hammond et al., 1980). Hair et al. (2006) recommended a sample size of 100 to maintain power at .80 for moderate effects. Thus, given this research examined idiographic and nomothetic research questions, plus cluster analysis was undertaken, a sample size of greater than 100 was sought.

The minimum number of judges necessary to generate stable and unambiguous statistical estimates needs consideration when constructing a judgment analysis experiment. The nature of the method and proposed data analysis shape this decision.

Assessing the reliability and cross-validating the findings

Several writers on judgment analysis have recommended assessing the reliability of the judgments and cross-validating the judgment model (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Carroll & Johnson, 1990; Cooksey, 1996; Doherty, 2007; Graham & Cable, 2001; Karren & Barringer, 2002; Priem et al., 2011; Stewart, 1988). These two options are explored in the paragraphs to follow.

By assessing judgment reliability, researchers gain insight into the consistency in decision making displayed by the judges (Cooksey, 1996; Hammond et al., 1975; Priem et al., 2011). Replicated vignettes are included in the judgment task and a correlation between the vignettes that are repeated is calculated to provide an estimate of test-retest reliability (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Stewart, 1988). A correlation below unity indicates inconsistency in judgments, which may be ascribed to changes in policies over time, mistakes in applying the policies or an inability to express true policies because of task format (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988).

By cross-validating the judgment model, researchers gain insight into the adequacy of the derived model (Carroll & Johnson, 1990). As explained by Cooksey (1996), cross-validation is a "process whereby a statistical equation such as a multiple regression model is used to make predictions in a new sample of cases to verify the robustness of the equation under non-optimal conditions" (p. 130). Cross-validation is especially pertinent when the captured policy of a judge will be employed to reach judgments about new cue profiles (Cooksey, 1996).

When constructing a judgment analysis experiment, a decision needs to be reached about whether the reliability of the judgments will be assessed and the judgment model cross-validated because additional vignettes may need to be included in the experiment for these purposes (Cooksey, 1996). For the present research, judgment reliability was assessed, but the findings remain to be cross-validated. Each vignette had a duplicate in terms of the information presented. A test-retest reliability coefficient was, therefore, calculated by correlating the responses to the matched vignettes and then averaging across the eight correlations.

Thus, the experimental design for judgment analysis research considers the requirements to generate stable and unambiguous statistical estimates and the

cognitive load placed on judges when completing the judgment task (Cooksey, 1996; Stewart, 1988). The next section examines the execution of a judgment analysis study.

Procedure

When executing a judgment analysis study, consideration needs to be given to the procedures and instructions to ensure the judgments captured are valid (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Cooksey, 1996). This section explains the procedure for data collection and the instructions provided to participants.

The procedure for collecting the data entailed emailing managers information about the study, including that the research was designed to investigate the factors that influence managers' decisions about work-life benefits and participation involved completing an online survey of approximately 30 – 40 minutes. The managers were also informed that all aspects of the study, including the results, would be strictly confidential. If the managers consented to participate, a link was activated that granted them access to the online survey, which was subsequently completed. Three weeks after the initial email, the managers were contacted again to encourage the non-completers to undertake the research and to thank the completers. The explanatory statement for the research, email invitation to managers and survey are contained in the appendices.

The instructions provided to participants addressed the context in which their judgments were being sought. A comprehensive list of information that may be included in context statements for judgment analysis research has been detailed (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Cooksey, 1996; Stewart, 1988). The contextual background information communicated may include: (a) the purpose for the judgments, (b) the circumstances prior to making the judgments, (c) whether the cases are real or simulated, (d) what type of objects, people or events the judge can assume generated the cue profiles, (e) the reliability and validity of cue information, (f) whether or not the judge is meant to assume the position of decision maker and (g) any psychometric instructions.

The context for judgment needs to be adequately described to ensure the participants comprehend the nature of the judgment task and any assumptions underlying the vignettes (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Stewart, 1988). In effect, by establishing the background context for judgment, particular cues are fixed at the same level across all the vignettes and any ambiguity from the task is removed (Stewart, 1988).

Previous research on managerial decision making on work-life benefits has detailed the judgment context. For example, Powell and Mainiero (1999) informed participants that each hypothetical subordinate had been working for the manager and

organisation for three years, had demonstrated strong academic and work experience and had met performance requirements. K. J. Klein et al. (2000) asked participants to assume that the hypothetical lawyers had commenced their career with the firm, their organisational tenure was 5.5 years and that the work-life benefit request was to work 30 hours per week for 2 years.

Background information was included in the instructions for the present research to guide the managers through the decision task. The managers were instructed that the vignettes were hypothetical and described employees in their team who reported directly to them and had been working with the organisation for two to three years. Thus, tenure with the organisation and reporting relationship were fixed across vignettes. This extraneous information provided a context for the decision and controlled any assumptions that the managers might form about the employees.

Thus, executing a judgment analysis study requires consideration of the procedures and instructions to ensure validly-captured judgment policies are obtained (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Cooksey, 1996). The judges need to understand the context for their judgments and be presented with easily interpretable and actionable vignettes. The following section details the analysis of the data collected from the managers.

Data analysis

The final step when implementing a judgment analysis study is analysing the data collected from the judges. This section details the approach adopted for analysing the judgments of the managers. Consideration is given to the generation of nomothetic and idiographic regression models, the control variables included in the analysis, the method for analysing moderator effects and the means for conducting cluster analysis.

Multiple regression analysis

Data analysis for judgment analysis entails employing multiple regression and analysis of variance to examine information utilisation (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). Multiple regression analysis is a common data analytic approach for judgment analysis (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Dalal et al., 2010; Doherty, 2007), and was thus selected as the technique for the present research.

Multiple regression analysis is a multivariate statistical technique that explores the relationship between a criterion variable and a set of predictor variables (Hair et al., 2006). For judgment analysis, the criterion variable is the decision, which is captured by the judgment measure, and the predictor variables are the information cues. The intent of the analysis is to describe the relations between the cues and a judgment with a

mathematical model (Hoffman, 1960). The assumptions of multiple regression are discussed in this subsection, along with the options for assessing relative importance.

Assumptions of multiple regression

When conducting multiple regression analysis, four assumptions are made about the nature of the data being analysed (Cooksey, 1996). The assumptions relate to normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of residuals. These assumptions are explained in the following paragraphs.

For judgment analysis, the assumption of normality relates to the distribution of the judgments. That is, judgments are normally distributed across the potential judgments that could be reached by a judge (Cooksey, 1996). The assumption of linearity relates to the relationship between each cue and the judgment. A linear model predicts values that fall in a straight line whereby a constant unit change in the criterion variable equates to a constant unit change in the predictor variable (Hair et al., 2006).

The assumption of homoscedasticity relates to the variability of the judgments over the values of a cue (Cooksey, 1996). Homoscedasticity is established when the variance is relatively constant across this range (Hair et al., 2006). The assumption of independence of residuals relates to the relationship between judgments. Multiple regression analysis assumes successive judgments are not predicted by previous judgments (Cooksey, 1996).

As explained by Cooksey (1996), the assumptions of homoscedasticity and independence of residuals are more likely to be violated in judgment analysis research than the assumptions of normality and linearity. Judgments tend to be normally distributed, with more responses at the mid-range of the judgment scale than at the extremes of the judgment scale (Cooksey, 1996). Thus, the assumption of normality will tend to be satisfied for well-designed judgment analysis studies with a sufficiently large sample of profiles (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002).

In contrast, as documented by Cooksey (1996), heteroscedasticity may be present in the data because judgment scales can create differential variability in judgments across the rating scale points. For example, more extreme profiles (i.e., all cue values are high or all cue values are low) tend to generate the same judgment, whereas mixed profiles generate a range of judgments. Furthermore, nonindependence of residuals may be present in the data because the same judge generates all the judgments and, therefore, successive judgments are potentially linked.

If the assumptions of multiple regression are not fulfilled, the beta coefficients might be biased (Hair et al., 2006). However, as clarified by Cooksey (1996), multiple

regression analysis is relatively robust against mild to moderate violation of assumptions. Researchers are advised to ascertain whether the data are consistent with the assumptions of multiple regression (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Cooksey, 1996).

Multiple regression analysis entails four assumptions: the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of residuals. These assumptions were evaluated before the regression equations were generated.

<u>Relative importance</u>

The concept of relative importance is fundamental to judgment analysis (Stewart, 1988). Researchers seek to understand the salience or importance of information for the decision maker (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). There are various means to summarise the contribution of each cue to the judgment process (Cooksey, 1996). These measures include cue-judgment correlations, regression coefficients, standardised regression coefficients and squared semi-partial correlations. These alternate measures are detailed in the following paragraphs.

Cue-judgment correlations or validity coefficients measure relative importance based on the bivariate correlations between each cue and the judgment (Cooksey, 1996; Stewart, 1988). Regression coefficients measure relative importance based on the regression analysis. The magnitude of a regression coefficient, however, depends on both relative importance and the measurement scales employed for the judgments and the specific cue (Carroll & Johnson, 1990; Cooksey, 1996). Thus, if the cues and judgments are measured in different units, comparison between regression coefficients is misleading (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Cooksey, 1996; Stewart, 1988).

Standardised regression coefficients remove measurement scale effects by converting all variables into a standard unit scale based on standard deviations (Carroll & Johnson, 1990). Standardised regression coefficients control variation in other variables, thus providing an estimate of the direct impact of each cue on the judgment (Stewart, 1988). Squared semi-partial correlations measure relative importance based on the proportion of variance in the judgment that can be uniquely explained by a particular cue (Cooksey, 1996).

Cooksey (1996) explained that the choice between measures of relative importance depends on two factors: the interpretation and meaning of the measure and the extent of correlation between the cues. When the cues are correlated, the measures of relative importance will produce different values. In this situation, Cooksey advised that the researcher opts for the measure which remains most informative. Whereas

when the cues are uncorrelated, the researcher can select any measure based on preferences around interpretation and meaning.

The relative importance of the information cues presented to judges can be measured by various means. In the present research, regression coefficients were used to examine relative importance because the cues were uncorrelated.

Hypotheses 1 – 3: Nomothetic analysis

The derivation of regression equations in judgment analysis is guided by the nature of the research method. In particular, different approaches are adopted for idiographic and nomothetic methodologies. The current study utilised both nomothetic and idiographic. This subsection details how the nomothetic regression equation was derived for managers as a group, which was utilised to assess Hypotheses 1 – 3.

Nomothetic studies seek to understand decision policies in general. The decisions from multiple participants are combined to generate a mean judgment, and a single regression equation is derived (Stewart, 1988). Thus, to generate the nomothetic regression equation for this study, the responses across the managers were collapsed to derive a mean of the judgment measure for each vignette. The predictor variables were type of request, performance and gender. Dummy coding represented the three dichotomous variables: type of request (0 = working from home, 1 = career break), performance (0 = moderate, 1 = high) and subordinate gender (0 = male, 1 = female).

A nomothetic regression equation was generated to examine the overall patterns in the decision policies of the managers, which was used to test Hypotheses 1 – 3. This model captured the functional relationship between judgments and cue values for the judges as a group (Hammond et al., 1980).

Hypotheses 4 – 10: Motivational and interpersonal orientation analyses

Nomothetic analysis determines which information cues affected the decisions of managers as an aggregate. In contrast, idiographic analysis determines which information cues affected the decisions of each manager. For this study, an idiographic regression equation was derived for each manager and the output from this analysis used for further analyses to test Hypotheses 4 – 10. This data analysis is explained in the following paragraphs, including the inclusion of control variables and the means for analysing moderator effects.

Idiographic analysis

With idiographic studies, regression equations are derived for each participant (Stewart, 1988). Each judge is represented by a unique model to capture the functional relationship between judgments and cue values (Hammond et al., 1980). Thus, in

addition to the nomothetic regression equation, an idiographic regression equation was derived for each participant in the study. The predictor variables were type of request, performance and subordinate gender. The criterion variable was the judgment measure.

Regression models

To assess the impact of the motivational and interpersonal orientations, further analyses was conducted that employed the output from the idiographic regression equations. The analyses was guided by Cable and Judge's (1994) study on the impact of job seekers' dispositional characteristics on preferences for particular compensation system attributes. The paragraphs that follow explain the approach.

In their research, Cable and Judge (1994) presented participants with vignettes depicting potential jobs described by their pay system characteristics. The compensation dimensions manipulated in the vignettes were: pay level (low / high), benefits flexibility (flexible / rigid), evaluative focus (individual performance / group performance), pay stability (contingent / fixed) and pay base (knowledge / job). The variables were completely crossed, which meant 32 (2^5) vignettes were evaluated. Participants indicated the likelihood of pursuing the position. Several dispositional characteristics were examined, including materialism, self-efficacy and risk aversion. Cable and Judge hypothesised that the attractiveness of the pay systems would vary based on the dispositional characteristics of job seekers.

Cable and Judge (1994) generated a regression equation for each participant. The beta coefficients represent the individual's pay preferences. Thus, a large beta coefficient indicates the corresponding predictor accounts for large proportions of the judgment variance, revealing a preference for that pay attribute. Further multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the influence of the dispositional characteristics on pay preferences. As hypothesised, significant relationships were found between the pay systems and dispositional characteristics. For example, more materialistic job seekers, compared to less materialistic job seekers, emphasised pay level when deciding whether to pursue an organisation.

Thus, consistent with Cable and Judge (1994), the output from the idiographic analysis was employed for further regression analyses. Four new variables were created representing the constant and beta coefficients for type of request, performance and subordinate gender for each manager. These variables served as the criterion variables for the regression models.

The constant reflects the extent to which respondents approve requests in general, which is referred to as approval tendency. The beta coefficients represent the

managers' preference for each information cue. Specifically, the type of request coefficient reflects the extent to which respondents prefer to approve requests for career breaks compared to working from home. The performance coefficient reflects the extent to which respondents prefer to approve requests from high performers compared to moderate performers. The subordinate gender coefficient reflects the extent to which respondents prefer to approve requests from women compared to men.

The predictor variables for the multiple regression analyses were the motivational and interpersonal orientations, which were promotion focus and prevention focus, independence and interdependence, implicit theories and interpersonal trust. Affective commitment and work-life imbalance were included as potential moderators. The models also contained control variables, which are detailed in the next subsection.

Control variables

Several control variables were included in the multiple regression analyses, primarily to avoid spurious relationships. The variables included are summarised in the paragraphs that follow.

Previous research indicated the decisions reached by managers about requests for work-life benefits differed between the two sexes (Barham et al., 1998; Jaoko, 2012; Powell & Mainiero, 1999). Preliminary analyses showed gender was correlated with the criterion variables. Work-family scholars have advocated that gender should be controlled (Casper et al., 2004; Michel et al., 2011; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002; Peters & den Dulk, 2003). As Parasuraman and Greenhaus explained, including gender in work-family research is important because of the gendered nature of organisations and the enduring gender-based role expectations. Gender was, therefore, controlled.

Work-family scholars have also suggested controlling work-family situation (Peters & den Dulk, 2003). Preliminary analyses indicated that participants' marital status, parental status and average hours worked were correlated with the criterion variables; hence these variables needed to be controlled. Work-life imbalance was also included as a control variable. To control for participants' dispositional tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner, social desirability was considered but the low alpha precluded the inclusion of this variable.

The multiple regression analyses included several control variables. In particular, gender, work-life imbalance, marital status, parental status and average hours were entered as control variables.

<u>Moderation</u>

For three hypotheses, moderator effects were examined, with affective commitment and work-life imbalance acting as moderators. The approach adopted to assess moderator effects is explained in the following paragraphs.

Moderation occurs when the relationship between the criterion variable and predictor variable is a function of a moderator variable. Casper et al. (2007) advocated for greater use of moderated regression in work-family research to test for interaction effects. To facilitate the analyses, interaction terms were created by centring the predictor variable and moderator variable and then multiplying the two centred predictors (Aiken & West, 1991). Centring the moderator term ensures the component variables are not highly correlated with the product term (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Moderation is present when the interaction is related to the criterion after controlling the predictor and moderator variables. As proposed by Aiken and West (1991), plots of the interaction were drawn for any significant findings. These plots facilitate interpretation of the moderator effects (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The method suggested by Aiken and West involves selecting several values for the moderator to substitute into the regression equation to generate a series of simple regression equations. The simple slopes of the simple regression equations depict the relationship of the criterion variable on the predictor variable at specific values of the moderator. The interaction graphs were drawn at low ($z = -1$) and high ($z = 1$) levels of the moderator.

Moderator effects were examined for three hypotheses, with affective commitment and work-life imbalance acting as moderators. This subsection detailed how the moderator effects were assessed.

Cluster analysis

Given judgment analysis captures individual differences in judgment policies, judges can be grouped or clustered in terms of the similarity of their policies (Hammond et al., 1975; Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). The statistical technique of cluster analysis is employed to segregate judges into clusters. To examine whether the managers in the present research could be partitioned into groups according to their judgment policies, cluster analysis was undertaken.

With cluster analysis, each cluster represents judges that are more similar to each other than to members of other clusters (Cooksey, 1996; Hair et al., 2006). Judges are typically clustered based on profiles of idiographic cue weights (Cooksey, 1996). For this study, the variables used to form the clusters were the constant and the

unstandardised beta coefficients for type of request, performance and subordinate gender taken from the idiographic regression equations.

Hair et al. (2006) explained that three questions need to be resolved when performing cluster analysis: how to measure similarity, how to form clusters and how many groups to form. In line with Powell and Mainiero (1999), hierarchical cluster analysis was conducted with squared Euclidian distance as the measure of similarity. Hierarchical clustering is a stepwise procedure whereby judges are aggregated into fewer and fewer clusters based upon their similarity to each other (Cooksey, 1996; Hair et al., 2006). Ward's method was used to cluster the judges, which entails combining clusters whose combination leads to the smallest increase in total within-groups sum of squares (Hair et al., 2006).

To answer the third question – how many groups of judges to form – the agglomeration coefficient was examined. A small coefficient indicates fairly homogenous clusters are being merged, whereas a large coefficient indicates two different clusters are being merged (Hair et al., 2006).

Thus, the analysis of the judgments collected from managers entailed several steps. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to assess the studies hypotheses. In addition, cluster analysis was undertaken for exploratory purposes to assess the consistency across managers in decision making. Through the cluster analysis process, a typology of policies was established (Cooksey, 1996).

Summary

In the previous chapter, the research question, aims and hypotheses were outlined; and, in this chapter, the method used to test these hypotheses was presented. Information about the participants who completed the study was provided, along with the measures employed to assess the control and predictor variables. The design for the judgment analysis study, the procedure utilised to gather data from the managers and the analysis of the data were also explained. In the following chapter, the results are summarised.

Chapter 8: Results

In this chapter, the results from the current research are detailed. The presentation of the results was guided by Stewart (1988) and Cooksey (1996), who explained how to report research findings for judgment analysis. Cooksey advised that the description needs to provide an understanding of the judgment context, plus enable replication and extension. Details on the sample, the data checks performed, the assessment of reliability for the managers' judgments and the outputs from the regression analyses for each hypothesis are presented.

Sample

The final sample included 121 participants who each evaluated 16 vignettes, thus generating 1,936 observations in total for analyses. The sample size was adequate for multiple regression analysis; Hair et al. (2006) recommended a sample size of 100 to maintain power at .80 for moderate effects. In addition, the sample size was comparable to previous research on managerial decision making on work-life benefits. For instance, Powell and Mainiero's (1999) sample comprised 53 managers.

Data checks and assumptions

Several conditions and assumptions must be considered when conducting multiple regression analysis, including missing data, multicollinearity and influential observations, as well as the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of residuals. The following paragraphs outline the steps undertaken to check the data and assess the assumptions.

Missing data

The extent of missing data was low and appeared to be random because no obvious patterns emerged in the distribution of missing data. In total, five participants and nine variables produced missing data, which was all attributable to non-response by participants. There was missing data for a participant on one item of the interdependence scale. For this case, the summated score was calculated by averaging the non-missing data. The remaining missing data were amongst the demographic and employment questions. In particular, one participant failed to answer any of the questions about employment. The participant was 71 years of age, thus the missing data and their age implied they were retired. This case was considered an outlier and therefore was removed from the analyses.

An additional case was deleted because the question on managerial experience was unanswered and the study was of managers with a minimum experience of one year managing other people. Removing these cases reduced the missing data to two

missing values for two participants. The pairwise approach was utilised to handle the missing data. This procedure uses all available pairs of values to calculate each correlation in the correlation matrix (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The pairwise technique maximises the data included in the analysis and prevents a case from being removed when the missing data is contained to only one variable (Hair et al., 2006).

Multicollinearity and influential observations

Multicollinearity primarily indicates that a single predictor variable is highly correlated with the other predictor variables in the analysis. Instances of collinearity and multicollinearity were identified by examining the correlation matrix (Table 9) and the variance inflation factors (VIF). The presence of high correlations amongst the predictor variables, typically .80 and higher, indicates substantial collinearity (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed no exceptionally high correlations. The VIF measures the effect of the other predictor variables on the standard error of the regression coefficient (Hair et al., 2006). Large VIF values, usually greater than 10.0, indicate a high degree of multicollinearity among the predictor variables (Hair et al., 2006). The VIF values for each regression equation were all below 10.0. Thus, the correlation matrix and VIF values indicate no issues with multicollinearity.

Mahalanobis distance was examined to screen for multivariate outliers. Mahalanobis distance assesses the distance of a single case from the centroid, which is a point created at the intersection of the means of all the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The criterion for multivariate outliers is Mahalanobis distance exceeding $\chi^2_{.001}$ (p), where p equals the number of predictor variables. One multivariate outlier was identified, with a Mahalanobis distance of 27.89, where $\chi^2_{.001}(7) = 24.32$.

Another important factor to examine when conducting multiple regression analysis is the presence of influential observations. Influential observations disproportionately affect one or more of the regression estimates (Hair et al., 2006). Cook's distance was examined to screen for influential observations. Cook's distance measures the influence of a single case on the regression coefficients when that case is deleted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Large values, typically greater than 1, indicate substantial influence. There were no influential observations based on this criterion. The multivariate outlier was thus retained because this case did not appreciably affect the regression coefficients and only marginally exceeded the criterion.

Assumptions of multiple regression

Multiple regression analysis rests upon a number of assumptions about the nature of the data being analysed (Cooksey, 1996). The analysis undertaken to evaluate these assumptions is explained in the paragraphs that follow.

The assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity were assessed by examining the residuals scatterplot for each regression model, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). This graph plots the residuals against the predicted criterion variable scores. As Tabachnick and Fidell explained, normality is demonstrated by a concentration of residuals along the centre with scores tapering off symmetrically from the centre, linearity is demonstrated by a rectangular shape of the scatterplot and homoscedasticity is demonstrated by an equal width of residuals across the values of the predicted criterion variable.

The residuals scatterplots indicated no systematic relationships existed between the residuals and predicted criterion variable scores, except for the regression equation for subordinate gender. The assumption of normality appeared to be violated for this criterion variable. The distribution of residuals was explored further by examining the skewness and kurtosis statistics. Kurtosis was significantly positive, indicating a leptokurtic or peaked distribution, which implies the significance values were likely to be conservative (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007); hence, alpha was not adjusted.

The analysis of variance assessing whether the coefficient of determination (R^2) was significantly different from zero was non-significant for two of the five regression models. R^2 measures the proportion of variance of the criterion variable about its mean that is explained by the predictor variables (Hair et al., 2006). A non-significant R^2 indicates the model was unable to predict the criterion variable effectively. Because the main focus of the research was the significance of the regression coefficients, rather than the predictive power of the models, these non-significant models are not germane to the interpretation of these results.

Managers' judgments

The criterion variable for the nomothetic and idiographic multiple regression equations was the judgment measure, which was a 4-point rating scale where 1 = No, 2 = Yes, review in 3 months, 3 = Yes, review in 9 months and 4 = Yes, review in 12 months or longer. Managers approved 69 percent of the requests, with the mean of the judgment measure equal to 2.20 (SD = .70). The percentage approved ranged from a low of 55 percent, which was for a vignette about a woman with moderate performance

who sought a career break, to a high of 88 percent, which was for four vignettes about males and females with high performance requesting to work from home.

The rate of approval documented in the present research compares with previous studies. For instance, Powell and Mainiero (1999) found managers approved 62 percent of requests, with a range of 11 to 85 percent. The managers in Barham et al.'s (1998) study approved between 53 and 95 percent of requests. Similarly, Sweet et al. (2015) found 55 to 70 percent of requests were approved, and Lauzun et al. (2010) found approval ratings ranged from 0 percent for compressed workweeks and childcare, through to 47 percent for telecommuting and 60 percent for flextime.

Of the 16 vignettes evaluated by the managers, each vignette had a duplicate in terms of the information presented. As such, the calculation of a test-retest reliability coefficient was achieved by calculating the correlation between the responses to the matched vignettes and then averaging across the eight correlations. The intraclass reliability coefficient was $r = .93$, indicating participants were highly consistent in their responses to the vignettes. Other researchers have found values ranging from .76 to .83 (Cable & Judge, 1994; Graham & Cable, 2001; Tomassetti, Dalal, & Kaplan, 2016).

Descriptive statistics and correlations

The descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the study variables are reported in the following tables. Table 7 reports the mean scores and standard deviations for the control, predictor and criterion variables. The mean scores indicate that work-life imbalance is below the midpoint (3.0) and affective commitment, independence, interdependence, implicit theories and interpersonal trust are all at or above the midpoint (3.0). Promotion focus is above the midpoint (5.0) and prevention focus is below the midpoint (5.0).

Table 7
Mean Scores and Standard Deviations

Variables	M	SD
Average hours	2.98	1.11
Work-life imbalance	2.85	.62
Promotion focus	6.74	1.10
Prevention focus	4.24	1.73
Affective commitment	3.53	.88
Independence	3.67	.42
Interdependence	3.47	.39
Implicit theories	2.96	.92
Interpersonal trust	3.08	.44
Managers' decisions	2.20	.70

Table 8 presents the bi-serial and Pearson's correlations between the control variables. Men were more likely to be married and parents, along with working more hours on average, than women. Men and women experienced comparable levels of work-life imbalance. Table 9 presents the correlations between the control and predictor variables, with the reliabilities included along the diagonal in parentheses.

Table 8
Correlation Matrix for Control Variables

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Gender					
2. Marital status	-.22*				
3. Parental status	-.23*	.48**			
4. Average hours	-.30**	-.15	-.09		
5. Work-life imbalance	.01	-.07	.04	.14	

Note: For gender, 0 = male and 1 = female. For marital status, 0 = married and 1 = unmarried. For parental status, 0 = parent and 1 = non-parent.
* p <.05 ** p<.01

Table 9
Correlation Matrix for Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Average hours	-									
2. Work-life imbalance	.14	(.76)								
3. Promotion focus	.10	.06	(.69)							
4. Prevention focus	-.09	.40**	-.17	(.76)						
5. Affective commitment	.05	-.22*	.01	.00	(.88)					
6. Independence	.00	-.12	.39**	-.36**	.06	(.68)				
7. Interdependence	-.01	.00	-.01	.15	.33**	.06	(.64)			
8. Implicit theories	-.04	.01	.02	.05	-.14	-.03	.09	(.87)		
9. Interpersonal trust	.05	.21*	-.07	.19*	-.23*	-.12	.09	.15	(.74)	
10. Managers' decisions	.20*	.12	-.06	.10	.05	.04	.04	-.10	.37	(.93)

* p <.05 ** p<.01

Hypotheses 1 – 3: Nomothetic analysis

Hypothesis 1 predicted that managers would be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than requests for working from home. Hypothesis 2 predicted that managers would be more likely to approve requests from high performers than requests from average performers. Finally, Hypothesis 3 predicted that managers would be more likely to approve requests from female subordinates than from male subordinates.

These hypotheses were tested with the nomothetic regression equation, which identified the information cues that predict the managers' aggregated decision outcome. A nomothetic regression equation was derived by collapsing across the 121 participants to generate a mean of the judgment measure for each vignette. The output from the regression analysis is presented in Table 10. The analysis indicates 97.8% of the variation in the decision outcome was explained by the predictors, $F (3, 12) = 176.98$, $p<.01$. Type of request and performance were positively related to the decision outcome (95% CI for β is .534 to .688 and 95% CI for β is .457 to .611, respectively).

Table 10
Nomothetic Regression Analysis

Variable	B	SE B	β	t
Constant	1.62	.04		45.95**
Type of request	.61	.04	.74	17.35**
Performance	.53	.04	.65	15.15**
Subordinate gender	.02	.04	.03	.60

Note: For type of request, 0 = working from home and 1 = career break. For performance, 0 = moderate and 1 = high. For subordinate gender, 0 = male and 1 = female.
** p<.01

Thus, managers were more likely to approve requests for career breaks rather than working from home. Hypothesis 1 was supported. Managers were also more likely to approve requests from high performers than from average performers. Hypothesis 2 was supported. Managers were not influenced by the subordinates' gender when evaluating requests for work-life benefits; thus Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Idiographic analysis

In addition to the nomothetic regression equation, an idiographic regression equation was generated for each manager. By way of example, Table 11 contains the output from one participant. The beta coefficients indicate the relative salience of the information to the decision maker. This manager was, therefore, influenced by the type of work-life benefit requested, along with the performance of the subordinate.

Table 11
Output from Multiple Regression Analysis for a Participant

	B	SE B	β	t
Constant	1.250	.144		8.660**
Type of request	2.500	.144	.962	17.321**
Performance	.500	.144	.192	3.464**
Subordinate gender	.000	.144	.000	.000

Note: For type of request, 0 = working from home and 1 = career break. For performance, 0 = moderate and 1 = high. For subordinate gender, 0 = male and 1 = female.
** $p<.01$

Regression equations could not be generated for fourteen participants because their responses were consistent across all vignettes. These participants were compared against the remaining participants on the predictor variables, and no significant differences were found. For these participants, the constant was their response to the judgment measure and the beta coefficients were zero.

Appendix E contains the constants, beta coefficients, standard errors and R^2 values for each participant. Although the R^2 values vary across participants from 0.16 to 1.00, the average for the 121 participants was 0.86, indicating managers' approval ratings of the requests were accurately captured (cf. Cable & Judge, 1994; Tomassetti et al., 2016).

Hypotheses 4 – 10: Motivational and interpersonal orientation analyses

The remaining hypotheses were tested with multiple regression analyses that utilised the output from the idiographic regression equations. The criterion variables were the beta coefficients for type of request, performance and subordinate gender, along with the constant. The predictor variables were promotion focus and prevention focus, independence and interdependence, implicit theories and interpersonal trust. Affective commitment and work-life imbalance were included as moderators. The output from these analyses are detailed in the following paragraphs.

Hypotheses 4 and 5: Type of request and regulatory focus

Hypotheses 4 and 5 predicted that prevention focused managers – as well as promotion focused managers with low affective commitment – would be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than for working from home. The output from the regression equation that examined these hypotheses is presented in Table 12. The analysis indicates 16.3% of the variation in type of request was explained by the predictors, $F (10, 109) = 2.12$, $p<.05$. As hypothesised, prevention focused managers were more likely to approve requests for career breaks than for working from home

(95% CI for β is .019 to .292). Affective commitment moderated the relationship between promotion focus and type of request (95% CI for β is -.566 to -.078).

Table 12
Moderated Regression Analysis for Affective Commitment, Promotion Focus and Prevention Focus Predicting Type of Request

Variable	B	SE B	β	t
Constant	.78	1.03		.76
Gender	.23	.24	.10	.96
Marital status	-.11	.26	-.05	-.44
Parental status	.33	.28	.13	1.18
Average hours	-.12	.11	-.12	-1.17
Work-life imbalance	-.13	.20	-.07	-.62
Affective commitment	.03	.13	.02	.21
Promotion focus	-.07	.10	-.07	-.71
Prevention focus	.16	.07	.23	2.26*
Affective commitment x Promotion	-.32	.12	-.25	-2.61**
Affective commitment x Prevention	-.07	.08	-.09	-.91

Note: For gender, 0 = male and 1 = female. For marital status, 0 = married and 1 = unmarried. For parental status, 0 = parent and 1 = non-parent.
* p <.05 ** p<.01

Figure 17 depicts the relationship between promotion focus and type of request at low (z = -1) and high (z = 1) levels of affective commitment. The graph indicates that, when managers experience low affective commitment, individuals with a promotion focus are more likely to approve career breaks than working from home. As managers become more affectively committed to their organisation, the relationship diminishes and reverses. At high levels of affective commitment, individuals with a promotion focus become increasingly likely to approve working from home rather than career breaks.
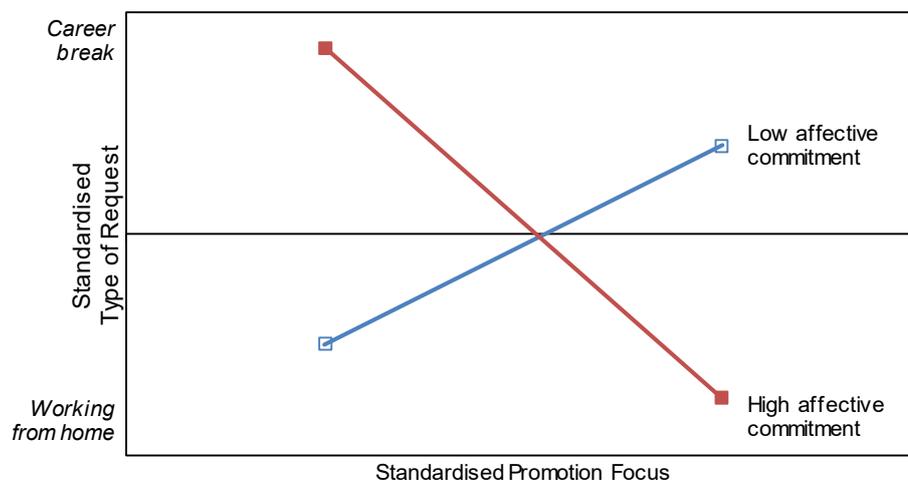
Figure 17. Relationship between promotion focus and type of request as a function of affective commitment

Hypothesis 6: Performance and self-construals

Hypothesis 6 predicted that interdependent managers would be especially likely to approve requests from high performers rather than from average performers. The output from the regression equation that examined this hypothesis is presented in Table 13. The analysis indicates 7.7% of the variation in performance was explained by the predictors, F (7, 112) = 1.33, p=.24. As hypothesised, interdependence was positively related to performance (95% CI for β is .045 to .684). The standardised beta coefficient for independence was low (beta = -.072) and not significant.

Table 13
Regression Analysis for Independence and Interdependence Predicting Performance

Variable	B	SE B	β	t
Constant	-.04	.87		-.04
Gender	-.11	.14	-.08	-.77
Marital status	-.09	.16	-.06	-.58
Parental status	.18	.16	.12	1.11
Average hours	-.09	.06	-.14	-1.45
Work-life imbalance	.00	.10	.00	.01
Independence	-.12	.16	-.07	-.76
Interdependence	.36	.16	.21	2.26*

Note: For gender, 0 = male and 1 = female. For marital status, 0 = married and 1 = unmarried. For parental status, 0 = parent and 1 = non-parent.
* p <.05

Hypothesis 7: Subordinate gender and regulatory focus

Hypothesis 7 predicted that promotion focused managers would be more likely to approve requests from female subordinates than from male subordinates. The output from the regression equation that examined this hypothesis is presented in Table 14. The analysis indicates that 9.5% of the variation in subordinate gender was explained by the predictors, F (7, 112) = 1.68, p=.12. As hypothesised, when managers adopted a promotion focus, requests from women rather than men were more likely to be approved (95% CI for β is .000 to .031). Prevention focus generated a low and non-significant standardised beta coefficient (beta = .035).

Table 14

Regression Analysis for Promotion Focus and Prevention Focus Predicting Subordinate Gender

Variable	B	SE B	β	t
Constant	-.03	.07		-.48
Gender	.03	.02	.14	1.39
Marital status	-.02	.02	-.09	-.81
Parental status	.02	.02	.11	1.03
Average hours	-.01	.01	-.09	-.90
Work-life imbalance	-.02	.01	-.13	-1.32
Promotion focus	.02	.01	.19	1.97*
Prevention focus	.00	.01	.03	.34

Note: For gender, 0 = male and 1 = female. For marital status, 0 = married and 1 = unmarried. For parental status, 0 = parent and 1 = non-parent.
* $p < .05$

Hypotheses 8, 9 and 10: Approval tendency

Hypothesis 8 predicted that female managers would be more likely to approve requests than male managers. Hypotheses 9 and 10 predicted that work-life imbalance would moderate the associations that relate implicit theory and interpersonal trust to approval tendency. The output from the regression equation that examined these hypotheses is presented in Table 15. The analysis indicates 18.6% of the variation in approval tendency was explained by the predictors, $F_{(9, 110)} = 2.80$, $p < .01$. Managers' gender failed to reach significance, thus indicating that male and female managers were equally likely to approve requests for work-life benefits. As hypothesised, work-life imbalance moderated the relationship between implicit theories and approval tendency (95% CI for β is -.479 to -.142) and between interpersonal trust and approval tendency (95% CI for β is .227 to .966).

Table 15

Moderated Regression Analysis for Implicit Theories and Interpersonal Trust Predicting Approval Tendency

Variable	B	SE B	β	t
Constant	1.47	.48		3.04**
Gender	.23	.12	.19	1.94
Marital status	.00	.13	.00	.02
Parental status	-.01	.14	.00	-.05
Average hours	.03	.05	.05	.54
Work-life imbalance	.15	.09	.15	1.67
Implicit theories	-.08	.06	-.12	-1.32
Interpersonal trust	-.09	.13	-.07	-.73
Work-life imbalance x Implicit theories	-.31	.09	-.34	-3.65**
Work-life imbalance x Interpersonal trust	.60	.19	.31	3.20**

Note: For gender, 0 = male and 1 = female. For marital status, 0 = married and 1 = unmarried. For parental status, 0 = parent and 1 = non-parent.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Figure 18 depicts the relationship between implicit theory and approval tendency when managers experience work-life balance (z = -1) and work-life imbalance (z = 1). The graph indicates that incremental theorist managers are more likely to approve requests when work-life imbalance is experienced. In contrast, entity theorist managers are more likely to approve requests when work-life balance is experienced.
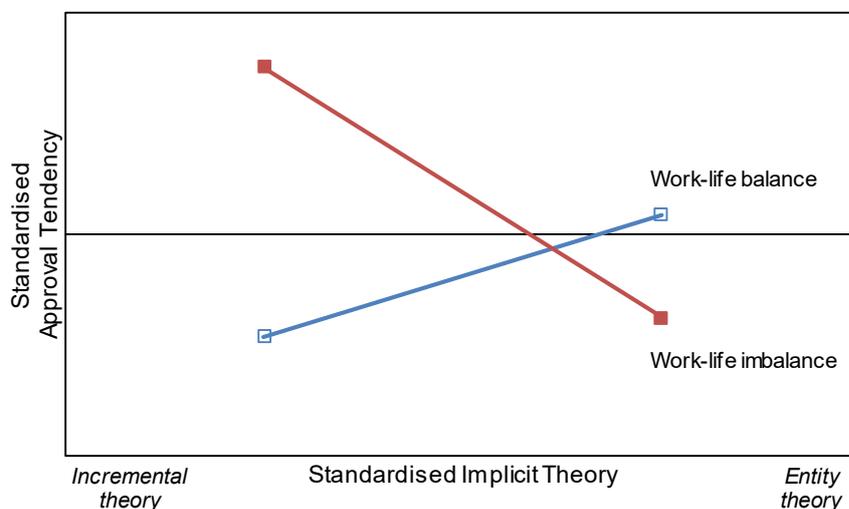
Figure 18. Relationship between implicit theory and approval tendency as a function of work-life imbalance

Figure 19 depicts the relationship between interpersonal trust and approval tendency when managers experience work-life balance (z = -1) and work-life imbalance (z = 1). Managers with high interpersonal trust are more likely to approve requests when work-life imbalance is experienced. In contrast, managers with low interpersonal trust are more likely to approve requests when work-life balance is experienced.
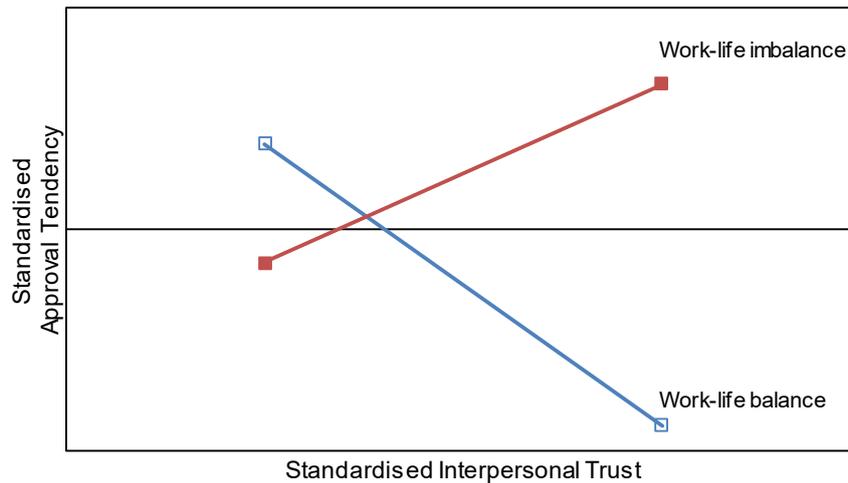
Figure 19. Relationship between interpersonal trust and approval tendency as a function of work-life imbalance

Cluster analysis

As explained, the data were subjected to cluster analysis to group managers according to their decision-making policies. In line with Powell and Mainiero (1999), this analysis was undertaken for exploratory purposes to examine consistency in decision making across the managers.

Based on the agglomeration coefficient, a three-cluster solution was chosen for the decision policies of the managers. Table 16 provides the means and standard deviations for each policy cluster. According to the means, subordinate gender did not vary across clusters, thus indicating managers were not influenced by this information cue. The managers in Cluster 1 seem to have based their decisions on the information cue for performance. The managers in Clusters 2 and 3 similarly based their decisions on the type of request, but in opposite directions. That is, managers in Cluster 2 were more likely to approve requests for career breaks, whereas managers in Cluster 3 were more likely to approve requests for working from home.

Table 16
Means and Standard Deviations for Each Policy Cluster

	Cluster 1		Cluster 2		Cluster 3	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Constant	1.16	.55	1.87	.63	1.72	.40
Type of request	.58	.45	1.80	.73	-.60	.46
Performance	1.48	.44	.19	.37	.18	.31
Subordinate gender	.01	.09	.04	.12	.01	.05

Summary

This chapter covered the analysis of the results, which supported eight of the ten hypotheses. As detailed in Table 17, managers were more likely to approve requests for career breaks than working from home and requests from high performers than average performers. Requests from female and male subordinates, however, were equally likely to be approved by managers. Furthermore, the motivational and interpersonal orientations of managers influenced their use of these information cues, and ultimately their overall support for subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. In the following chapter, the implications of these findings are discussed, along with the strengths and limitations of the study.

Table 17
Summary of Findings

Hypothesis	Finding
1. Managers will be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than requests for working from home.	Supported
2. Managers will be more likely to approve requests from high performers than requests from average performers.	Supported
3. Managers will be more likely to approve requests from female subordinates than requests from male subordinates.	Not supported
4. Managers who report high prevention focus, as compared to managers who report low prevention focus, will be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than requests for working from home.	Supported
5. When affective commitment is low, managers who report high promotion focus will be more likely than managers who report low promotion focus to approve requests for career breaks than to approve requests for working from home. In contrast, as affective commitment increases, this tendency of promotion focused managers to approve requests for career breaks rather than requests for working from home will diminish. Specifically, when affective commitment is high, managers who report high promotion focus will be more likely than managers who report low promotion focus to approve requests for working from home than to approve requests for career breaks.	Supported
6. Managers who report high interdependence, as compared to managers who report low interdependence, will be more likely to approve requests from high performers than requests from average performers.	Supported
7. Managers who report high promotion focus, as compared to managers who report low promotion focus, will be more likely to approve requests from female subordinates than requests from male subordinates.	Supported
8. Female managers will be more likely to approve requests than male managers.	Not supported
9. When managers experience work-life imbalance, those managers who assume an incremental theory will be more likely than those managers who assume an entity theory to approve requests. In contrast, as work-life imbalance reduces, this tendency of incremental theorist managers to approve requests will diminish. Specifically, when managers experience work-life balance, those managers who assume an incremental theory will be less likely than those managers who assume an entity theory to approve requests.	Supported
10. When managers experience work-life imbalance, those managers who report high interpersonal trust will be more likely than those managers who report low interpersonal trust to approve requests. In contrast, as work-life imbalance reduces, this tendency of high trust managers to approve requests will diminish. Specifically, when managers experience work-life balance, those managers who report high interpersonal trust will be less likely than those managers who report low interpersonal trust to approve requests.	Supported

Chapter 9: Discussion

In this final chapter, the research findings are summarised. The chapter begins by considering what has been learnt about the factors influencing the decisions of managers when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The strengths and limitations of the study, along with suggestions for future research, contributions to theory and practical implications, are also addressed.

Managers' decision policies

This thesis sought to clarify which factors influence the decisions of managers when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The first research aim was to identify the information that influences managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The information cues examined were type of request, performance and gender. Managers were found to be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than working from home and requests from high performers than average performers. Managers were equally likely to approve requests from female and male subordinates; thus, subordinate gender was not an influential information cue.

The second research aim was to identify the motivational and interpersonal orientations of managers that influence their use of these information cues and ultimately their decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The orientations examined were regulatory focus, affective commitment, self-construals, implicit theories and interpersonal trust. Managers' use of the information cues, and their overall tendency to approve requests for work-life benefits, were found to be influenced by their motivational and interpersonal orientations. In the paragraphs to follow, the findings from the present research are explored in more detail. The four theoretical frameworks that structured the research are examined in turn: work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour.

Work disruption theory

This thesis hypothesised and demonstrated that managers would be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than requests for working from home. That is, the study predicted that a career break for two years was less disruptive than working from home two days per week, because the latter arrangement requires constant consideration and adjustments. This finding concurs with work disruption theory. Managers consider the potential for a requested work-life benefit to disrupt the conduct of work and are more likely to approve requests for arrangements that are perceived to be less disruptive (Powell & Mainiero, 1999).

The research confirms the premise that level of work disruption varies across work-life policies and programs. Furthermore, this finding highlights the importance of considering the way a work-life benefit is structured. Powell and Mainiero (1999) compared the same two policies: working from home and unpaid leave. These researchers, however, found managers were more likely to grant requests for working from home rather than for leave. In their study the working from home arrangement entailed employees being absent from the office half of their working week and the duration of the unpaid leave was 6 months. A longer period of time was chosen for the unpaid leave in this study, thereby decreasing the level of disruption. With an extended period of unpaid leave, the manager would need to make arrangements to cover the duties and responsibilities of the role but once in place, the conduct of work would proceed. With a working from home arrangement, constant consideration and adjustments are required of the manager and co-workers.

The study also hypothesised and demonstrated that prevention focused managers, and promotion focused managers with low affective commitment, would be more likely to approve requests for career breaks than working from home. Thus, the managers' regulatory orientation influenced the importance attributed to the potential for disruption presented by the work-life benefit request.

Consistent with previous research, managers with a prevention focus were inclined to display risk-averse, cautious and conservative decision making (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Liberman et al., 1999; Scholer et al., 2010; Zou & Scholer, 2016), as reflected in their willingness to approve requests for the less disruptive work-life benefit. Similarly, managers with a promotion focus and low affective commitment also preferred the less disruptive work-life benefit. When affective commitment is low, employees are less concerned about the future of the organisation because they do not imagine themselves as being a part of that future. Decision making is, therefore, more focused on immediate activities instead of future aspirations. These individuals, hence, may display the tendencies of someone with a prevention focus – even if they typically exhibit a promotion focus.

Dependency theory

This thesis also hypothesised and demonstrated that managers would be more likely to approve requests from high performers than average performers. This finding supports dependency theory. Managers are more likely to approve requests from employees they are dependent upon in an attempt to retain these individuals (K. J. Klein et al., 2000).

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Employee performance has not been manipulated in previous studies on managerial decision making on work-life benefits. Peters and den Dulk (2003) and Poelmans and Beham (2008) hypothesised that managers would reach more favourable work-life policy allowance decisions in response to requests from employees who were strong performers; the results support their prediction. K. J. Klein et al. (2000) reported that lawyers' assumed their firms' would be more inclined to grant requests from employees who were high performers. The findings of this study corroborate this assumption: Requests for work-life benefits are more likely to be granted if the employee is a high performer.

Furthermore, the finding on employee performance substantiates managers' accounts of the factors that influence their decision making when evaluating requests for work-life benefits. Qualitative research has found that managers profess to consider the contribution, productivity and commitment of employees when evaluating requests for work-life policies (Bond et al., 2002; den Dulk et al., 2011; Dex & Scheibl, 2001; Peters et al., 2010; Reeve et al., 2012).

The study also hypothesised and demonstrated that high-interdependence managers, as compared with low-interdependence managers, would be more likely to approve requests from high performers than average performers. Thus, the managers' self-construal influenced the importance placed on performance when reaching decisions about requests for work-life benefits.

In their seminal paper, Markus and Kitayama (1991) explained that a construal of the self as interdependent entails a focus on maintaining harmonious relatedness with other individuals. Therefore, when an interdependent self construal is assumed, managers should be especially supportive of people who they depend upon – people who perform proficiently. These conclusions are supported by the present finding. As with the partners in K. J. Klein et al.'s (2000) research, dependency and performance were more salient to interdependent managers when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

Institutional theory

This thesis hypothesised that managers would be more likely to approve requests from female subordinates than requests from male subordinates. Requests from women and men were, however, equally likely to be approved. The decisions of managers do not seem to be influenced by institutional pressures to offer work-life policies and programs to women.

The current finding contradicts qualitative evidence that managers consider gender when evaluating requests for work-life benefits (Bond et al., 2002; den Dulk et al., 2011; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003). Furthermore, this finding contradicts the hypothesis of Poelmans and Beham (2008) that managers would be more supportive of requests from women. The results, however, are consistent with the observations of Barham et al. (1998) and Powell and Mainiero (1999). These researchers found that gender did not influence the decisions of managers when evaluating requests for work-life benefits from subordinates.

The premise for this hypothesis was that managers face institutional pressures to approve requests from women. Societal perspectives on workplace flexibility are changing, however. In particular, rather than flexibility being perceived as primarily useful for women and young parents, flexibility is increasingly being perceived as important for all employees. Thus, the managers in the present research may have ascribed to the social norm that advocates for men and women to be equally eligible for work-life benefits. The socially desirable response in this instance may, therefore, be not differentiating based on gender. As mentioned, the initial plan was to control for social desirability but this was not possible because the measure was unreliable.

Another potential explanation for the finding that subordinate gender did not affect approvals is that institutional pressures are only present for senior women. Barham et al. (1998) found that gender influenced decisions for requests from managers. That is, requests for reduced-hours arrangements were more likely to be approved for female, than male, managers. Thus, the level of the employee submitting the request may be influential. Managers may face increased institutional pressure to approve requests from senior, as compared with more junior, women.

Furthermore, managers may face institutional pressures to approve only specific types of work-life benefits for women. den Dulk and de Ruijter (2008) demonstrated that managers were more positive in general toward requests from women. However, when the specific types of requests were examined separately, gender was related to short-term care leave and parental leave, but unrelated to occasionally working at home and part-time work. In contrast, K. J. Klein et al. (2000) found that employees' perceived more support for women to work part-time, and Beham et al. (2015) found managers were more supportive of requests from women to telework.

Although these findings contradict each other, the studies collectively suggest that institutional pressures to approve requests for work-life benefits may be stronger or weaker for specific types of arrangements. Thus, consistent with Barham et al. (1998)

and K. J. Klein et al. (2000), managers may face greater institutional pressure to grant reduced-hour work-life benefits to women than men.

The study also hypothesised that promotion focused managers would be more likely to approve requests from female subordinates than requests from male subordinates. This hypothesis was supported. Thus, managers' regulatory focus influenced their level of compliance with institutional pressures to offer work-life policies and programs to women. Consistent with previous research (R. S. Friedman & Förster, 2000, 2001, 2002; Pham & Avnet, 2009), managers with a promotion focus were more inclined to display a heuristic, explorative processing strategy by utilising institutional norms when reaching decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

Helping behaviour

Three attributes of the manager were hypothesised to influence their predisposition to display the helping behaviour of approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The variables were gender, implicit theories and interpersonal trust. Female and male managers were equally likely to approve requests for work-life benefits; incremental theorists, as compared to entity theorists, were more likely to approve requests when they experienced work-life imbalance; and high trust managers, as compared to low trust managers, were more likely to approve requests when they experienced work-life imbalance. The present research, therefore, demonstrated that managers do vary in their willingness to intervene in helping situations, and this variance can be partly explained by interpersonal orientations.

As indicated, manager gender was unrelated to the tendency to approve requests from subordinates for work-life benefits. Although women express more positive attitudes towards work-life benefits (Casper et al., 2004; Giannikis & Mihail, 2011; Haar & O'Driscoll, 2005; Nadeem & Hendry, 2003), previous research on the influence of managers' gender on decisions about subordinate requests for work-life benefits has been mixed. The present research contradicts the results that Powell and Mainiero (1999) reported. The finding of the present study, however, concurs with research that has found gender to be unrelated to attitudes towards, and decisions about, work-life benefit requests (Beham et al., 2015; Casper et al., 2004; K. J. Klein et al., 2000; Peters et al., 2010). Relatedly, Blair-Loy and Wharton (2002) demonstrated that employees managed by women were less likely to utilise work-family policies.

The present research suggests the social role of manager was more salient than the social role of gender. As stated by Eagly and Crowley (1986), "the size and direction of sex differences should be a product of situational variables that determine what social

roles are salient in particular situations" (p. 286). Consistent with this assertion, Bowes-Sperry et al. (1997) found both female and male managers were most likely to engage in evaluation and least likely to engage in understanding, implying the managerial role can be more influential than gender roles in determining helping behaviour.

The relationship between implicit theories and managers' tendency to approve requests was moderated by work-life imbalance. When work-life imbalance was elevated, approval was more likely in individuals who adopted an incremental rather than entity theory. When managers experience work-life imbalance, they are especially motivated to initiate change and demonstrate support (Straub, 2012). Consequently, only incremental theorists, who acknowledge that such change is plausible, will be willing to help in these situations.

The relationship between interpersonal trust and managers' tendency to approve requests was similarly moderated by work-life imbalance. Subordinates' requests for work-life benefits were more likely to be approved by managers who expressed high, as compared with low, levels of interpersonal trust, especially when they experienced work-life imbalance. Rotter (1967) explained that people develop relatively stable, generalised expectations about the trustworthiness of other people. Individuals, thus, differ in the extent to which the social norm to trust people is endorsed (Stack, 1978).

Consistent with previous research that has demonstrated trust is related to helping behaviour (Choi, 2006; Colquitt et al., 2007; Wells & Kipnis, 2001), the present finding indicates managers' generalised levels of trust influenced their predisposition to display the helping behaviour of approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

Work-family scholars frequently reference the importance of trust in facilitating work-life benefits, as exemplified by Newman and Mathews (1999), who stated "work-life policies are predicated on a foundation of trust" (p. 41). Managers profess to consider trust when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits and identify trust as a necessary pre-requisite for their support of these arrangements (Cooper et al., 2001; Dex & Scheibl, 2001; Flack, 1999; S. Lewis et al., 2002; Maxwell et al., 2007; Newman & Mathews, 1999; Peters & den Dulk, 2003; Peters et al., 2010). The present research supports these assertions. Managers' propensity to trust influences their decisions about requests for work-life benefits.

This finding also concurs with Beham et al.'s (2015) finding that managers were more supportive of requests for telework when their working relationship with subordinates was perceived as high-quality. High-quality relationships are characterised by mutual respect, trust and commitment (Poelmans & Beham, 2008; Poelmans &

Sahibzada, 2004; Straub, 2012). Consistent with this proposition, Epstein et al. (2015) found managers displayed more family-supportive behaviours toward employees that had been rated as competent, trustworthy and capable of assuming responsibility.

Thus, when managers assume an incremental theory and are more inclined to trust other people, they are predisposed to help by approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Work-life imbalance exacerbated the association between implicit theories and approval, along with the association between interpersonal trust and approval. When work-life imbalance is elevated, managers are predicted to be more inclined to help and support subordinates (Straub, 2012), thus strengthening the influence of implicit theories and interpersonal trust.

Consistency in decision making

Cluster analysis was undertaken to group the managers according to their decision-making policies, thus providing an indication of consistency in decision making across the managers. The findings are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Cluster analysis was employed as a descriptive technique to summarise similarities and differences in decision policies amongst the managers (Cooksey, 1996). Three clusters represented the decision policies, with managers in each cluster being influenced predominantly by a single information cue. That is, managers in Cluster 1 based their decisions on performance and managers in Clusters 2 and 3 based their decisions on the type of request, but in opposite directions.

Hypotheses 1 to 3 were tested with the nomothetic decision policy for managers. In contrast, the cluster analysis utilised the idiographic decision policies of managers. A comparison can be drawn between the findings from these two analyses. In support of Hypothesis 1, managers in Cluster 2 were more likely to approve requests for career breaks than requests for working from home. In support of Hypothesis 2, managers in Cluster 1 were more likely to approve requests from high performers than requests from average performers. Finally, subordinate gender did not vary across the clusters, thus re-confirming Hypothesis 3; managers were not influenced by this cue.

In their analysis, Powell and Mainiero (1999) differentiated four clusters of managers with shared decision policies. The managers were not in opposition to each other on whether specific factors should be considered in decision making. There was, however, a difference in relative importance placed on each factor. In contrast, the managers in this study displayed opposing tendencies. Managers in Cluster 2 were more likely to approve requests for career breaks, whereas managers in Cluster 3 were

more likely to approve requests for working from home. Future research could explore why these managers reached the opposite decision.

In line with Powell and Mainiero (1999), the managers in this study displayed variability in their decision making. Policy factions were present amongst the managers (Cooksey, 1996). Thus, manager discretion in decision making generates inconsistency in outcomes for employees when requesting access to work-life policies and programs.

Strengths and limitations of the research

There were several strengths in the present study, along with some limitations that should be addressed in future research. In particular, the representativeness of the sample and the utilisation of judgment analysis as the research technique are discussed in this section, along with implications of the study design.

Sample

By sampling managers who evaluate requests from subordinates for work-life benefits, the sample was representative of the population to which the results were designed to be generalised. This feature of the study supports the external validity of the findings. Furthermore, the sample drew participants from a range of organisations and industries, which contrasts with a sample from a single establishment that might be biased by the idiosyncrasies of the organisation (Grover & Crooker, 1995).

Bowes-Sperry et al. (1997) raised an interesting argument about sampling bias in studies on helping behaviour when using a snowball sampling technique. These researchers highlighted that people may approach individuals who are perceived as more helpful to complete the questionnaire. Furthermore, helpful people are more likely to complete the questionnaire. Given the variability in helping behaviour demonstrated in the present study, this potential bias does not appear to invalidate the findings (cf. Bowes-Sperry et al., 1997).

In their review of work-family research, Casper et al. (2007) concluded that the insights provided by work-family researchers are predominantly based on "the experiences of heterosexual, Caucasian, managerial and professional employees in traditional family arrangements" (p. 37). Research has also tended to be conducted with large corporations that might differ appreciably from small businesses, public sector agencies and non-profit organisations (Maxwell et al., 2007; Pitt-Catsouphes, 2002).

When considering the sample for this study, the participants were predominantly married parents who were relatively well educated and worked full-time in medium to large organisations. This sample limits the generalisability of the findings. To illustrate,

other samples may be influenced by different institutional pressures and norms. Thus, future research should consider replicating the study in more diverse samples.

Judgment analysis

As with any research technique, there are strengths and limitations associated with judgment analysis. An evaluation of this research methodology is documented in the following paragraphs.

An advantage of judgment analysis is the experimental control afforded to researchers by the designs, with the related ability to manipulate the predictor variables (Graham & Cable, 2001). As articulated by Hoffman (1960), "the amount, kind, and nature of the information available to the clinician or judge can be completely specified in objective terms" (p. 118). In constructing the judgment task, the researcher can minimise cue intercorrelations, which means the unique importance of each cue can be established without being confounded by other factors (Karren & Barringer, 2002). The upside of this experimental control is excluding competing explanations for the findings (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Carroll & Johnson, 1990).

Another strength of judgment analysis is that this technique permits rigorous statistical analyses of judgment policies at an individual level (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Cooksey, 1996; Karren & Barringer, 2002; Priem & Harrison, 1994). This idiographic approach facilitates the exploration of differences between individual decision makers, which was the case in the present research.

Judgment analysis also overcomes the weaknesses of more direct approaches to investigating decision policies (Karren & Barringer, 2002). Models of the judgment process can be derived from the verbal descriptions of a decision maker (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). Judges can be instructed to describe the manner in which the information is utilised to formulate a judgment (Hoffman, 1960; Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). This approach, however, is dependent upon the judges' ability to express their judgment policies and the researcher's ability to extract the pertinent information from the verbal descriptions (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Hoffman, 1960). Furthermore, models derived from verbal descriptions are devoid of an error theory; researchers thus cannot readily differentiate between variance that needs to be explained by the model and error variance (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988).

Alternatively, numerical representations of relative importance can be obtained directly from judges by requesting them to rate or rank the information by importance or distribute points over the information based on importance (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Hammond et al., 1980; Hoffman, 1960; Tomassetti et al., 2016). These self-report

approaches similarly require the judge to possess a high level of insight about their decision policy (Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971), which has been shown to be limited when subjective reports are compared against the patterns derived from mathematical analyses (Hoffman, 1960).

Furthermore, as demonstrated by Tomassetti et al. (2016), these self-report techniques are more susceptible to socially desirable responding than judgment analysis. In their research, Tomassetti et al. compared responses from judgment analysis with responses from four traditional self-report techniques: rating, forced choice, ranking and points distribution. Participants received varied instructions on how to respond to questions about job characteristics that differed in their social desirability.

Tomassetti et al. (2016) found that, for the traditional self-report techniques, participants reported more socially desirable responses when instructed to respond in a socially desirable manner, as compared with when instructed to respond honestly or warned not to respond dishonestly. This effect was not present for judgment analysis. Thus, by utilising judgment analysis, the current research minimises the managers' opportunity to respond in a socially desirable manner.

A potential limitation of judgment analysis is the realism of the judgment task (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Carroll & Johnson, 1990; Karren & Barringer, 2002). Managers would receive requests for work-life benefits sporadically, rather than evaluating 16 requests at one point in time (cf. Sweet et al., 2015). In everyday life, decision makers tend to reach one decision after deliberating on a single set of conditions, whereas in judgment analysis studies, participants reach several decisions in a short time span under constantly changing sets of conditions (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002).

Relatedly, judgment analysis can explore only a limited subset of relevant information (Stewart, 1988). In this instance, three information cues were manipulated. Tenure with the organisation and reporting relationships were controlled across vignettes. Decision makers would have access to other data in their usual decision making context (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988), and the information available may vary from one subordinate to another subordinate (Hoffman, 1960). Furthermore, decision makers seldom reach decisions based on information in short vignettes presented on paper (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002).

The principle of representative design prohibits orthogonal cues (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). Arranging the cues orthogonally disrupts their intersubstitutability, which is incongruent with vicarious functioning (Hammond,

1955). For the present research, all cue intercorrelations were set to zero, even though type of work-life benefit, performance and gender are unlikely to be independent of each other. However, as discussed, the combination of these cues did not produce any implausible vignettes.

Judgment analysis is premised on the assumption that a judge identifies pertinent information, assigns weights to this information based on perceived importance and then combines the information to form a judgment (Doherty & Brehmer, 1997). Furthermore, the information is combined by the judge in a linear, additive manner (Hammond, 1955). Thus, the linear model is deemed an appropriate mathematical model to represent the judgment process (Hoffman, 1960). This conception of human judgment raises two questions: what are researchers trying to achieve by deriving a mathematical model, and how adequate is the linear model at representing the judgment process.

In response to the first question, Hoffman (1960) stated, "mathematical models are designed to provide a scheme whereby one set of events may be satisfactorily predicted from another, and whereby testable derivations may lead to more complete theoretical understanding of the phenomena" (p. 124). Mathematical models need to promote greater understanding, assist with communication and provide testable hypotheses about the target domain (Doherty & Brehmer, 1997). With judgment analysis, researchers derive a mathematical model as a means for describing and predicting human judgment (Hammond, 1955; Hoffman, 1960).

In response to the second question on the adequacy of the linear model, Hoffman (1960) argued that all mathematical models are incomplete. Therefore, our expectations of the linear model need to be moderated by this predicament. Hoffman labelled the linear models derived from judgment analysis paramorphic representations of the judgment process. Paramorph is a term from mineralogy; a substance is a paramorph of another substance when they have the same chemical composition, but different crystalline structures. Applied as an analogy to judgment analysis, Hoffman was emphasising that descriptions of judgment can vary based on the perspective assumed (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). Thus, linear models can generate the same judgment as the human decision maker, even without accurately representing the underlying cognitive process (Carroll & Johnson, 1990).

Hoffman (1960) acknowledged that the mathematical description of human judgment with linear models accounts for some properties or characteristics of the judge, but not all. In Hoffman's words, "there are other properties of judgment still

undescribed, and it is not known how completely or how accurately the underlying process has been represented" (p. 125), but for the scientific purposes of description and explanation such models suffice. Social judgment theorists emphasise the utility of a given model for describing the judgment process over the mathematical precision in modelling the process (Hammond et al., 1975).

Indeed, the analysis of judgments is not restricted to linear models, with early theorists acknowledging more complex, nonlinear models may be appropriate to describe the judgment process (Hammond et al., 1975; Hoffman, 1960; Slovic & Lichtenstein, 1971). The adequacy of the linear model needs to be critically evaluated but, as Stewart (1988) stated, "the linear model should be abandoned reluctantly... for to do so may introduce complexities into the analysis that outweigh possible gains in accuracy" (p. 57-8). The linear model is conceptually simple and descriptively powerful (Hammond et al., 1975). Research using multiple regression analysis to model human judgment has also proved useful for describing, predicting and understanding this topic (Carroll & Johnson, 1990; Cooksey, 1996; Karelaia & Hogarth, 2008).

Judgment analysis was deemed an effective structural technique to evaluate the relationship between the information presented and information used by managers when reviewing requests for work-life benefits (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988). This research method provided insights into the decision making of managers and permitted a comparison with research previously conducted on this topic.

Cross-sectional design

The study employed a cross-sectional research design. Hence, definitive conclusions about the direction of the relationships investigated cannot be drawn. In particular, the relationships could be in the opposite direction than predicted. For example, participants might tend to approve requests. To justify this behaviour, they might maintain that employees tend to be trustworthy. Consequently, approval of requests might affect trustworthiness rather than vice versa. Given the predictions of the research were based on established theories and previous findings, the hypothesised direction of the relationships are plausible, although longitudinal studies would be helpful to confirm the direction of causation.

Common method bias

The data collected in the present research were all derived from self-report measures, which raises the issue of common method bias. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012) defined method bias as "the biasing effects that measuring two or more constructs with the same method may have on estimates of the relationships

between them" (p. 540). The concern with utilising the same method to measure different constructs is that part of the observed covariation may be attributed to the method of measurement. To minimise method bias, Podsakoff et al. recommended addressing any barriers that may prevent participants from responding accurately when designing the study, such as the capability of the participants and the difficulty of the task. The motivation to provide accurate responses also needs consideration.

For the present research, several procedural remedies were implemented to control method biases. The sample included managers familiar with the decision task, thus the difficulty of the task was commensurate with the participants' ability. The difficulty of responding accurately was also reduced by ensuring the language in the questionnaire was clear, unambiguous and concise.

A source of method bias arises from the tendency of people to respond in a socially desirable manner. This bias limits the accuracy of responses because respondents are unwilling to respond truthfully. As mentioned, the intention was to control for social desirability, but the scale was unreliable. Participants were assured of confidentiality, which Podsakoff et al. (2012) indicated improves respondents' motivation to answer accurately, particularly through minimising the inclination to respond in a socially desirable manner. Furthermore, as documented by Tomassetti et al. (2016), judgment analysis is more resistant to socially desirable responding than traditional self-report techniques.

Podsakoff et al. (2012) explained that the design of the study also needs to minimise the motivation to respond stylistically. This recommendation was considered by including scales with negatively and positively worded items, by physically separating the measures by presenting each scale on a single page and by employing different anchor labels for the predictor and criterion variables.

Another procedural remedy to limit method bias proposed by Podsakoff et al. (2012) is obtaining measures of the predictor and criterion variables from different sources. In this instance, a multisource strategy would entail the managers completing the decision-making task and their subordinates or other work colleagues rating them on the individual difference variables. Work-family scholars have advocated for researchers to gather multisource data (Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011; Poelmans & Beham, 2008; Williams et al., 2016), and adopting this approach would enable the present findings to be verified.

Method bias is a potential limitation of this research because all measures were self-report. However, based on the recommendations of Podsakoff et al. (2012),

procedures were implemented in the design of the study to diminish method biases. Thus, the relationships observed in the study should reflect substantive effects, rather than common method bias. Furthermore, future research could adopt a multisource strategy to verify the findings.

Motivational and interpersonal orientations: Conceptual and measurement considerations

This research investigated the influence of a range of motivational and interpersonal orientations. Commentators have critiqued and discussed these individual difference variables. In the following sections, the constructs are reviewed, with consideration given to the conceptual criticisms and potential measurement issues raised in the literature. Suggestions are proposed for future research.

Regulatory focus

Regulatory focus was measured with a scale developed by Lockwood et al. (2002). Modifications were required to ensure the scale was applicable in a work-context; thus, future research could perhaps utilise a work-related measure. Work-specific measures of regulatory focus have been developed (e.g., Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008; C. Wallace & Chen, 2006). Lanaj et al. (2012) found, in their meta-analysis, that work-based regulatory focus was, in general, more strongly related to work attitudes and behaviours than general regulatory focus; therefore, this change in measurement approach seems prudent.

Regulatory focus is studied as both a stable dispositional variable and a psychological state that can be induced or primed (Gorman et al., 2012; Motyka et al., 2014; Scholer & Higgins, 2011). Future research, therefore, could replicate the existing findings by experimentally manipulating managers' regulatory focus. Motyka et al. (2014) explained that the means for inducing regulatory focus include self-priming, whereby regulatory orientation is generated by participants reflecting on their own behaviour, and situation-priming, whereby the situation is utilised to foster a specific regulatory orientation.

Drawing on previous approaches for self-generated priming (Higgins et al., 1994; Lockwood et al., 2002), future research could prime promotion goals by asking managers to describe a positive work outcome they want to achieve and the strategies that could be used to successfully promote this outcome. Alternatively, prevention goals could be primed by asking managers to describe a negative work outcome they seek to avoid and the strategies that could be used to successfully prevent this outcome.

Thus, future research could consider both employing a work-related measure of regulatory focus and replicating the existing study by experimentally manipulating managers' regulatory focus.

Affective commitment

The managers' level of affective commitment was measured with N. J. Allen and Meyer's (1990) organisational commitment scale. The adequacy of this measure has been questioned. Researchers have raised concerns about specific items, including violations of content and construct validity (Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett et al., 1994; Jaros, 1997), and the presence of a reverse-scoring method factor encompassing the negatively-worded items (Magazine, Williams, & Williams, 1996; Merritt, 2012).

Culpepper (2000) proposed and tested a revised version to address these criticisms. Based on a review of five published studies, the items with consistently weak performance from exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were eliminated. Five items were removed; one from the ACS. Through confirmatory factor analysis, Culpepper demonstrated that the revised scales improved construct measurement.

Scholars have also raised concerns about whether affective and normative commitment differ (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer et al. (2002) found the corrected correlation between affective and normative commitment was substantial ($\rho = .63$), signifying considerable overlap. In contrast, the correlations between continuance commitment and both affective ($\rho = .05$) and normative ($\rho = .18$) commitment were modest. Furthermore, the pattern of correlations that relate affective and normative commitment to antecedent, correlate and consequence variables were similar. The magnitude of the correlations, however, often differed. N. J. Allen and Meyer (1990) argued that feeling obliged to remain with an organisation is related, but not identical, to feeling a desire to remain.

Given the strong relationship between affective and normative commitment, Meyer et al. (2002) recommended that researchers control for the influence of normative commitment to detect the unique impact of affective commitment, and vice versa. Future research should, therefore, measure both components of organisational commitment. Relatedly, future research could examine the influence of commitment profiles on managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Commitment profiles represent the strengths of the three components of commitment (N. J. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). That is, individuals are profiled based on their desire, need and obligation to remain with an

organisation. As Meyer and Allen (1991) explained, an employee may feel a strong desire and a strong need to remain with an organisation, with only a limited obligation.

Meyer, Maltin, et al. (2012) cautioned that conclusions drawn on the basis of relationships with the individual components of organisational commitment may be misleading. Thus, in line with their advice, future research should consider the commitment profiles of managers. Furthermore, the shortened version of the scales presented by Culpepper (2000) may be worthy of inclusion.

Self-construals

Self-construals were measured with a scale developed by Singelis (1994), which is grounded on the premise, as articulated by Markus and Kitayama (1991), that people adopt either an independent or interdependent self-construal. Scholars, however, have questioned the proposition that independent and interdependent self-construals are dichotomous (Hackman et al., 1999; Holland et al., 2004; Kim & Raja, 2003; Matsumoto, 1999; Singelis, 1994). Individuals are rather positioned as possessing both independent and interdependent self-construals.

Singelis (1994) explained that independent and interdependent self-construals coexist in individuals as tendencies of varying strength, and the relative strength of the self-construals is determined by the person's development and the situation. Thus, independent and interdependent self-construals are not polar opposites as their labels may imply (Kim & Raja, 2003), but rather separate, unrelated dimensions of the self. Thus, multiple views of the self can co-exist and influence behaviour to varying extents.

The dimensionality of self-construals has also been questioned. Markus and Kitayama (1991) described two self-construals and Singelis (1994) designed the Self-Construal Scale (SCS) to capture these two constructs. Further analyses, however, have revealed multiple dimensions may be represented. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses have indicated that the fit of the two-factor model is inadequate (Bresnahan et al., 2005; Hardin et al., 2004; Levine, Bresnahan, Park, Lapinski, Wittenbaum, et al., 2003). This conclusion is not dissimilar to the findings originally presented by Singelis (1994), who stated the two-factor model was superior to the one-factor model but was "only adequate" (p. 586). A better fit to the data can be obtained with models of more than two factors (Grace & Cramer, 2003; Hardin, 2006; Hardin et al., 2004). Thus, multiple factors appear to be represented in the SCS, which implies self-construals may be multidimensional.

Researchers have acknowledged that further conceptual work is required to refine the construct of self-construals and its measurement (Gudykunst & Lee, 2003;

Hardin, 2006; Hardin et al., 2004; Kim & Raja, 2003; Levine, Bresnahan, Park, Lapinski, Lee, et al., 2003; Levine, Bresnahan, Park, Lapinski, Wittenbaum, et al., 2003). Gudykunst and Lee (2003) argued, however, that the two-dimensional model of self-construals and the scales employed to measure this construct remain viable for future research. These scholars referenced another source of evidence for construct validity: theoretically consistent findings across approximately 50 studies.

An alternate perspective on self-construals is provided by Harb and Smith (2008), who extended Markus and Kitayama's (1991) work by drawing on theoretical developments in social and cross-cultural psychology. Harb and Smith presented a model of self-construals that incorporates four levels: personal, relational, collective and humanity. The personal self focuses on the self as unique, autonomous and differentiated from others. This construct reflects the independent self-construal. The remaining three self-representations clarify differences in the interdependent self-construal. The relational self focuses on the self in relation to dyadic relationships or small in-groups, such as family. The collective self focuses on the self in relation to larger in-groups, such as political, government or religious memberships. The humanity self focuses on the self as a universal representation – the self as it belongs to the human race. Thus, the interdependent self is contextualised by referencing the specific group with which an individual is connected.

Harb and Smith's (2008) model further differentiates self-construals and provides a potentially improved scale to measure these constructs. Future research could incorporate these additional self-representations. In particular, investigating the effect of the relational, collective and humanity self-construals on managers' receptivity to dependence may provide additional insights.

Implicit theories

Implicit theories were measured with a scale developed by Dweck et al. (1995a). Dweck and associates presumed people adopt either an entity theory or an incremental theory: believing that something cannot change is deemed the logical opposite of believing it can change (Dweck et al., 1995b). In their writings, individuals are labelled according to the typology of entity theorist or incremental theorist (Peterson, 1995) and, in their measurement approach, disagreement with an entity theory is assumed to equate to agreement with an incremental theory (Schunk, 1995). Finally, in research, the midpoint is often used as a cut-off to select entity and incremental theorists and to exclude individuals deemed to adopt no clear theory (Dweck et al., 1995a).

Rather than a dichotomy, where entity and incremental theories are mutually exclusive belief systems, scholars have suggested people possess both types of implicit theories. Critics cite two pieces of evidence to support this assertion: the endorsement of incremental items by entity theorists when both theories are included in a measure (Darley, 1995; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1995), and the experimental manipulation of implicit theories by researchers with relatively simple means (Anderson, 1995; Darley, 1995). A dichotomy between entity and incremental theorists may be artificial. Both implicit theories may be available, with the one used in a specific situation being influenced by motivation, salience or other environmental cues (Anderson, 1995; Kruglanski, 1995).

Dweck and Leggett (1988) acknowledged that, for research purposes, implicit theories are treated as a dichotomous variable and bimodal distributions of theory scores are often used. But these authors also wrote they are keen to "determine more precisely the exact nature of individuals' theories (e.g., ...whether some individuals hold blends of the two theories)" (p. 263). In other articles, Dweck and colleagues have conceded that both theories "represent basic modes of thought that are at some level familiar to most individuals" (Chiu, Dweck, et al., 1997, p. 26; Dweck et al., 1995b).

Indeed, Dweck and Elliott (1983) suggested a mature view of intelligence could represent an integration of the two perspectives. The importance of situational factors in determining behaviour are also recognised. Dispositions are positioned as individual difference variables that establish the *a priori* probability of displaying a specific behaviour, and situational influences can alter these probabilities (Dweck et al., 1993; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). This account of the literature indicates further research is required to clarify whether these theories are actually opposite ends of a continuum (Schunk, 1995).

The stability of implicit theories has also been examined by commentators. Harackiewicz and Elliot (1995) questioned whether Dweck and colleagues are entity or incremental theorists in their understanding of implicit theories. That is, do they conceptualise implicit theories as fixed world views or malleable perspectives? Implicit theories are presented as relatively stable personal attributes, thus reflecting a fixed world view. Robins and Pals (2002) supported this assertion by demonstrating normative stability and consistent individual differences.

Implicit theories have, however, been experimentally manipulated, thus indicating these beliefs are malleable to some extent. Adherence to a particular theory can also change over time (Kruglanski, 1995; Robins & Pals, 2002). Dweck et al. (1995a)

conceded that implicit theories should be regarded as "relatively stable but malleable personal qualities, rather than as fixed dispositions" (p. 279). Further investigation is required to resolve the debate about the stability of implicit theories (Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1995; M. Lewis, 1995; Schunk, 1995).

In addition to issues about the nature of implicit theories, commentators have questioned the measurement approach adopted by Dweck and colleagues. Concerns have been raised about the potentially negative tone of the items (Darley, 1995), the considerable overlap in the content of items (Sorrentino, 1995; Weiner, 1995) and the exclusion of incremental items (Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1995; Schunk, 1995; Sorrentino, 1995; Weiner, 1995). In addition, Peterson (1995) challenged the wording of the items for including concepts of perceived control, arguing that the construct of potential for change is confounded by including notions of control.

An alternate implicit theory measure has been created by Levy et al. (1998). The scale is labelled beliefs about human nature and includes questions for both an entity theory and an incremental theory. An example item is "People can substantially change the kind of person they are". The scale demonstrates encouraging psychometric properties. The Cronbach alpha's reported in a series of studies have all exceeded .90 (Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005; Heslin et al., 2006; Levy et al., 1998).

Thus, future research could employ the measure developed by Levy et al. (1998) to verify the present findings. In addition, given researchers have successfully manipulated implicit theories (e.g., Chiu, Hong, et al., 1997; Heslin et al., 2005; Heslin et al., 2006; Levy et al., 1998), future research could also adopt an experimental approach to examine the causal relationship between implicit theories and managers' tendency to approve requests from subordinates' for work-life benefits.

Interpersonal trust

Interpersonal trust was measured with the Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS) developed by Rotter (1967). Commentators have raised concerns about the ITS, especially with respect to the dimensionality of the ITS. Evidence indicates the scale is composed of multiple factors (Chun & Campbell, 1974; Hunt et al., 1983; Kaplan, 1973; Rotenberg, 1990; Tedeschi & Wright, 1980; Wright & Tedeschi, 1975). For example, Rotenberg conducted factor analysis with a sample of elderly individuals and found evidence for four factors: dependability of social-legal organisations, fear of being cheated, dependability of specific social groups to fulfil their promises and adherence to trustworthy ideals within society. Rotenberg explained that the heterogeneous nature of the scale can be attributed to the diverse and additive nature of the scale, which was

intended by Rotter. Utilising the factors is recommended when the research question is theoretically related to the dimensions (Walker & Robinson, 1979).

Wright and Sharp (1979) claimed the ITS is biased toward sampling trust toward men, thus providing a conservative estimate of trust toward women. These researchers examined two types of sex bias in responses: content sex bias, which occurs when there is an imbalance of genders represented in the referents of items, and grammatical sex bias, which occurs when sex neutral items are interpreted as sex-specific by respondents. Wright and Sharp hypothesised and demonstrated that both types of sex bias were operating because the ITS items sample reference groups that are both predominantly male and non-sex-specific. Although Wright and Sharp's findings suggest a sex bias on the ITS, their research was conducted in the 1970s. Future research could be conducted to replicate their study because sex-role attitudes may have changed significantly over the intervening decades.

The current research measured trust toward a generalised other – that is, someone with whom the individual has not interacted frequently (Rotter, 1980). Evidence indicates, however, that managers may be less trusting of subordinates in general than responses to the ITS suggest. In their study of financial sector organisations, Bond et al. (2002) found managers regarded employees as essentially untrustworthy. This assertion concurs with Lau and Liden's (2008) finding that leaders reported low trust in employees. Therefore, future research could examine the influence of managers' generalised trust of subordinates on their approval tendency for work-life benefits. A measure of generalised trust of subordinates could not be located, but other papers provide examples of measures of trust for specific referents (e.g., Currall & Judge, 1995; Hall, Camacho, Dugan, & Balkrishnan, 2002; Mayer & Davis, 1999).

The present research was restricted to examining generalised trust because the managers had not established relationships with the subordinates they were reading about. Interpersonal trust shapes the level of trust between two parties before any relationship exists (Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister, 1997; McKnight et al., 1998). If future research employed vignettes about actual subordinates, the trust of the manager toward the subordinate could be investigated. For a study on existing relationships between managers and subordinates, actual trust between the two parties would be a more relevant construct because disposition to trust becomes less influential in ongoing relationships (Currall & Judge, 1995; McKnight et al., 1998).

In addition to examining the level of trust towards specific subordinates, future research could also examine the nature of that trust. Trust entails both cognitive and

relational foundations, with the influence of each varying as relationships develop (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; McAllister, 1995, 1997; McKnight et al., 1998). In the initial stage of trust formation, calculus-based trust evolves, which is founded on beliefs about another person's reliability, dependability and predictability (McAllister, 1995, 1997). As parties share experiences and acquire knowledge about each other, affect-based trust may emerge, which is founded on a mutual recognition and appreciation of the needs, priorities and preferences of each person (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

Thus, researchers should be conscious of the concerns raised about the ITS, including the multidimensionality of the scale and potential gender bias. Future research could also consider measuring generalised trust toward subordinates if vignettes about hypothetical employees were utilised. Alternatively, if vignettes were presented about actual employees, trust toward the specific subordinate could be assessed. The nature of trust could also be investigated, given that calculus-based trust and affect-based trust may generate different effects on managers' tendency to approve subordinates' requests for work-life benefits.

Future research

The preceding discussion of the individual difference variables included in the present research highlighted several avenues for future research, including alternate measures and the experimental manipulation of the orientations. In this section, other avenues for future research are detailed.

Measuring disruption

Work disruption theory proposes that employees and managers respond negatively to situations that may disrupt the conduct of work (Powell, 2001; Powell & Mainiero, 1999). With respect to work-life benefits, Powell and Mainiero argued that managers consider the potential for disruption when evaluating requests. The concept of disruption requires further consideration.

Powell and Mainiero (1999) maintained that some work-life benefits are more disruptive than other benefits. In the present research, working from home was assumed to be more disruptive than taking a career break. Perceived disruption, however, was not actually measured. Therefore, future research should evaluate managers' perceptions about disruption. Managers could rate work-life benefits on the extent to which the arrangement would disrupt the conduct of work. The way the arrangement was structured could also be assessed. For example, managers could be asked to rate the level of disruption for telecommuting occasionally versus regularly.

Qualitative research could also be conducted to explore what specifically managers find disruptive about work-life benefits.

Thus, research on the concept of disruption as it relates to work-life benefits would be judicious. Powell (2001) recommended further research on the cognitive processes underlying assessments of work disruption. This would clarify how managers understand disruption and the influence these perceptions have on their attitudes and behaviours.

Examining alternate work-life benefits

In the current study, managers' decisions for requests to work from home or take a career break were evaluated. These arrangements were selected based on previous research by Powell and Mainiero (1999). Furthermore, it was predicted that these benefits might generate diverging responses from managers because they affect operational and strategic imperatives to different extents. This was evident.

Future research could compare managers' decisions as they relate to other work-life benefits. Telecommuting and flextime are the two most commonly available workplace flexibility arrangements (Society for Human Resource Management, 2015). Flextime is also the most highly valued arrangement by employees (Haar & Spell, 2004; Hill, Jacob, et al., 2008). As such, studies could explore the factors that influence managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for flextime.

Investigating the impact of other predictor variables

This research investigated the influence of managers' gender, along with five motivational and interpersonal orientations, on the decisions reached about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Future research could clarify the role of managers' gender and also investigate the influence of additional individual difference variables beyond those studied in this thesis.

In their research, Hill, Jacob et al. (2008) demonstrated that the use of workplace flexibility could best be explained by considering gender in the context of life stage, rather than considering the influences of gender and parental status separately. Similarly, Crouter (1984) utilised gender and stage in the life cycle to explain the experience of spillover from family life to the workplace. The perspective of life stages presents an interesting option for future research, especially given the non-significant effect of managers' gender on approvals. The present research examined the influence of managers' gender on their decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits and controlled for parental status, but did not consider life stage.

In Straub's (2012) multilevel conceptual framework covering the antecedents of family-supportive supervisor behaviour, managers are positioned to be more likely to demonstrate support when they are in work-family intense life course and family life stages. Thus, considering the life stages demarcated by Crouter (1984) and Hill, Jacob et al. (2008) and their respective findings about spillover and the use of workplace flexibility, female managers should be more likely to approve requests when children are present in the home, whereas gender would be unrelated to approvals when men and women are in life stages without parenting responsibilities or with older children.

T. D. Allen (2012) has advocated for researchers to consider individual differences that relate specifically to work-family, such as the preference for integration versus segmentation. This orientation predicts that some managers prefer work and family roles to be integrated, whereas other managers prefer the domains of work and family to be segmented (Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2016). Poelmans and Beham (2008) proposed that supervisors with work-family values that emphasise segmentation would reach less favourable work-life policy allowance decisions than supervisors whose work-family values emphasise integration of work and family. Future research could test this proposition by measuring managers' preferences for integration as opposed to segmentation.

Thus, investigating gender in the context of life stage may provide additional insights about how this demographic variable influences managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. Furthermore, including the preference for segmentation versus integration would extend the research beyond the motivational and interpersonal orientations already investigated.

Controlling for context

Managers' reach decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits within a broader organisational context. Previous research has considered some aspects of the work environment. For instance, Beham et al. (2015) investigated the influence of formal policies and the family-supportiveness of the organisational culture on managers' responses to employees' requests for telework. Other context variables examined include the composition of the workforce, organisational size and industry (Beham et al., 2015; den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008; K. J. Klein et al., 2000; Peters et al., 2010). Future research should measure aspects of the organisational context that may shape managers' decisions. For instance, managers who work within organisations that employ a high percentage of women, especially senior women, may face greater institutional pressures to approve requests from women.

Practical considerations may also be relevant at the level of the workgroup, such as the percentage of the team already using a work-life benefit. For instance, Sweet et al. (2016) found that flexible work arrangement (FWA) use contracted over time in work teams where pre-existing use was higher. Managers may perceive work-life benefits as more disruptive when a large portion of the team members are already working flexibly.

An alternate approach for considering organisational context would involve replicating the research in a single organisation. This approach would control for organisational context, thus precluding alternate explanations for the findings about managers' decisions on work-life benefits.

Employing complementary research approaches

The research discipline of judgment and decision making (JDM) offers a multitude of techniques for exploring human judgments and decisions. The structural approach of judgment analysis was employed in this research to identify the information that managers consider when reaching decisions about hypothetical subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. To complement this approach, other methods for gathering data on managers' decisions could be considered for future research.

As detailed, structural methods focus on the outcomes of decision processes, whereas process methods focus on the process of decision making (Highhouse, 2001). Given the present research utilised a structural approach, future research could utilise process approaches, such as verbal protocols and information search. Process techniques would provide insights into the cognitive activities underpinning the decisions reached by managers when evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits (A. Brehmer & Brehmer, 1988; Carroll & Johnson, 1990; Dawes, 1998; Priem & Harrison, 1994; Priem et al., 2011; Stevenson et al., 1990).

Verbal protocols entail decision makers articulating their thought processes as they reach a decision (Carroll & Johnson, 1990; Priem & Harrison, 1994; Priem et al., 2011). Thus, in the present context, verbal protocols would involve presenting vignettes to managers and asking them to think aloud as they decided whether to approve or deny the request.

Information search entails presenting information to decision makers and monitoring the information examined and the sequence in which the information is acquired (Carroll & Johnson, 1990; Priem & Harrison, 1994; Priem et al., 2011). Applying this research technique to the current context would entail presenting managers with a display of information about a subordinate requesting a work-life benefit and examining the information requested by the manager to reach a decision.

By having managers 'talk through' their decisions or search for information, future research could provide an understanding of how managers reach decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits, along with eliciting further insights about the information managers consider when reaching these types of decisions (Carroll & Johnson, 1990; Priem & Harrison, 1994).

Future research could also examine a sample of actual requests submitted by subordinates and the decisions reached about these requests by managers. Managers' decision policies could thus be modelled on real decisions. Work-family scholars have advocated for research to be conducted on real decisions with real supervisors in real organisational settings (S. Lewis, 2003; Poelmans & Beham, 2008).

The clear challenge with analysing actual decisions is the ability to control extraneous variables. Furthermore, a restriction of range may skew the findings: Managers who are perceived as being unsupportive are less likely to receive requests from subordinates (den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008; Lauzun et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2010; Veiga et al., 2004). Managers may also only report requests that have been approved (Lauzun et al., 2010).

Thus, more exploratory, process research methods could be employed to unpack the thought processes of managers as they evaluate requests from subordinates for work-life benefits. This research may also identify additional information cues that managers consider when reaching decisions about requests. These information cues could then be tested with a judgment analysis study to verify whether the cues are used in practice. Furthermore, future research could investigate managers' decisions for actual vignettes as opposed to hypothetical situations.

Contributions to theory

This thesis expands the existing body of research on managerial decision making on work-life benefits, and more broadly shapes the research fields and theories upon which the research was based. These contributions are considered in this section.

Three research fields informed the research: work and family, JDM and psychology. The intersection between these disciplines arose because the work-family field established the topic for the research – managers' decisions about requests from subordinates for work-life benefits – whereas JDM provided the methodology to examine the decision and psychology augmented the understanding of the decision by providing insights about individual differences. This study, therefore, demonstrates the value of employing JDM research techniques, and applying psychology's insights about individual differences, in the work-family context.

Commentators have outlined the merits of conducting further research on managerial decision making on work-life benefits, including the potential to inform research and also influence the actual practice of decision making (Poelmans, 2005; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). The current study extends this research agenda by demonstrating the influence of individual differences on managers' decisions about subordinates' requests for work-life benefits. The inclusion of individual differences is an emerging area of research in the work-family field (T. D. Allen, 2012; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011) and I/O psychology (Mohammed & Schwall, 2009), and the findings from this study reinforce the relevance of this research.

The present research also confirms the relevance of the theoretical frameworks of work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour for understanding managerial decision making on work-life benefits. Helping behaviour had not been previously applied in this context. Consistent with previous research documenting the influence of characteristics of the potential helper (Dovidio, 1995; Dovidio & Penner, 2001; Piliavin et al., 1981), the current findings indicate that managers vary in the predisposition to display the helping behaviour of approving subordinates' requests for work-life benefits, and this variability can partly be attributed to individual differences.

The theories of work disruption and dependency are often contradictory in their predictions. For instance, based on work disruption theory, managers should be more reluctant to approve requests from high performing employees because of the potential for disruption to the conduct of work. Dependency theory predicts the opposite: managers should be more likely to approve requests from high performing employees because they are dependent upon these individuals and want to retain them. The present findings align with dependency theory. Managers emphasised the long-term prospect of retaining a high performing employee, rather than the short-term prospect of managing the disruption that would arise from allowing a high performing employee to utilise a work-life benefit.

Work-family scholars have acknowledged the dilemma that managers face in evaluating subordinates' requests for work-life benefits (Beham et al., 2015; den Dulk & de Ruijter, 2008; den Dulk et al., 2011). As explained by den Dulk and de Ruijter (2008), granting requests from critical employees could foster commitment and the retention of valued resources, but could also jeopardise the achievement of short-term outcomes. The manager is faced with costs for both decisions. Granting requests entails costs because the conduct of work can be disrupted and not granting requests entails costs because the productivity of employees experiencing work-life conflict could deteriorate

and, in due course, prompt an employee to leave the organisation. Managers are thus forced to reconcile these conflicting demands.

Thus, this study verifies the relevance of considering individual difference variables in research on the work-family interface and the applicability of the theoretical frameworks of work disruption, dependency, institutional and helping behaviour for understanding managerial decision making on work-life benefits.

Implications for practice

Kossek, Baltes, et al. (2011) stated that the improvement achieved in the lives of employees is not commensurate with the extent of research that has been undertaken by work-family scholars. The sentiment that researchers need to devote additional attention to articulating the practical implications of their findings has been expressed by other work-family scholars (Kossek & Thompson, 2016; Major & Lauzun, 2010; Van Deusen, James, Gill, & McKechnie, 2008). The present research, therefore, addresses this implementation gap between research and practice by providing practical suggestions on how to foster managerial support for the utilisation of work-life benefits within organisations. The implications for practice emanating from this thesis are detailed in the following paragraphs.

The managers in the present research rejected 31 percent of the requests. Powell and Mainiero (1999) argued managers oppose work-life benefits partly because of inadequate incentives to support these arrangements. Thus, managers may be more inclined to approve the less disruptive arrangements, especially when they adopt a prevention focus or experience low affective commitment with a promotion focus, because they lack inducements to contend with the potential disruptiveness presented by work-life benefits. Without providing adequate enticements to managers, certain types of work-life benefits may receive weak support within organisations.

Work-family scholars have recommended rewarding managers for demonstrating support and facilitating access to work-life benefits (de Sivatte et al., 2015; Epstein et al., 2015; Major & Lauzun, 2010; Straub, 2012; Sweet et al., 2015; Sweet et al., 2016). By including criteria in a performance assessment relating to behavioural support of employees work-family needs, managers are motivated to attend to these behavioural expectations (Major & Lauzun, 2010).

Support for this proposition has been provided by Sweet et al. (2015; 2016). Through a case study in a financial services organisation, Sweet and colleagues documented the outcomes from a 'Supervisor-Promoted Flexibility' program. The change initiative was designed to enhance access to, and utilisation of, flexible work

options by encouraging managers to initiate discussions with their subordinates about FWA use. Training resources and other supports were provided to managers as part of the program. In addition, the organisation removed structural constraints that could limit flexible working. Five FWAs were formally available. Bimonthly surveys with the managers captured the volume of conversations occurring, along with who most typically initiated the discussion and the impact on FWA use within the work team.

Sweet et al. (2015; 2016) found that managers' participation in the program, and consequently whether the team experienced expansion or contraction of FWA use, was influenced by the managers' beliefs about potential career rewards. More specifically, when managers believed that promoting flexibility would result in a positive performance review, conversations were more frequent and more likely to be initiated by the manager, plus the work team experienced expansion in FWA use. Organisations would therefore be astute to consider introducing performance incentives for managers to promote the approval of work-life benefit requests.

The findings from the present research also indicate that greater guidance on what can – and cannot – be attended to in the decision-making process needs to be provided to managers to ensure decisions about requests for work-life benefits are consistent and equitable. Work-family scholars have discussed the importance of transparent criteria for accessing programs that should be applied equitably by managers (Major & Cleveland, 2007; Powell & Mainiero, 1999; Reeve et al., 2012). As explained by Powell and Mainiero, managers across an organisation need to evaluate requests based on the same criteria, such that the same decision would be reached by different managers.

In the present research, managers were influenced by their dependence on high performing employees, with this tendency being more pronounced for high-interdependence managers, as compared to low-interdependence managers. Thus, moderate performers were disadvantaged in their access to work-life benefits.

Performance has been deemed a legitimate factor to base decisions on when evaluating requests for work-life benefits. For instance, Barham et al. (1998) argued that managers should consider job requirements, the employees' past performance and the ability of both the employee and team to function effectively under the new arrangement. Indeed, Hewitt Associates (2008) found that organisations did consider performance when assessing employee eligibility for work-life benefits.

Other factors, however, should be irrelevant criteria in the decision-making process, such as gender and family responsibilities (Barham et al., 1998). The present

research found that gender did influence managers' decisions, however. Managers respond to the institutional pressure to approve requests from women when they assume a promotion focus. This finding reinforces the importance of establishing criteria for decision making that guides managers when evaluating requests for work-life benefits. Thus, managers and employees, for example, could be informed that high performance is a pre-requisite for accessing work-life benefits and women and men are equally entitled to utilising these arrangements. Training should be used to educate managers on the criteria for decision making.

Work-family scholars frequently cite training as important for bolstering managerial support for work-life benefits (e.g., Kossek et al., 2014; Kossek & Thompson, 2016; Major & Lauzun, 2010; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Training has been shown to encourage managers to exhibit behavioural support for employees' family and personal lives (Hammer et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2014). Furthermore, Sweet et al. (2015; 2016) found that, when managers participated in training as part of the 'Supervisor-Promoted Flexibility' program, conversations about flexibility were more frequent and more often initiated by the manager. Trained managers were also more likely to experience an expansion in FWA use in the work team when the program launched, although this influence was not sustained over time.

Casper et al. (2004) demonstrated that managers were more supportive of work-life policies and programs when they were aware of these arrangements and perceived the programs as beneficial to the organisation. Managers, however, have been found to possess incomplete knowledge about work-life policies and programs. Indeed, Casper et al. found that the supervisors in their study reported limited awareness of available work-family programs. Similarly, Wise, Bond and their colleagues found that line managers in the financial services organisations they studied were relatively unaware of the formal policy provision (Bond et al., 2002; Wise, 2005; Wise & Bond, 2003). Providing training to managers would, therefore, be advantageous for promoting greater awareness and understanding of work-life benefits, which would in turn encourage managerial support for these arrangements (Casper et al., 2004).

Unfortunately, managers rarely participate in training. In their case studies with four financial services companies, Bond and Wise (2003; 2005) found that managers had been provided with limited training or guidance on their responsibility for implementing the family-friendly policies. Consistent with these case studies, Hewitt Associates (2008) found that nearly two thirds of the organisations in their survey did not provide training to their managers.

The present research also indicates the importance of the mindset with which managers approach the decision-making task of reviewing requests for work-life benefits. For instance, fostering affective commitment amongst managers will lead to individuals with a promotion focus approving more disruptive arrangements, such as working from home. Furthermore, managers are more likely to support requests in general when they adopt an incremental theory, as compared to an entity theory, along with an inclination to trust other people. This observation suggests that, when organisations want to promote greater use and acceptance of work-life benefits, affective commitment, regulatory focus, implicit theories and trust are orientations that can either facilitate or impede these outcomes.

For example, when managers are evaluating requests for work-life benefits, ensuring the task is approached with an incremental mindset would facilitate greater approvals. The manipulation of implicit theories in the workplace has been demonstrated by Heslin and colleagues (2008; 2006). In their research, an intervention was designed to train entity theorists to adopt an incremental theory. The intervention entailed managers participating in a workshop that emphasised how people can change. This simple approach could be applied in organisations to induce a mindset amongst managers that would foster greater support for work-life benefit requests.

Finally, research highlights the importance of encouraging managers to engage in conversations with their subordinates about work-life policies and programs. Lauzun et al. (2010) explored supervisors' responses to employee requests for work-life balance accommodations in a consumer goods organisation. The qualitative research was conducted as part of a workplace intervention that entailed supervisors speaking with their subordinates about their work-life balance needs and subordinates being encouraged to request accommodations to enable work-life balance. At the time of the study, no formal work-life policies existed.

Lauzun et al. (2010) found that, of the 425 managers who participated, 1150 work-life balance requests were received and 752 accommodations implemented. The authors concluded that managers were relatively supportive when faced with requests for work-life balance accommodations. Relatedly, Sweet et al. (2015; 2016) found that the 'Supervisor-Promoted Flexibility' program, which encouraged managers to discuss flexibility with their subordinates, resulted in increased FWA use amongst work teams.

Thus, the incentives afforded to managers, along with the training offered, need consideration if managers are to approve requests for work-life policies and programs. Furthermore, organisations should implement guidelines for managers on the criteria to

be contemplated when evaluating work-life benefit requests. The mindset with which managers approach the decision-making task of reviewing requests also needs to be conducive for approving requests. Finally, merely encouraging managers to discuss flexibility with their subordinates' increases support for work-life policies and programs.

Summary

Managers can act as either significant enablers or barriers to the implementation, uptake and effectiveness of work-life policies and programs. This research sought to understand the decision-making process undertaken by managers when evaluating requests from subordinates to utilise work-life benefits. As Poelmans and Beham (2008) explained, all the effort expended in adopting, designing and implementing work-life policies and programs can be damaged or neutralised when the decision making by supervisors is negative and biased.

Powell and Mainiero (1999) concluded that the variability exhibited in managers' decision making, which could in part be attributed to personal preferences, raises concerns about the consistent and equitable manner in which work-life benefits are implemented. Kossek, Baltes, et al. (2011) explained that managers are unclear how to implement and manage work-family benefits, especially those arrangements that diminish the visibility of employees in the workplace. Implementing these new work arrangements presents challenges to managers and organisations, and thus warrant further consideration. This research helps address these challenges by elucidating the influence of managers' characteristics on the decisions reached when evaluating requests from subordinates to utilise work-life benefits.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Explanatory statement

Project Title: Managers and decision-making

As a manager you are required to make numerous decisions in your work. This email is to invite you to participate in research with Monash University that aims to explore the factors that influence managers' decisions about flexible work arrangements. The findings of this project will hopefully inform decision-making processes for individuals and organisations.

The research is being conducted by Melissa Giles, under the supervision of Dr Simon Moss, a lecturer in the Department of Psychology, and Dr Anne Bardoel, an Associate Professor in the Department of Management. This research is towards a Doctorate at Monash University.

Participation in the research involves completing a questionnaire that takes 60 minutes and can be done at your convenience.

If you consent to participate in the research project, please click on the following link to access the questionnaire. Participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any stage of the project without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

All aspects of the study, including results, will be strictly confidential and only the researchers will have access to the information.

Storage of the data collected will adhere to the University regulations and be kept on University premises in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet for 5 years. A report of the aggregate findings may be submitted for publication.

If you have any queries or would like to be informed of the aggregate research finding, please contact Simon Moss on ████████████████████████████████████

Should you have any complaint concerning the manner in which this research 2005/1000 is conducted, please do not hesitate to contact the Monash University Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans at the following address:

The Secretary

The Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (SCERH)

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Appendix B: Invitation to managers to participate in research

As a manager you are required to make numerous decisions at work. This email is to invite you to participate in research with Monash University that explores the factors that influence managers' decisions about flexible work arrangements.

The research is being conducted by Melissa Giles, under the supervision of Dr Simon Moss, a lecturer in the Department of Psychology, and Dr Anne Bardoel, an Associate Professor in the Department of Management.

Participation involves completing an online questionnaire that takes 30 – 40 minutes and can be done at your convenience. All aspects of the study, including results, will be strictly confidential.

If you consent to participate, please click on the following link to access the questionnaire.

The survey will be open until Friday May 19.

Kind regards

Melissa Giles, Simon Moss and Anne Bardoel

Appendix C: Survey

Welcome page for online survey

Welcome to the online questionnaire on the factors that influence managers' decisions about flexible work arrangements.

Participation in the research is voluntary and you can withdraw without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way. All aspects of the study, including results, will be strictly confidential and only the researchers will have access to the information.

Storage of the data collected will adhere to the University regulations and be kept on University premises in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet for 5 years. A report of the study may be submitted for publication.

If you have any queries or are having difficulties accessing the questionnaire, please contact Melissa Giles on ███████████████████

To start the survey, please complete the following questions. The answers are used to correctly identify you should you want to log-in again and finish the survey at a later time.

Demographic information

Please answer the following questions about yourself.

Gender	Female
	Male
Registered marital status	Never married
	Married
	Separated
	Divorced
	Widowed
Highest level of educational attainment	Postgraduate degree
	Graduate diploma and graduate certificate
	Bachelor degree
	Advanced diploma, diploma or certificate
	Secondary education
Age	(years)
Number of children	(children)
Years managing other people	(years)

Organisational information

Please answer the following questions in relation to the organisation in which you currently work. If you work in more than one organisation, please answer in relation to your primary place of work.

Years with organisation	(years)
Current job level	Chief: Chief Executive Officer, Chief Operating Officer, Chief Financial Officer, etc. Executive: Vice President, Director, Board Level Upper Middle: Department Head, Superintendent, Plant Manager Middle: Team Leader, Senior Professional Staff, Supervisor
Average hours worked per week	1-34 34-40 40-50 50-60 60-70 70+
Number of employees in organisation	0-19 20-199 200-1000 1000+
Industry of organisation	Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing Mining Manufacturing Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services Construction Wholesale Trade Retail Trade Accommodation and Food Services Transport, Postal and Warehousing Information Media and Telecommunications Financial and Insurance Services Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services Professional, Scientific and Technical Services Administrative and Support Services Public Administration and Safety Education and Training Health Care and Social Assistance Arts and Recreation Services Other Services

Predictor variables

Read the following statements and specify the frequency with which you have experienced each feeling.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	From time to time	Often	Very often

1. Feeling that your job negatively affects your psychological well-being.
2. Feeling that your job negatively affects your physical health.
3. Feeling tension about balancing all your responsibilities.
4. Feeling that you should change something about your work in order to balance all your responsibilities.
5. Feeling that your personal commitments interfere with your job.

Read the following statements and specify the extent to which you agree or disagree.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.
2. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at this organisation.
4. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.
5. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.

Read the following statements and respond accordingly using the scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not at all true of me								Very true of me

1. In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life.
2. I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations.
3. I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future.
4. I often worry that I will fail to accomplish my work goals.
5. I often think about how I will achieve work success.
6. I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains.
7. In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life.
8. I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me.
9. Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure.

Read the following statements and specify the extent to which the statement is true or false.

                                              True   False

1. I always try to practice what I preach.

2. I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget.

3. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.

4. I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoings.

5. I never resent being asked to return a favour.

6. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

Read the following statements and specify the extent to which you agree or disagree.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

1. I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact.

2. It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.

3. My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me.

4. I would offer my seat in a bus to my manager.

5. I respect people who are modest about themselves.

6. I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.

7. I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.

8. I should take into consideration my managers' advice when making education or career plans.

9. It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.

10. I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group.

11. If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible.

12. Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument.

Read the following statements and specify the extent to which you agree or disagree.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

1. I'd rather say "No" directly, than risk being misunderstood.

2. Speaking up during a meeting is not a problem for me.

3. Having a lively imagination is important to me.

4. I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards.

5. I am the same person at home as I am at work.

6. Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.

7. I act the same way no matter who I am with.

8. I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon I after I meet them, even when they are much older than I am.

9. I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.

10. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.

11. My personal identity independent of others, is very important to me.

12. I value being in good health above everything.

Read the following statements and specify the extent to which you agree or disagree.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

1. The kind of person someone is, is something basic about them, and it can't be changed very much.

2. People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed.

3. Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much that they can do to really change that.

Read the following statements and specify the extent to which you agree or disagree.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

1. Hypocrisy is on the increase in our society.

2. In dealing with strangers, one is better off to be cautious until they have provided evidence that they are trustworthy.

3. This country has a dark future unless we can attract better people into politics.

4. Parents usually can be relied upon to keep their promises.

5. The judiciary is a place where we can all get unbiased treatment.

6. It is safe to believe that in spite of what people say, most people are primarily interested in their own welfare.

7. Even though we have reports in newspapers, radio and TV, it is hard to get objective accounts of public events.

8. If we really knew what was going on in international politics, the public would have reason to be more frightened than they now seem to be.

9. Many major national sports contests are fixed in one way or another.

10. In these competitive times one has to be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you.

11. Most salesmen are honest in describing their products.

12. Most repairmen will not overcharge even if they think you are ignorant of their speciality.

Scenarios

Read the following hypothetical scenarios about employees in your team that report directly to you and have been with your organisation for 2 – 3 years. For each scenario, evaluate the request and indicate your decision according to the following scale.

1	2	3	4
No	Yes, review in 3 months	Yes, review in 9 months	Yes, review in 12 months or longer

1. An employee in your team has submitted a request to work from home for 2 days per week. This employee has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed with Isabelle's work.

2. Naomi has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical of her work but others are quite impressed. She has submitted a request to take unpaid leave for up to 2-years.

3. Kate has submitted a request to take unpaid leave for up to 2-years. She has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed with her work.

4. You have received a request to work from home for 2 days per week from Molly. She has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical of her work but others are quite impressed.

5. An employee in your team has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed with Josh's work and he has submitted a request to work from home for 2 days per week.

6. An employee in your team has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical but others are quite impressed. You have received a request to take unpaid leave for up to 2-years from this employee, David.

7. Toby has submitted a request to take unpaid leave for up to 2-years. He has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed with his work.

8. You have received a request to work from home for 2 days per week from Kevin. He has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical of his work but others are quite impressed.

9. Fiona has submitted a request to work from home for 2 days per week. She has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed with her work.

10. An employee in your team has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical but others are quite impressed with Jennifer's work. She has submitted a request to take unpaid leave for up to 2-years.

11. An employee in your team has submitted a request to take unpaid leave for up to 2-years. This employee has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed with Jane's work.

12. Alison has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical of her work but others are quite impressed. She has submitted a request to work from home for 2 days per week.

13. An employee in your team has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed. You have received a request to work from home for 2 days per week from this employee, Simon.

14. An employee in your team has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical but others are quite impressed with James' work. He has submitted a request to take unpaid leave for up to 2-years.

15. William has received uniformly positive performance reviews. People are consistently very impressed with his work. He has submitted a request to take unpaid leave for up to 2-years.

16. You have received a request to work from home for 2 days per week from Andrew. He has received mixed performance reviews. Some people are critical of his work but others are quite impressed.

Appendix D: Scree plots from factor analyses

Work-life imbalance

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.630	52.600	52.600	2.099	41.985	41.985
2	.937	18.736	71.337			
3	.731	14.613	85.950			
4	.398	7.958	93.908			
5	.305	6.092	100.000			

Scree Plot
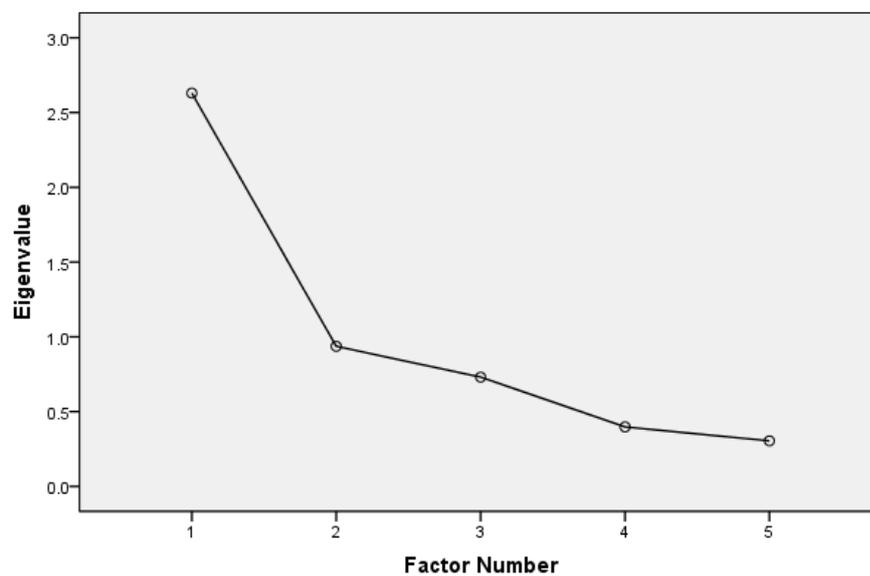
Factor Matrix[a]

	Factor
	1
Balance 4	.777
Balance 3	.711
Balance 1	.690
Balance 2	.600
Balance 5	.391

a.1 factors extracted. 7 iterations required.

Social desirability

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.518	25.307	25.307	.951	15.851	15.851	.714	11.892	11.892
2	1.208	20.140	45.447	.557	9.283	25.134	.709	11.809	23.701
3	1.108	18.461	63.908	.430	7.161	32.295	.516	8.594	32.295
4	.891	14.844	78.752						
5	.713	11.880	90.633						
6	.562	9.367	100.000						

Scree Plot
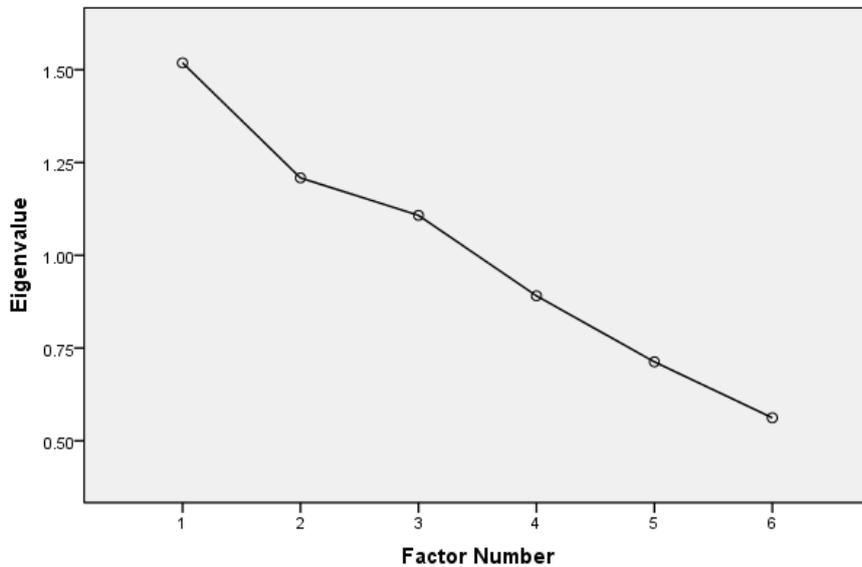
Factor Matrix[a]

	Factor		
	1	2	3
Social desirability 3	.639	.288	-.002
Social desirability 2	.569	-.399	-.296
Social desirability 1	.150	-.149	-.065
Social desirability 4	.239	.512	-.054
Social desirability 5	.162	-.138	.463
Social desirability 6	.337	-.102	.348

a. Attempted to extract 3 factors. More than 25 iterations required.
(Convergence=.006). Extraction was terminated.

Affective commitment

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.835	63.920	63.920	3.472	57.873	57.873
2	.741	12.347	76.268			
3	.633	10.554	86.822			
4	.359	5.982	92.804			
5	.291	4.846	97.650			
6	.141	2.350	100.000			

Scree Plot
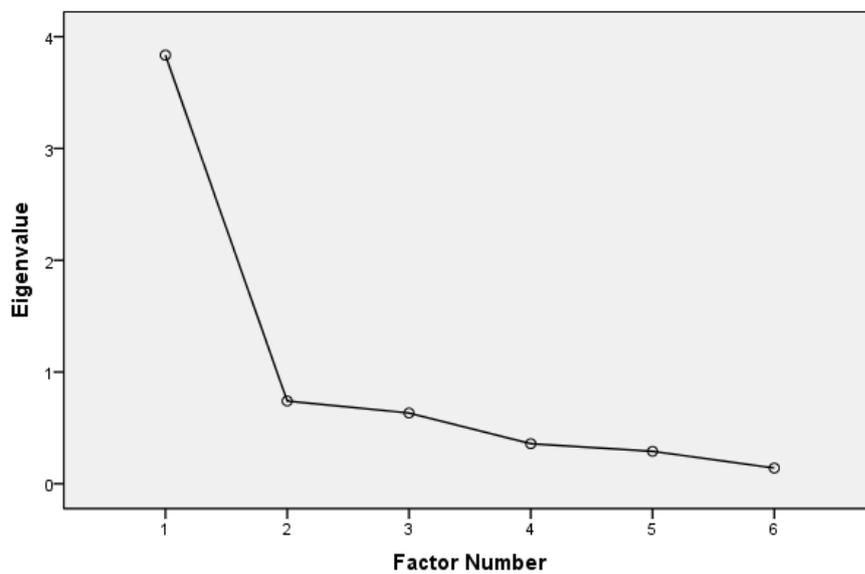
Factor Matrixª

	Factor
	1
Affective commitment 4	.901
Affective commitment 3	.860
Affective commitment 6	.829
Affective commitment 5	.780
Affective commitment 2	.572
Affective commitment 1	.546

a.1 factors extracted. 5 iterations required.

Promotion focus

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.397	47.934	47.934	1.841	36.829	36.829
2	.976	19.527	67.462			
3	.731	14.610	82.072			
4	.557	11.137	93.209			
5	.340	6.791	100.000			

Scree Plot
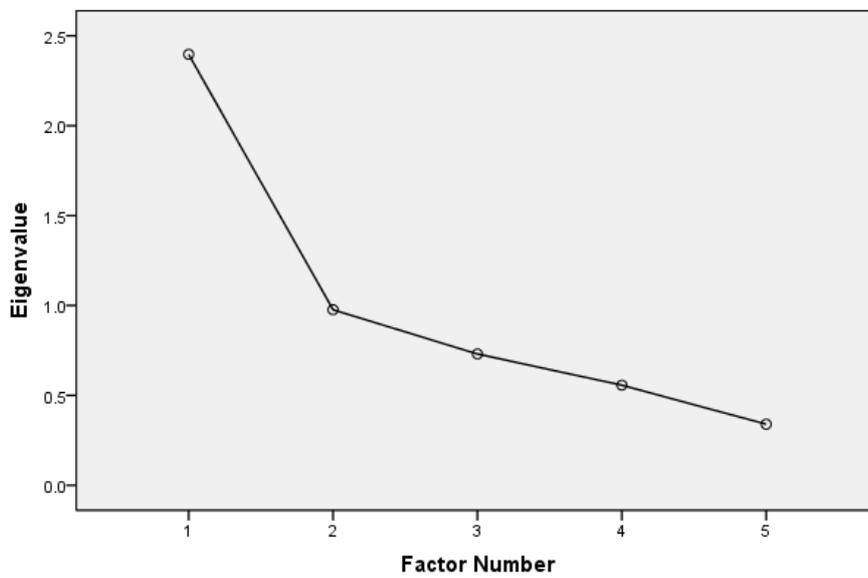
Factor Matrix[a]

	Factor
	1
Promotion 3	.798
Promotion 5	.666
Promotion 1	.645
Promotion 4	.500
Promotion 2	.309

a.1 factors extracted. 9 iterations required.

274

Prevention focus

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.024	67.460	67.460	1.708	56.941	56.941
2	.733	24.429	91.889			
3	.243	8.111	100.000			

Scree Plot
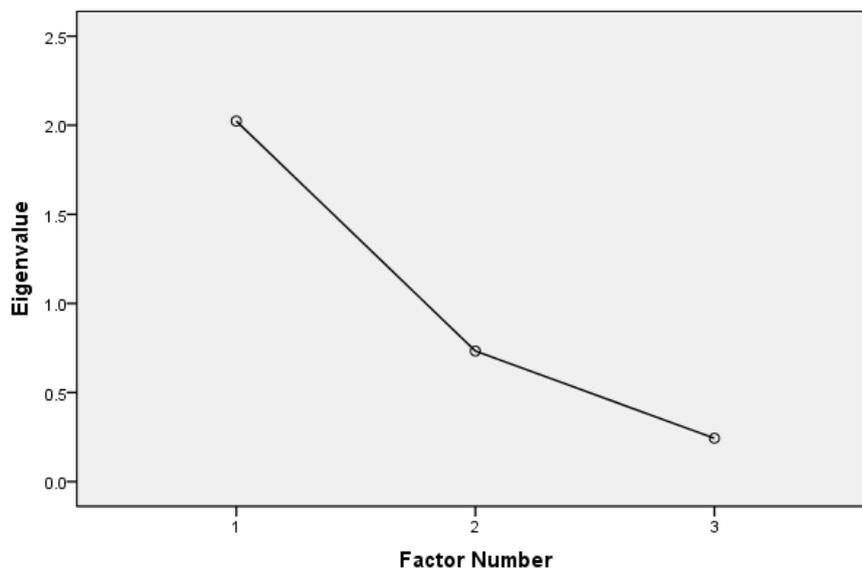
Factor Matrix[a]

	Factor
	1
Prevention 3	.941
Prevention 2	.800
Prevention 4	.428

a. Attempted to extract 1 factors.
More than 25 iterations required.
(Convergence=.001). Extraction
was terminated.

Independence

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.791	23.261	23.261	2.190	18.248	18.248
2	1.607	13.390	36.651	1.102	9.187	27.435
3	1.259	10.494	47.145	.689	5.742	33.177
4	1.075	8.959	56.104	.512	4.269	37.446
5	.993	8.276	64.380			
6	.875	7.293	71.673			
7	.729	6.077	77.750			
8	.668	5.569	83.319			
9	.610	5.080	88.398			
10	.526	4.384	92.783			
11	.468	3.896	96.679			
12	.399	3.321	100.000			

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.328	11.070	11.070
2	1.255	10.457	21.527
3	1.079	8.995	30.522
4	.831	6.924	37.446
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			

Scree Plot
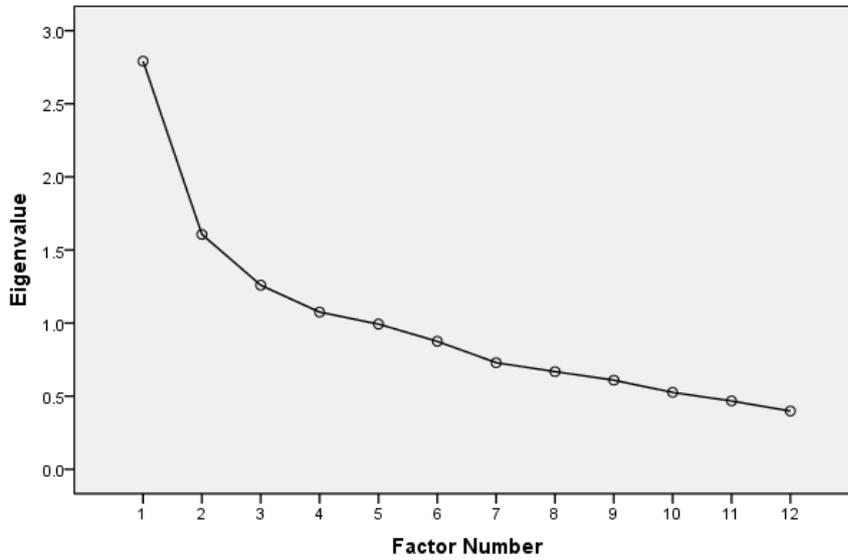
Factor Matrix^a

Factor Matrix^a

|	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Independence 11	.570	-.336	-.074	-.298
Independence 3	.550	-.113	.243	.041
Independence 4	.497	.069	.321	-.003
Independence 10	.481	-.257	.024	-.255
Independence 2	.393	.185	.001	.382
Independence 1	.366	-.029	-.123	-.066
Independence 12	.357	-.177	.133	.083
Independence 8	.290	.067	-.124	-.122
Independence 7	.312	.638	-.157	-.140
Independence 5	.374	.617	.168	-.057
Independence 9	.516	-.096	-.602	.245
Independence 6	.282	-.197	.238	.319

a. Attempted to extract 4 factors. More than 25 iterations required. (Convergence=.006). Extraction was terminated.

Interdependence

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.547	23.157	23.157	1.930	17.548	17.548
2	1.377	12.514	35.671	.793	7.210	24.758
3	1.187	10.787	46.458	.620	5.637	30.395
4	1.107	10.065	56.524	.491	4.459	34.854
5	.877	7.971	64.495			
6	.842	7.652	72.147			
7	.805	7.320	79.468			
8	.677	6.155	85.623			
9	.611	5.558	91.181			
10	.501	4.556	95.737			
11	.469	4.263	100.000			

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.129	10.262	10.262
2	1.124	10.219	20.481
3	.995	9.050	29.531
4	.586	5.323	34.854
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			

Scree Plot
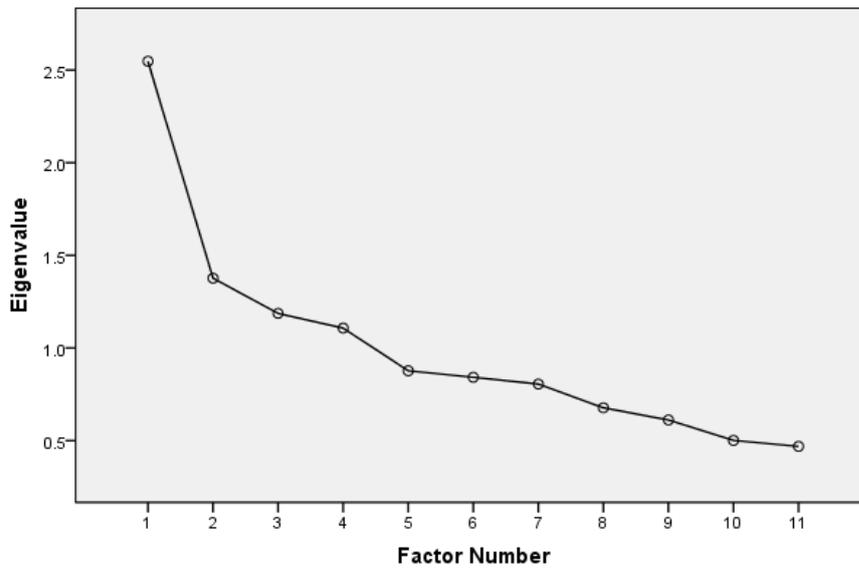
Factor Matrix[a]

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Interdependence 2	.556	.009	.423	-.096
Interdependence 6	.537	.287	-.500	-.129
Interdependence 8	.533	-.469	-.123	.067
Interdependence 3	.455	-.036	.237	.164
Interdependence 1	.436	-.335	-.118	.257
Interdependence 7	.419	.358	.173	-.148
Interdependence 4	.403	-.016	-.058	.006
Interdependence 10	.337	.246	.055	-.103
Interdependence 5	.316	.050	-.219	-.100
Interdependence 9	.285	-.155	.146	-.172
Interdependence 11	.138	.401	.020	.543

a. Attempted to extract 4 factors. More than 25 iterations required.
(Convergence=.007). Extraction was terminated.

Implicit theories

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.399	79.956	79.956	2.159	71.973	71.973
2	.451	15.029	94.986			
3	.150	5.014	100.000			

Scree Plot
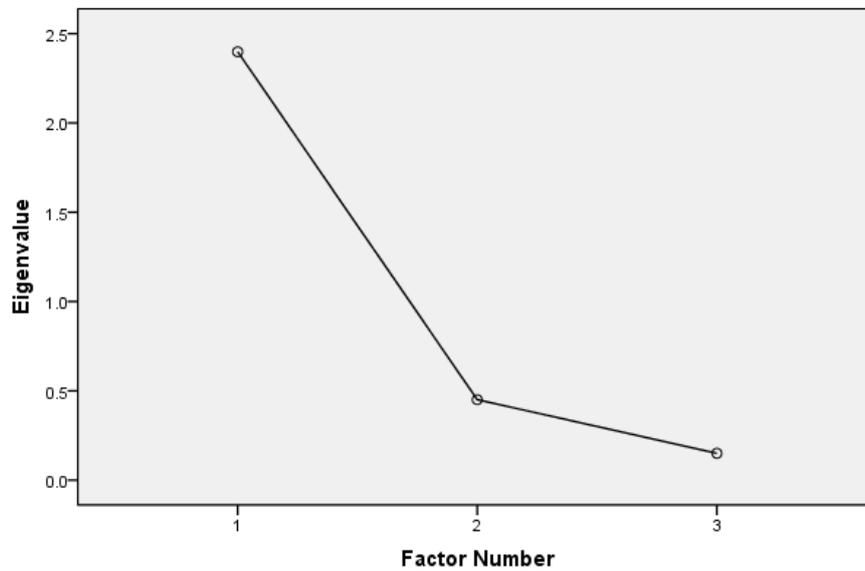
Factor Matrix[a]

	Factor
	1
Implicit theories 1	.987
Implicit theories 2	.848
Implicit theories 3	.683

a.1 factors extracted. 16 iterations
required.

Interpersonal trust

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.308	27.564	27.564	2.835	23.625	23.625
2	1.419	11.828	39.392	.928	7.734	31.360
3	1.339	11.158	50.549	.888	7.397	38.757
4	1.048	8.737	59.287	.451	3.761	42.518
5	.940	7.834	67.121			
6	.849	7.077	74.198			
7	.779	6.491	80.688			
8	.641	5.342	86.030			
9	.585	4.876	90.906			
10	.479	3.991	94.897			
11	.379	3.161	98.058			
12	.233	1.942	100.000			

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.625	13.539	13.539
2	1.232	10.266	23.805
3	1.187	9.892	33.697
4	1.058	8.821	42.518
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			

Scree Plot
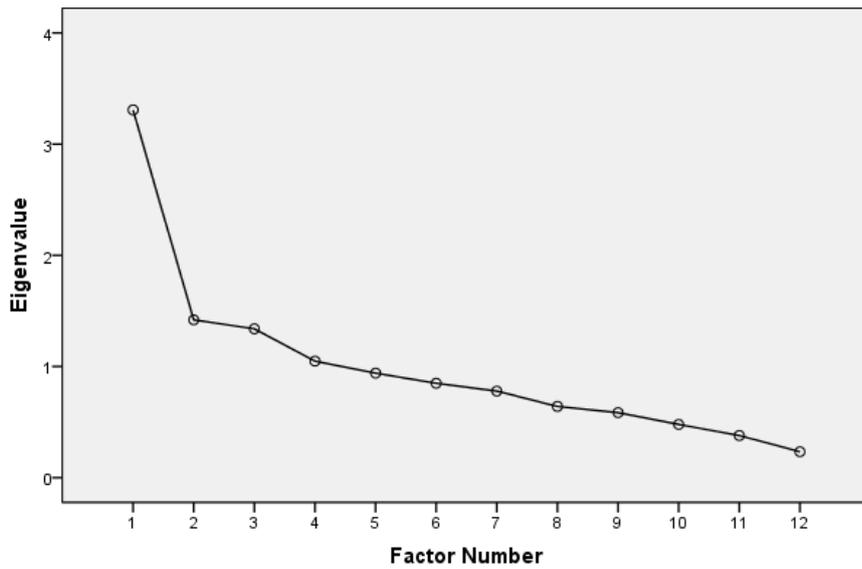
Factor Matrixᵃ

|	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Interpersonal Trust 11	.784	-.427	.373	-.065
Interpersonal Trust 10	.665	-.023	-.311	-.069
Interpersonal Trust 12	.590	-.357	.252	-.041
Interpersonal Trust 8	.525	-.011	-.244	.456
Interpersonal Trust 2	.511	-.008	-.249	-.285
Interpersonal Trust 7	.472	.198	.009	.037
Interpersonal Trust 6	.411	-.004	-.314	-.022
Interpersonal Trust 9	.335	.078	.016	.174
Interpersonal Trust 3	.259	.185	-.227	.143
Interpersonal Trust 5	.357	.564	.478	.050
Interpersonal Trust 1	.418	.464	-.031	-.273
Interpersonal Trust 4	.142	.067	.295	.148

a. Attempted to extract 4 factors. More than 25 iterations required.
(Convergence=.003). Extraction was terminated.

Appendix E: Output from idiographic analysis

Participant	Beta Coefficients				Standard Error				R Squared
	Constant	Type of request	Performance	Gender	Constant	Type of request	Performance	Gender	
1	0.50	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.67
2	4.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
3	1.25	2.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.96
4	0.50	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.83
5	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
6	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
7	1.25	0.50	1.50	0.00	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.53
8	1.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
9	1.75	0.50	1.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.91
10	0.50	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.83
11	1.50	0.00	2.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.80
12	2.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
13	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
14	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
15	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
16	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
17	1.25	0.50	1.50	0.00	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.53
18	0.75	2.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.96
19	1.00	3.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
20	1.38	2.13	0.63	0.38	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.81
21	1.25	-0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
22	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
23	1.25	0.50	1.50	0.00	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.53
24	3.00	0.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
25	1.00	3.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
26	2.00	1.75	-0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.81
27	1.75	1.38	1.13	-0.38	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.65
28	1.25	2.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.96
29	1.75	-0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
30	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
31	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
32	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
33	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
34	1.75	-0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
35	2.00	0.13	1.88	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.95
36	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
37	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
38	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
39	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
40	2.38	-1.38	0.38	-0.13	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.22	0.78
41	0.75	0.25	1.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.69

Participant	Beta Coefficients				Standard Error				R Squared
	Constant	Type of request	Performance	Gender	Constant	Type of request	Performance	Gender	
42	1.25	-0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
43	1.00	2.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
44	0.50	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.83
45	0.75	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
46	1.25	0.50	1.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.91
47	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
48	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
49	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
50	1.75	1.38	0.38	0.13	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.16	0.87
51	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
52	1.13	-0.13	0.88	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.81
53	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
54	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
55	1.50	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.67
56	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
57	2.25	1.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.91
58	1.75	-1.50	1.50	0.00	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.67
59	1.25	2.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.96
60	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
61	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
62	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
63	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
64	1.88	0.25	1.00	0.00	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.71
65	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
66	1.75	-0.88	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.81
67	1.25	-0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
68	1.50	-1.00	0.75	0.25	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.54
69	1.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
70	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
71	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
72	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
73	3.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
74	2.63	0.50	1.00	-0.25	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.40
75	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
76	1.25	-0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
77	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
78	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
79	1.25	2.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.96
80	1.88	1.00	0.25	0.25	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.58
81	1.75	-0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
82	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00

Participant	Beta Coefficients				Standard Error				R Squared
	Constant	Type of request	Performance	Gender	Constant	Type of request	Performance	Gender	
83	1.75	1.75	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.81
84	2.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
85	1.63	-0.63	0.38	0.13	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.56
86	1.25	-0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
87	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
88	1.13	2.88	-0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.98
89	2.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
90	1.75	0.50	1.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.91
91	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
92	0.50	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.83
93	2.00	-0.13	2.13	-0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.96
94	2.25	1.25	0.75	0.25	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.64
95	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
96	0.50	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.83
97	2.25	1.25	0.75	0.25	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.64
98	1.88	0.63	-0.13	0.13	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.16
99	2.00	1.25	0.50	0.00	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.62
100	0.75	0.50	1.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.91
101	1.50	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.67
102	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
103	0.50	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.83
104	3.00	0.75	0.75	-0.25	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.49
105	0.63	0.88	1.88	0.13	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.75
106	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
107	2.00	0.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
108	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
109	1.50	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.67
110	1.25	0.38	1.63	0.13	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.58
111	1.25	0.50	1.50	0.00	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.53
112	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
113	1.00	3.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
114	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
115	1.25	2.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.96
116	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
117	1.25	-0.50	0.50	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.67
118	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					1.00
119	0.25	1.50	1.50	0.00	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.67
120	1.88	1.88	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.95
121	2.00	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00