The Influence of Employee Role Identity on Attitudes Towards and Utilisation of Flexible Work Arrangements

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Abstract

Flexible work arrangements (FWAs) involve modifying the time or place where work is done on a regular basis. Flextime refers to flexibility in the timing of work, whereas flexplace involves flexibility in the location where work is completed, which is often at home. Despite numerous benefits associated with utilisation of FWAs—such as reduced work–family conflict, improved physical and mental health—there was a lack of utilisation by employees of these programs across Australia prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. Researchers have focused on social norms and workplace cultural beliefs that may drive the low utilisation of FWAs. My study sought to examine two antecedents to utilisation of FWAs that have not been examined in the literature; namely, role identity and attitudes towards these flexible work practices. My overarching research objective was to examine how ideal worker role identity, family role identity and caregiver role identity are related to employee attitudes towards, and subsequent utilisation of, FWAs. This research drew upon role identity and attitude theories to examine the relationships between these role identities and the boundary conditions under which these relationships occur. My research design incorporated two online panel studies conducted in 2019–20, focusing on a significant occupational group: knowledge workers (managers and professionals). Study 1 (N = 1,047) was cross-sectional, and Study 2 (N = 269) employed a prospective longitudinal design. Study 1 found that higher family role identity and caregiver role identity were associated with more favourable attitudes towards flextime and flexplace, with family identity as the strongest predictor of attitudes towards FWAs. Additionally, Study 1 found no support for ideal worker identity as a predictor of attitudes towards FWAs; nor was there evidence that any of these relationships were moderated by gender. A further contribution of Study 1 was its examination of the relationships between the co-activation of multiple role identities and attitudes towards FWAs. There were mixed findings regarding the co-activation of multiple role identities and

attitudes towards flextime and flexplace. First, family identity moderated the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the negative relationship weakened as family identity increased. However, when family identity was low, the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace remained relatively invariant and non-significant. Second, caregiver identity moderated the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the negative relationship became weaker as caregiver identity increased. Third, caregiver identity moderated the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship became stronger as caregiver identity increased. These findings highlight how co-activation of role identities may influence attitudes towards utilisation of flextime and flexplace, respectively. Study 2 examined how employee attitudes are related to utilisation of flextime and flexplace. Study 2 findings indicated that respondents who had more favourable attitudes towards flextime and flexplace were 1.5 times more likely to use flextime and flexplace. Additionally, Study 2 found no evidence that these relationships were moderated by flexibility stigma, an important boundary condition identified in the literature. These findings highlight how employee attitudes influence utilisation of flextime and flexplace. This thesis contributes to theoretical understanding of how role identities and attitudes influence the utilisation of FWAs. In terms of practical implications, the findings of this research may be used by human resources professionals to target attitude change, and an appreciation of caregiver and family role responsibilities, to optimise utilisation of flexible work practices, as organisations seek to attract and retain key employees.

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:

Print Name: Frank Bentley

Date: 4th November 2022

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Since 2008, when I commenced study for my Executive Certificate in Business, I dreamt of completing a doctorate. In 2011, I had the good fortune to meet Associate Professor Ross Donohue and Associate Professor Brian Cooper, when I enrolled in a research methods unit while completing my Graduate Diploma in Management. Their passion and knowledge inspired me to complete a research report as part of my Master of Management under their guidance in 2012–13.

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Noting, that Editex Pty Ltd trading as Elite Editing provided professional editing services prior to the submission of my thesis, with editorial intervention restricted to Standards D and E of the *Australian Standards for Editing Practice*.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background

This thesis seeks to contribute to the work and family literature by examining how role identity may influence employee attitudes towards utilisation of flexible work arrangements (FWAs)—specifically flexplace and flextime. The thesis focuses on professionals and managers (knowledge workers) as these are the two most significant and growing occupation groups in the Australian labour market (Australian Bureau of Statistics [ABS], 2019).

Despite numerous benefits associated with utilisation of FWAs, such as reduced work–family conflict, improved physical and mental health, there was a lack of utilisation by employees of these programs across Australia prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. Previous research has focused on social norms and workplace cultural beliefs that may drive this low utilisation of FWAs. My study sought to examine two antecedents to utilisation of FWAs that are not examined in the literature; that is, role identity and attitudes towards flexible work practices.

Identity has been often used as a key construct to explain people's attitudes and behaviour (Biddle et al., 1987; Charng et al., 1988; Granberg & Holmberg, 1990; Sparks, 1999; Sparks & Shepherd, 1992; Terry & Hogg, 1996; Terry et al., 1999). Furthermore, extensive attitude research in social psychology (e.g. Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Glasman & Albarracın, 2006; Kraus, 1995; Smith & Hogg, 2008) has shown that attitudes influence behaviour. Accordingly, an examination of employee identity and attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs is important in terms of informing theory and practice. In this study role identity (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Burke, 2000), is examined in terms of: ideal worker role identity, defined as internalised meanings and behavioural expectations associated with being fully committed to, and totally available for, work (Drago, 2005, Reid, 2015); family role

identity, defined as the psychological importance of one's family role (Dumas & Stanko, 2017; Wayne et al., 2006); and caregiver role identity, defined as the internalised meanings and behavioural expectations associated with the provision of informal and uncompensated care to an elder or unwell person (Calvano, 2013; Eifert et al., 2015, Smith, 2004). These role identities were selected based on their relevance and increasing importance in the work–family literature. Given an ageing Australian population (ABS, 2019) and an increasingly diverse Australian workforce (ABS, 2021), a greater understanding of how different these role identities may influence employee attitudes and behaviour is timely.

A greater understanding of these two antecedents of FWA use may provide organisations with insight into how to adapt, as they seek to attract and retain key employees beyond the COVID-19 pandemic (Mas & Pallais, 2020). Moreover, the changing nature of work, including increased female workforce participation and an ageing workforce (ABS, 2019), will increase caregiving responsibilities across the Australian workforce. As a consequence, there is increased need to understand employee attitudes and use of FWAs, particularly for employees with family and caregiving responsibilities across the Australian workforce in the future.

To explore this important contemporary workplace issue, my primary research question was:

How do role identities influence employee attitudes towards and utilisation of flexible work arrangements?

This study focuses on flextime and flexplace—the two most utilised forms of FWA across Australia (ABS, 2017). Flextime refers to flexibility in the timing of work, whereas flexplace involves flexibility in the location where work is completed—often at home (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Shockley & Allen, 2007). My rationale for this focus is underscored by the prevalence and application of these workplace policies in the workplace

(Azar et al., 2018; Baltes et al., 1999; Coenen & Kok, 2014; Galinsky, et al., 2008; Shockley & Allen, 2012; Sweet et al., 2016). In summary, because organisations may stand to benefit from a deeper understanding of employee role identities and their influence on attitudes towards and utilisation of FWAs, they merit closer attention within the work–family literature.

My research question was examined in two studies. Study 1 addressed the relationships between role identities and attitudes towards FWAs and examined the effects of co-activation of multiple role identities on employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Study 1 also examined the moderating influence of gender, and how this boundary condition intensifies or de-intensifies the relationships between role identities and attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs, under which these relationships occur, underpinned by multiple identity theory (Burke & Stets, 2009; Roccas & Brewer, 2002; Rosenberg, 1997) and boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000).

Study 2 examined how attitudes towards flextime and flexplace influence their utilisation and was theoretically underpinned by the principle of compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). Additionally, Study 2 examined the moderating influence of flexibility stigma, an important boundary condition identified in the literature, on attitudes towards and use of FWAs.

Before examining the literature on FWAs, role identity, multiple identity, and work–life in Chapter 2, this chapter provides an overview of the Australian population and labour market trends over the past decade. This is followed by an overview of the changing nature of work, including family and caregiving responsibilities across Australian society.

The significance and contribution of my study is then outlined, along with the potential theoretical and practical implications of the research. Finally, an overview of each thesis chapter is provided to guide the reader through my research thesis.

1.2 Context

This thesis examines how role identity influences employee attitudes towards and utilisation of FWAs; that is, alternative work options that allow 'employment-scheduling practices that are designed to give employees greater work–life control over when, where, for how long, or how continuously work is done' (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018, p. 10). Work–life flexibility practices in the form of flextime and flexplace are a hot topic in the media and public policy debates, and of increasing importance around the globe as work–life stress levels rise and household demographics shift to include more women in the workforce (Kossek et al., 2015).

This thesis is relevant and timely given that the recent coronavirus pandemic and associated government mandates led to a significant proportion of the Australian workforce being required to work from home throughout 2020 (Roy Morgan, 2020). Recent events have fuelled media coverage and public policy debates around the need, and increasing importance, to better understand employee attitudes towards use of FWAs. The importance and relevance of this topic is not a recent phenomenon: before the coronavirus pandemic, an ageing Australian population and changing workforce provided the backdrop for leading high-technology and consulting companies such as Netflix, Google and Accenture to regularly make highly publicised announcements on their enhancement of work–life flexibility (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Walker, 2015) in response to an evolving Australian workforce.

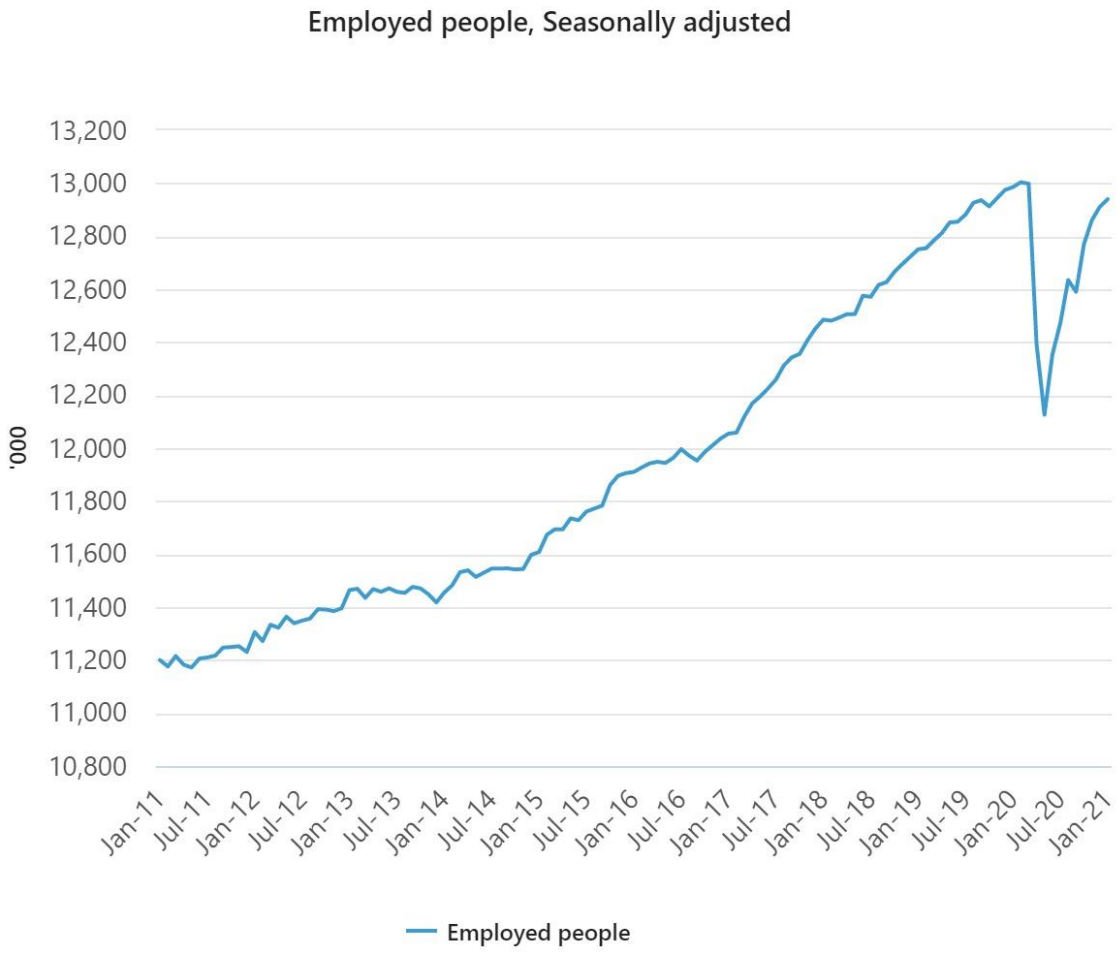
The next section outlines the changing demographics of the Australian workforce, including the increase in overall workforce participation; in particular female participation and ageing of the workforce. These demographic factors underpin the importance of consideration of how work, family and caregiving may influence employee attitudes and behaviour across Australia in the coming decades.

1.3 Australian Workforce

The changing demographics of the Australian workforce, including a more diversified workforce, with greater female participation and an ageing workforce, are driving the importance of increasing our understanding of employee attitudes towards FWAs. Figure 1 depicts the recent increase in employed people in Australia over the decade January 2011–January 2021. Figure 2 shows the reduction in male participation in the Australian workforce over the same period, along with and the upward trend of female participation in the workforce.

Figure 1

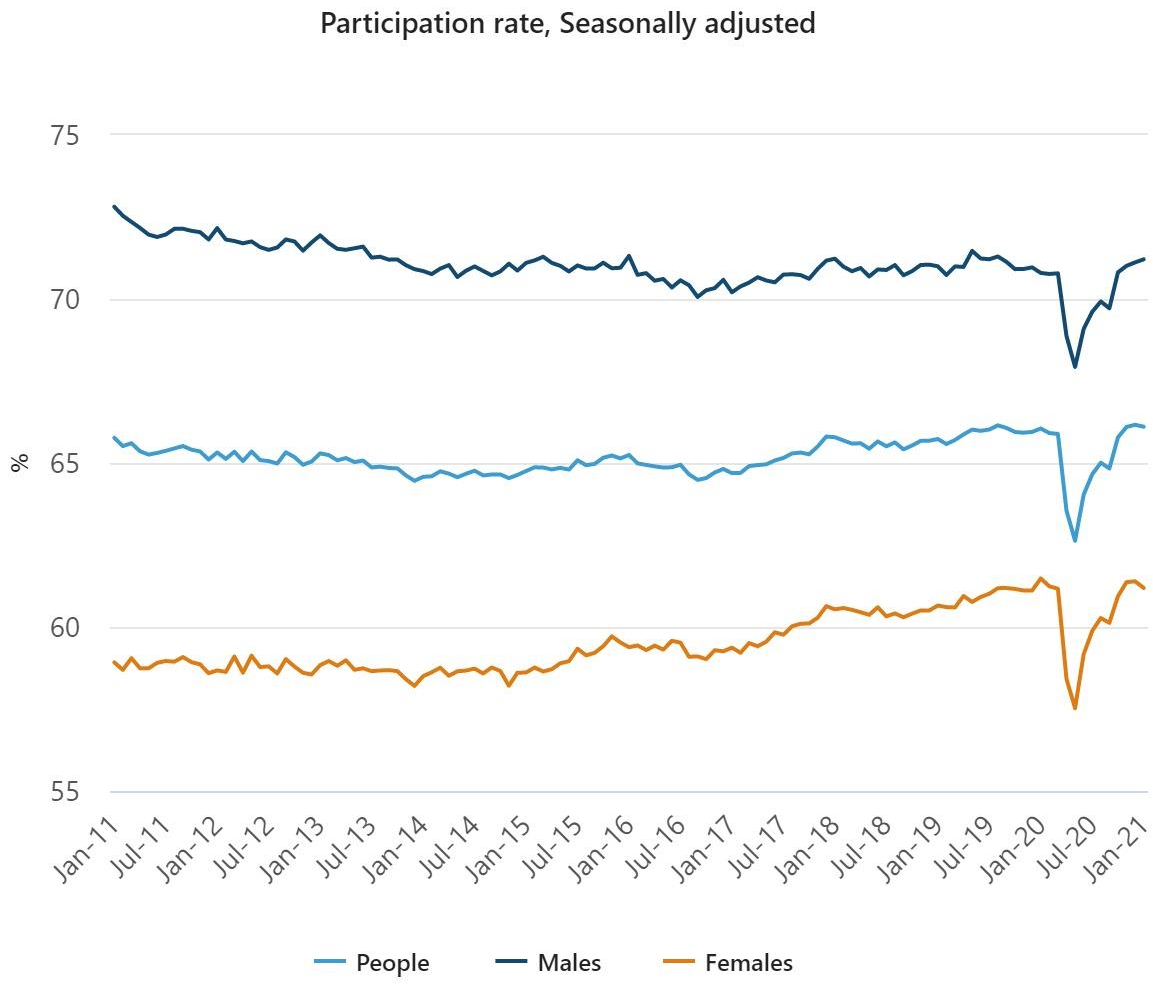
Employed People in Australia January 2011–January 2021



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, Labour Force, Australia January 2021

Figure 2

Gender Participation Rates in Australia January 2011–January 2021

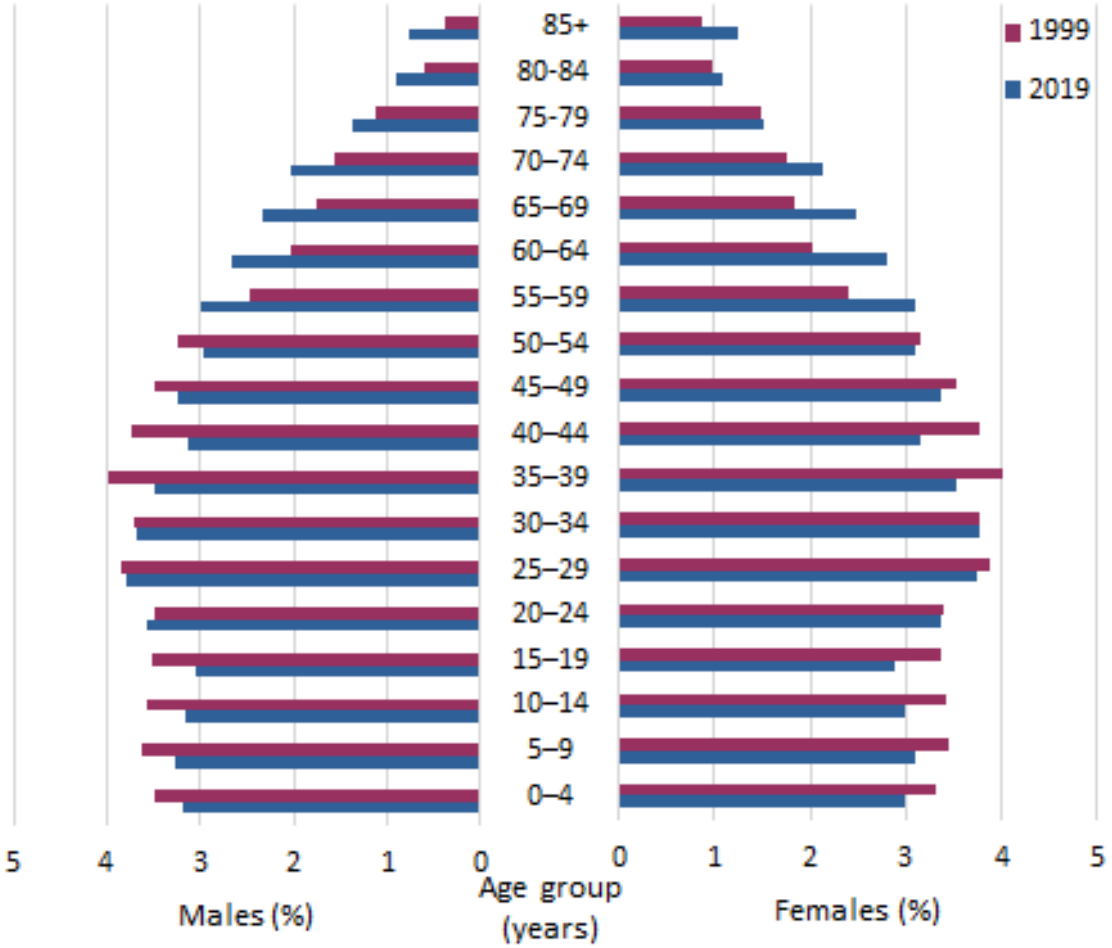


Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, Labour Force, Australia January 2021

As is the case in most developed countries, Australia's population is ageing because of sustained low fertility and increasing life expectancy. Figure 3 shows the population change by age group between 1999 and 2019. This has resulted in proportionally fewer children (under 15 years of age) in the population and a larger proportion of people aged 65 and over (ABS, 2019).

Figure 3

Australian Population Change, Age Groups (1999–2019)

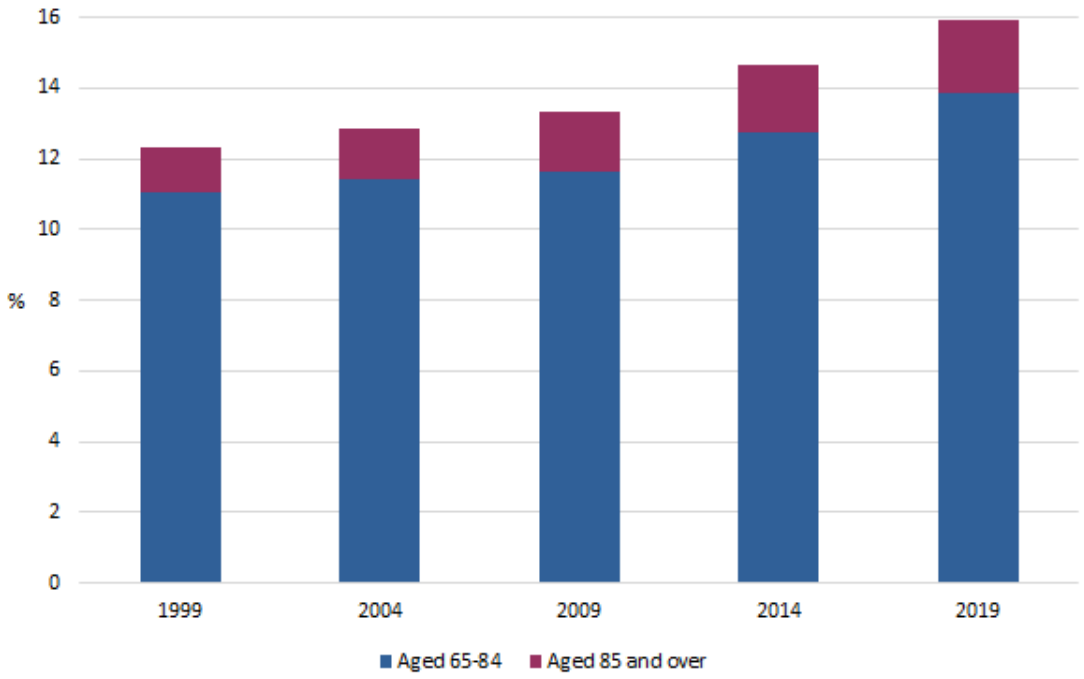


Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, Labour Force, Australia January 2021

Over the 20 years between 1999 and 2019, the proportion of the population aged 65 years and over increased from 12.3% to 15.9%. This group is projected to increase in size more rapidly over the next decade, as further cohorts of "Baby Boomers" (those born in 1946–64) enter the 65 years and over group (ABS, 2019), thereby increasing the likelihood that Australian employees' caregiving responsibilities will increase over future decades. Figure 4 captures the proportion of the population aged 65 years and over for that period.

Figure 4

Proportion of the Australian Population Aged 65 Years and Over



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, Labour Force, Australia January 2021

In summary, a growing ageing population with an increasingly diverse workforce underpins the need for greater consideration of how work, family and caregiving responsibilities may affect employee attitudes and behaviour across Australia in the coming decades.

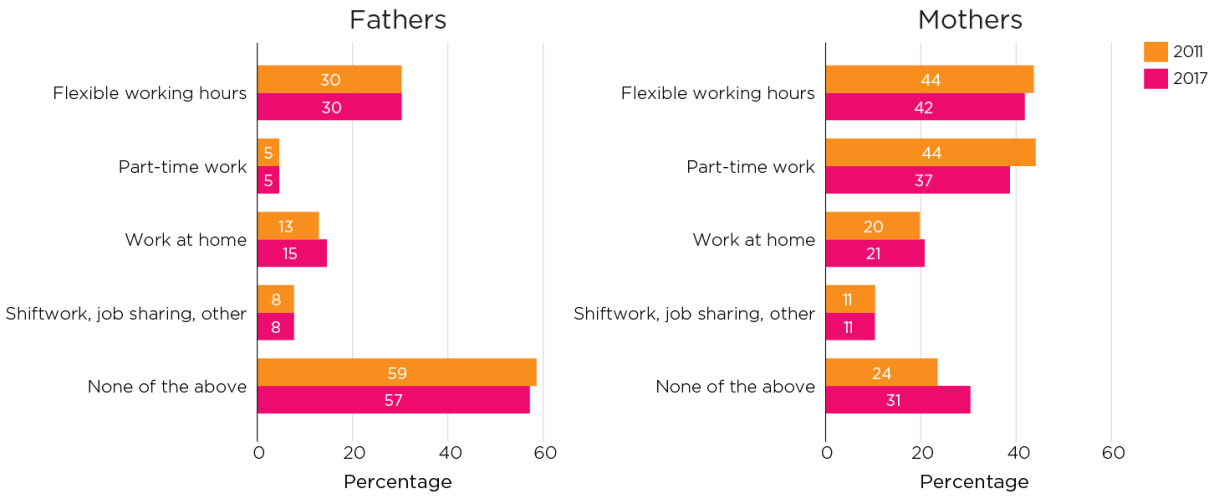
1.4 Utilisation of Flexible Work Arrangements

Utilisation of FWAs is very topical in the Australian context, given increasing employment participation; in particular, higher female participation and an ageing workforce potentially influences the utilisation of FWAs by employees to balance work, family and caregiving commitments. In terms of the Australian labour force, prior to the mandated public health lockdowns in March 2020, 32.7% of people had an agreement to work flexible hours in August 2017, up from 31.9% in August 2015 (ABS, 2021). Furthermore, the

proportion of people who worked from home increased from 13.0% in 2015 to 14.9% in 2017 (ABS, 2021). Surprisingly, there was a reduction in the utilisation of FWAs between 2011 and 2017 by working parents across Australia. Figure 5 compares the percentage of working arrangements of parents with children under 12 years of age, employed within Australian as at June 2011 and June 2017 (ABS, 2017) by charting the percentage of flextime and flexplace utilised by fathers and mothers in 2011 and 2017. It shows that flextime was the most common (30%) type of FWA utilised by fathers in 2011 and 2017, and the most utilised type of FWA by mothers in 2011 and 2017 (44% and 42% respectively). Flexplace was the second most utilised type of FWA by fathers in 2011 and 2017 (13% and 15% respectively) and the second most utilised type by mothers in 2011 and 2017 (20% and 21% respectively). Importantly, during 2017, 57% of Australian employed fathers did not use FWAs, and 31% of Australian employed mothers did not use FWAs; the latter figure had increased significantly from 24% since 2011 (ABS, 2017).

Figure 5

Australian Employed Parents with Children Aged under 12 Years



Source: ABS, 2017

Over the past decade, work–life stress levels have risen, and household demographics have shifted, resulting in a more diverse workforce (Kossek et al., 2015). Consequently,

work–family scholars have sought to understand FWA practices designed to give employees greater work–life flexibility (Allen et al., 2013; Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Kossek & Michel, 2011; Kossek et al., 2015; Rau & Hyland, 2002).

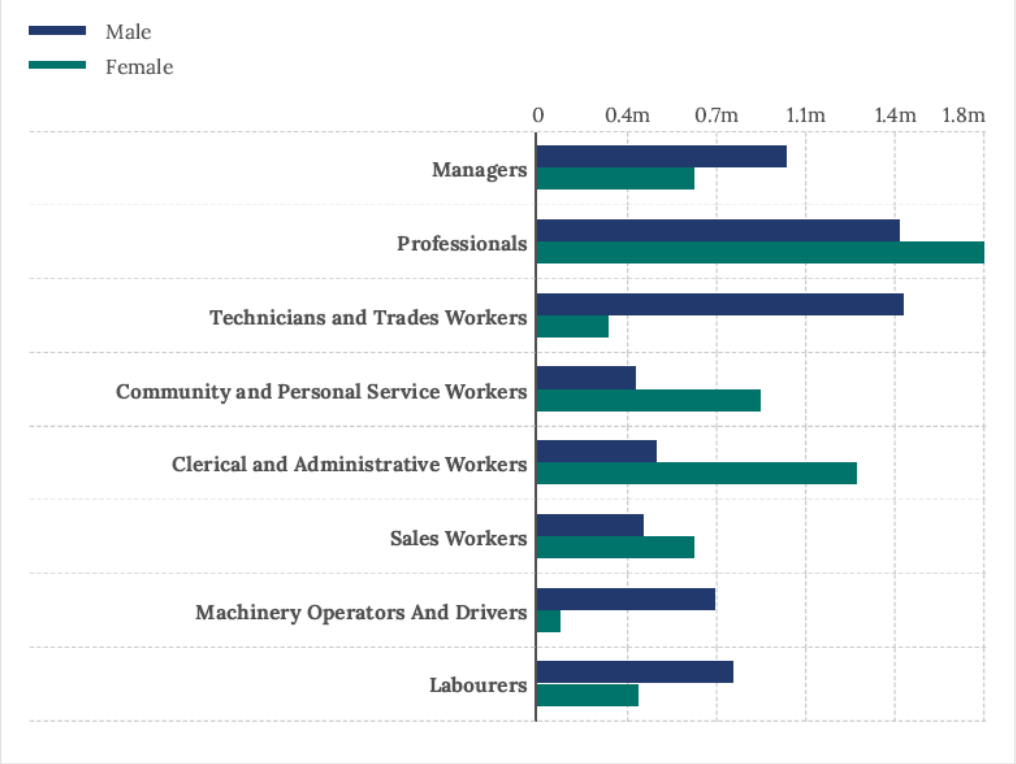
1.4.1 Significance of Knowledge Workers in the Australian Economy

Eight major occupation groups are defined by the Australian and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (ANZSCO). As shown in Figure 6, professionals and managers (i.e., knowledge workers) are two of the most highly skilled and significant Australian occupation groups. Professionals account for the largest numbers of jobs—more than 3 million, which represents almost one in four Australian workers (ABS, 2019). The largest number of new jobs created across Australia.in the five years prior to November 2018 was for professionals—an increase of 476,100 (18.7%), representing 39% of all new jobs. Managers account for 1,581,600, representing one in eight Australian workers, with an increase of 112,000 (7.6%), representing 9% of new jobs, for the five years to November 2018 (ABS, 2019).

In summary, the selection of professionals and managers (knowledge workers) is not only relevant to my research question but provides the opportunity for an examination of two significant and growing occupation groups in the Australian labour market. In terms of implications for workplace practice, FWAs have the potential to address the varying requirements of a diverse workforce, including recruitment and retention.

Figure 6

Australia-wide Employment by Occupation and Gender November 2020



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, Labour Force, Australia January 2021

1.5 Theoretical Significance

Historically, organisational scholarship on identity has tended to focus on how organisations control members' identities and identifications (Pratt, 2000), or how people construct their identities (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010; Lepisto et al., 2015). My research adheres to the latter approach—which addresses identity from the employee perspective—as it examines how role identities influence employee attitudes towards and utilisation of FWAs. This approach is consistent with Howell et al. (2017), who examined career flexibility policies through the lens of a faculty member's professional identity. The ideal worker norm offered a unique insight into the underutilisation of career flexibility policies. Howell et al. (2017, p. 1124) contended that 'focusing on intrinsic factors, such as professional identity, is analogous to addressing root cause and potentially more effective in developing solutions for

work–family balance, thereby promoting career flexibility'. The current study seeks to add to the literature through an empirical examination of how role identity and the moderating influence of gender identity affects employee attitudes towards and utilisation of FWAs.

From a theoretical perspective, the focus is shifting as work–family scholars begin to direct their attention away from the individual experience of work and family, towards understanding how identity is defined at work. Moreover, Kossek and Lautsch (2018) posited that work–life flexibility research would benefit from a better understanding of the relationship between work identities and non-work identities, such as gender and family. Accordingly, this study seeks to examine one critical antecedent to utilisation of FWAs that is not examined extensively in the literature; that is, role identity. Work–family scholars (Williams et al., 2016) have suggested that a change of theoretical focus from cultural schemas to the concept of identity as a key variable influencing attitudes and behaviour may provide additional insight. Williams et al. (2016, p. 525) contended that 'what is needed is not simply more evidence or more rigor but a different conversation, one that explores the psychological investments in cherished identities'. Put another way, work–family research would benefit from a sustained focus on identity: 'sociologists look at social structures, psychologists look at individual behavior; identity connects the two' (Williams et al., 2016, p. 525).

I draw upon the tradition of symbolic interactionism (Breakwell, 1986; Burke, 1980; McCall & Simmons, 1978; Mead, 1934; Stryker, 1968, 1980, 1987; Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Turner, 1978) to inform my research. Specifically, the role identity theory perspective that underpins my study is based on the work of Stryker and colleagues, who examined how social structures affect the structure of self, and how structures of the self, influence social behaviour. Stryker (1968, 1980) contended that, through social interaction, individuals classify relationships and expected standards of behaviour. These classified relationships

consist of roles, which are linked to positions held by individuals in the social structure (e.g., employee, parent). Through the lens of role identity, my study examines internalised meanings and behaviours associated with multiple identities, and their effect on attitudes and social behaviours.

Despite some progress regarding theoretical and conceptual work concerning role identity, empirical research on the concept is extremely limited (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018). Accordingly, this study seeks to add to the literature by undertaking empirical quantitative research to improve our understanding of how role identities may influence attitudes and behaviours. My study draws upon role identity theory by conceptualising identity on a continuum encompassing a range of attitudinal and behavioural possibilities. Role identity theory is conceptually well positioned to support my research objective to examine the relationship between role identity (the self) and prediction of attitudes towards and utilisation (behaviour) of FWAs in the workplace (social structure).

Recently, work–family scholars (Williams et al., 2016) have contended that research may benefit from an examination of identity, as it connects social structures and individual behaviour. This viewpoint had previously been supported by identity researchers (Hogg et al., 1995, p. 257) who contended that 'Identity is a pivotal concept linking social structure with individual action; thus, the prediction of behaviour requires an analysis of the relationship between self and social structure'. Accordingly, Williams et al.'s recommendation that the examination of identity, and Hogg et al.'s contention that role identity theory may be effective in understanding salient identities and their influence on behaviour, in combination underpin the selection of identity theory as this study's theoretical framework.

Although researchers have focused on the cultural beliefs that underlie flexibility stigma (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Cohen & Single, 2001; Williams, 2010; Williams et al., 2013), identity has not received the same level of theoretical attention in terms of

understanding its influence on utilisation (Williams et al., 2016). Thus, this study seeks to make a theoretical contribution through the examination of a critical antecedent to utilisation of FWAs only rarely examined in the literature; that is, role identity.

In this study role identity is examined in terms of multiple identities: ideal worker role identity, family role identity and caregiver role identity. These role identities were selected based on their relevance and increasing importance in the work–family literature. Conceptualisation and operationalisation of these role identities provides a theoretical and empirical framework under which to examine how role identity may influence employees' attitudes towards FWAs.

Identity scholarship (e.g. Burke & Stets, 2009; Capitano et al., 2017; Marks & MacDermid, 1996; Roccas & Brewer, 2002) and caregiver identity theory (Eifert et al., 2015) acknowledge that individuals may often hold multiple identities concurrently, such as the ideal worker role, family role and caregiver role identities. Activation of these multiple role identities may be independent or co-activated. Therefore, I draw on boundary theory to explain the effect of independent activation and co-activation of multiple role identities on employee attitudes towards and utilisation of FWAs. The boundary management literature (Capitano et al., 2017; Kossek et al., 2012) contends that an increase in academic attention to role identity is a result of the combined effect of these two countervailing trends.

1.5.1 Significance of Ideal Worker Role Identity

When an employee internalises ideal work schemas, through the process of self-identification, an ideal worker identity is created (Reid, 2015). The resultant attitudes and behaviours expressed in an organisational setting may be influenced by ideal worker identity. Understanding the relationship between the ideal worker and non-work identities provides an insight into how employee attitudes and behaviours may play out in an organisational setting (Blair-Loy et al., 2015).

Drawing on identity theory (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Burke, 2000) and consistent with the professional identity literature (Acker, 1990; Bailyn, 2006; Howell et al., 2017; Reid, 2015), I define ideal worker identity as internalised meanings and behavioural expectations associated with being fully committed to, and totally available for, work with no external commitments that limit this devotion (Drago et al., 2005). My study's examination of the ideal worker identity builds on recent ideal worker identity scholarship (Howell et al., 2017; Kossek et al., 2021; Reid, 2015) that highlights the importance of examining the continued salience of demands to be an ideal worker in professional work settings and the complex ways these demands shape an employee's work experiences. Howell et al. (2017) contended that conflict between personal identity and elite professional identity negatively influenced medical professionals' use of career flexibility policies and were barriers to the opportunities provided by organisations' career flexibility policies. Drawing on Howell et al.'s research approach provides a framework to understand why employees with an ideal worker identity may have non-favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

1.5.2 Significance of Family Role Identity

The literature contends that having a family is generally associated with greater psychological importance being placed on the non-work domain, and greater attention devoted to the family role—often because of increased time spent on domestic responsibilities (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Although some scholars advocate for the non-work term 'life role'—arguing that the non-work term 'family role' excludes single persons or childless couples—family role has been the focus of noted scholars (e.g. Kossek et al., 2017) because studies have found that regardless of marital status, employees see themselves as having familial roles (Casper et al., 2007). By focusing on life role impact and thus minimising the consideration of 'family role' impact on

organisational outcomes, scholars may have unintentionally hindered understanding of a critical antecedent of employee utilisation of FWAs; that is, family role identity.

Drawing on identity theory (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Burke, 2000), family role identification is defined as the psychological importance of one's family role (Dumas & Stanko, 2017; Wayne et al., 2006). Family role identity warrants examination given its ubiquitous nature and relevance to identity, family and workplace research. Examination of the relationship between family role identity and attitudes towards FWAs has merit, given that the utilisation of FWAs may provide the opportunity for a person to attend to and balance parenting responsibilities and spousal relationships with work obligations, thereby verifying their family role identity. Moreover, an understanding of family role identity and its influence on employee attitudes towards FWAs may provide valuable insight for organisations as they contemplate the effect of family identity on employee attitudes and behaviours.

1.5.3 Significance of Caregiver Role Identity

As the average age of a population rises, the prevalence of people with chronic illness or disability who need care also increases (Eifert et al., 2015). Consequently, the necessity for caregiving—defined as informal, uncompensated care provided by family and friends (Smith, 2004)—will continue to rise. Thus, caregiver role identity—the internalised meanings and behavioural expectations associated with the provision of informal and uncompensated care to an elder or unwell person (most often a parent or spouse)—proliferates and becomes more significant across society.

As countries around the world, including Australia, experience ageing populations, longer life expectancies mean greater possibility of illness and incapacitation (Crimmins & Beltrán-Sánchez, 2010). At the same time, demographic trends are altering traditional arrangements for eldercare. Given that a high percentage of caregivers are employed outside the home, the tension between employment and caregiving responsibilities is likely to

increase. However, the relationship between caregiving responsibilities and work outcomes is understudied, especially in the management literature (Calvano, 2013, p. 204). Australian workforce trends include more women in the workforce (ABS, 2019); women marrying later in life and postponing having children; the rise of dual-career households and households led by single parents; labour force mobility; and shrinking household size (Koerin et al., 2008; Kossek et al., 2010; Shoptaugh et al., 2004). Although most caregivers are still female, they are usually employed outside the home and may live in a different geographic area than their elderly relatives. In addition, they may be caring for children at the same time, making them part of a phenomenon known as the 'sandwich generation' (Neal & Hammer, 2009). Eldercare responsibilities are also on the rise for men (Barrah et al., 2004; Robinson et al., 2003).

Thus, an examination of caregiver role identity and its influence on employee attitudes towards FWAs will provide valuable insight for organisations as they contemplate the effect of increasing caregiving on employee identities, attitudes and behaviours. Study of the relationship between caregiver role identity and attitudes towards FWAs has merit, given that the utilisation of FWAs may provide the opportunity for a person to attend to and balance caregiving responsibilities with work obligations, thereby verifying their caregiver role identity.

1.5.4 Significance of Attitudes for Understanding Identity and Behaviour

Attitudes are an important long-standing concept in social psychology (Allport, 1935) and continue to be one of the most active areas of social psychology research. Attitude research is prominent in social psychology as leading scholars posit that attitudes guide information processing and influence behaviour (Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Glasman & Albarracın, 2006). Attitudes are defined in numerous ways in the literature. For example, Ajzen (1991) argued that attitudes towards a behaviour refer to the degree to which a person

has a favourable or unfavourable appraisal of the behaviour in question. Eagly and Chaiken (2007) posited that attitudes are a psychological tendency, expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour, and furthermore Sparks (1999) argued that identity is related to attitudes and subsequent behaviour. However, these insights have not been incorporated into the literature on FWAs. Accordingly, this thesis seeks to contribute to the existing FWA literature by examining how role identity may influence employee attitudes towards and subsequent utilisation of FWAs; and more broadly, how role identity may play a role in terms of the attitude–behaviour relationship.

1.6 Thesis Overview

This thesis is organised as follows. Chapter 1 has provided an overview of the relevance, significance and contribution of this study, as well as the practical and theoretical implications of my research.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of FWAs and examines two critical antecedents of attitudes towards and utilisation of FWAs, and role identity. The literature review in Chapter 2 critically examines identity theory and the selection of role identity as the theoretical framework for this study. Role identity and boundary theory are then incorporated to generate hypotheses, capturing the independent activation of role identities in terms of their effect on attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. This is followed by an examination of the influence of the boundary conditions of gender on these hypothesised relationships. Co-activation of these role identities is then examined in terms of their association with attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. The chapter then develops an argument regarding the expected relationships between attitudes towards FWAs and their subsequent use. The chapter concludes with a review of the flexibility stigma literature and its proposed moderating influence on utilisation of FWAs.

Chapter 3 outlines the rationale for the research design; that is, a cross-sectional study and a prospective longitudinal study. This is followed by a detailed description of the sampling approach, procedures, measure selection and method of analysis for both studies.

Chapter 4 provides a detailed review of the results and findings of Study 1, including descriptive statistics, intercorrelations and reliabilities for the study variables. Standard linear regression analysis was undertaken to test the hypotheses, and the results of the regression analyses used to test the study's hypotheses are presented.

Chapter 5 provides a detailed review of the results and findings of Study 2, including descriptive statistics, intercorrelations and reliabilities for the study variables. Logistic regression analysis was undertaken to test the hypotheses, and the results of the regression analyses used to test the study's hypotheses are presented.

Finally, Chapter 6 considers the theoretical and practical implications of this study. The limitations of the study are then discussed, along with recommendations for future research. The chapter concludes with a reflection on my research, including thoughts regarding future practical implications for the Australian workplace and theoretical contributions to work–family scholarship.

1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the background, context and significance of the present research. It has provided an outline of FWAs and the importance of knowledge workers in the Australian context. It also presents an overview of the key concepts of the present study. Following the introduction of key concepts, the chapter outlined the significance of the research and its theoretical contributions, and concluded with an overview of the structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Chapter Objectives

As outlined in the previous chapter my research question is 'How do role identities influence employee attitudes and utilisation of flexible work arrangements?'. Accordingly, to better understand the relationships between role identity, attitudes towards, and utilisation of FWAs, a review of the conceptual and empirical literature was undertaken. Presentation of the literature review findings begins with an overview of FWAs, and examination of a potentially important antecedent of attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs: identity. The review then examines identity theory; specifically, role identity theory, the theoretical framework that underpins this study. Multiple role identity theory and boundary theory are then incorporated to capture the independent activation of multiple role identities in terms of their association in regard to attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Specifically, the literature review examines the literature regarding associations between ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity, and attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. This is followed by a review of the boundary condition of gender on these relationships. Co-activation of these identities is then examined in terms of their association with attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. I then present a review of the literature on the relationship between attitudes towards, and utilisation, of FWAs and the boundary condition of flexibility stigma on this relationship. From this, 11 hypotheses are developed for testing in the thesis.

2.2 Flexible Work Arrangements

Work–life stress levels have risen and household demographics have shifted in the last two decades, resulting in a more diverse workforce (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018). Consequently, work–family scholars have sought to understand FWA practices designed to give employees greater work–life control over when, where and how work is done (Allen et al., 2013; Kossek & Michel, 2011; Kossek et al., 2015; Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Rau &

Hyland, 2002). Kossek and Lautsch's (2018) systematic review of research on different types of flexibility provides a work–life flexibility dimension categorisation framework with which to define FWAs. Kossek and Lautsch (2018) identified four work–life flexibility dimensions: variability, location, volume and continuity. Flextime is captured within the variability (the time/when) dimension and was defined by Kossek and Lautsch (2018) as the ability to vary the starting or ending times of work, or to work a schedule different from traditional hours. Flexplace is captured within the location (the place/where) dimension and has been defined as the ability to adjust the location of work, which gives workers greater control over where they carry out their work (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018). This work–life flexibility dimension categorisation framework approach is congruent with the work of leading work–family scholars such as Shockley and Allen (2012, p. 218), who defined flextime 'as a type of FWAs that allows employees to vary their work schedules, often within certain specified time ranges' and flexplace as 'an arrangement where some or all of the time traditionally spent in the office is spent working from a remote location'.

My study focuses on flextime work arrangements and flexplace work arrangements, given the prevalence of these policies in workplaces (Galinsky et al., 2008; Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Shockley & Allen, 2012; Sweet et al., 2016). Moreover, examination of flextime and flexplace is highly relevant to the study of Australian employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs, as these arrangements are commonly provided by organisations to two of the most highly skilled and significant Australian occupation groups: professionals and managers (knowledge workers; ABS, 2019). When knowledge workers utilise FWAs, they receive the same, or similar, full-time remuneration and benefits as would if working in the office during standard hours (Shockley & Allen, 2010; Society for Human Resource Management [SHRM], 2011). Thus, these knowledge workers may hold ideal worker attitudes and behaviours consistent with traditional, gendered division of labour norms

(Acker, 1990; Munsch et al., 2014; SHRM, 2008; Vega, 2015; Williams, 2000). Additionally, Sweet et al. (2016) contended that utilisation of FWAs has the potential to address the varying requirements of a diverse workforce, including recruitment and retention. Accordingly, there is merit in advancing our understanding of how to match control over working conditions to work–life needs, to enhance the productivity and wellbeing of knowledge workers.

FWAs provide employees with greater control over when and where work is done (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018), and are highly topical within the Australian labour market, given that the COVID-19 pandemic restrictions led to a significant proportion of the Australian workforce being required to work from home throughout 2020 (Roy Morgan, 2020). Recent global events have fueled media coverage and public policy debates around FWAs, which has highlighted the increasing need to better understand employee attitudes towards use of FWAs. Specifically, the COVID-19 pandemic produced unprecedented global health and economic disruptions, in which workers and organisations struggled to adapt to 'the new normal' (Alter & Villa, 2020; Mull, 2020; Solomon, 2020), including mandatory working from home (McFarland et al., 2020). From an Australian labour market perspective, a greater understanding of the antecedents of employee use of FWAs may provide organisations with insight on how to adapt, as they seek to attract and retain key employees beyond the COVID-19 pandemic (McFarland et al., 2020).

2.2.1 Utilisation of Flexible Work Arrangements

Despite numerous benefits associated with utilisation of FWAs—such as reduced work–family conflict (Kelly et al., 2011), and improved physical and mental health (Galinsky et al., 2004; Munsch et al., 2014)—there has been underutilisation of these practices by employees (Bourdeau et al., 2019; Mas & Pallais, 2020). Although workplace flexibility programs have been in place for decades, workplace research has confirmed that utilisation of

these programs has spread slowly (Galinsky et al., 2008; Williams et al., 2013). This trend is supported by the *Pregnancy and Employment Transitions* report (ABS, 2011), which highlighted that although many employees have had access to FWAs throughout Australia, the uptake of these arrangements by working mothers has decreased over the past decade. Furthermore, despite workers in Australia having the legal right to request flexible work arrangements, the 2014 *Australian Work and Life Index* (AWALI) survey found that only 14.3% of Australian full-time workers (men 13.2%, women 16.2%) made a request for FWAs in the previous year, even though one-third of respondents reported that they were not satisfied with their current work arrangements (Skinner & Pocock, 2014). These utilisation trends are declining across Australia. For example, the use of FWAs to care for children aged 0–12 years decreased for female parents between 2011 (74.3%) and 2017 (69.5%). Moreover, 59% of employed fathers did not use FWAs, and over 30% of employed mothers did not use FWAs during 2017, a significant decrease since 2011 (ABS, 2017). In summary, there is a declining trend of utilisation of FWAs across Australia by parents and caregivers, despite dissatisfaction with their work arrangements. Accordingly, an examination of the antecedents of utilisation of FWAs may provide greater insight for organisations to enhance employee work–life balance, thereby improving the wellbeing and, by extension, productivity of employees.

2.2.2 Antecedents of Utilisation of Flexible Work Arrangements

One variable that has been examined and that may explain the low utilisation of FWAs is stigma. By utilising FWAs, employees might be perceived by managers and co-workers as violating the ideal worker stereotype and thus encounter flexibility stigma (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014; Munsch et al., 2014; Williams, 2000), ‘a type of discrimination triggered whenever an employee signals a need for workplace flexibility due to family responsibilities’ (Rudman & Mescher, 2013, p. 323). For example, full-time employees who use FWAs may

be influenced by flexibility stigma (Leslie et al., 2012), because use of these arrangement conflicts with the image of the ideal worker (Dumas & Sanchez-Burks, 2015) who is always available. Research studies have consistently reported that 'professionals with flexible work arrangements are viewed as time deviants who are marginalized' (Williams et al., 2016, p. 525). This view is supported by empirical research studies that have found those who take advantage of flexible work have lower wage growth (Coltrane et al., 2013), receive poorer performance reviews (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999) and are seen as less motivated (Rogier & Padgett, 2004). Adverse consequences may also include damaged career prospects (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Cohen & Single, 2001). Employees, fearing these negative repercussions, may not utilise FWAs (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Drago et al., 2005).

Limited research, however, has investigated the role that individuals themselves play in determining their use of these practices (Shockley & Allen, 2012). Studies examining antecedents of FWA use have focused predominately on demographic variables such as gender, age and family responsibility (e.g. Allen et al., 2013; Billings & Sharpe, 1999; Galinsky et al., 2004; Sharpe et al., 2002; Shockley & Allen, 2010). Researchers have also focused on the cultural beliefs that underlie flexibility stigma (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Cohen & Single, 2001; Williams, 2010; Williams et al., 2013). However, identity has not received the same level of theoretical attention in terms of understanding its effect on utilisation of FWAs (Williams et al., 2016). Accordingly, this study seeks to make a theoretical contribution through the examination of the relationship of identity with a well-known antecedent of behaviour; namely, attitudes.

To examine the influence of attitudes on behaviour, an understanding of two identified types of attitude is required (Ajzen et al., 2019). The first type is a general attitude towards physical objects or other general targets, noting that these:

> "general attitudes will usually not provide a good basis for predicting behaviours with respect to the attitude object. Whereas the second type are attitudes towards performing specific behaviours with respect to an object or target. These attitudes are referred to as attitudes toward a behaviour." (Ajzen et al., 2019, p. 197).

Specifically, the principle of compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) states it is possible to obtain compatibility for a single behaviour by assessing attitudes towards the behaviour in question. The principle of compatibility requires that 'measures of attitude and behaviour involve the same action, target, context, and time elements, whether defined at a very specific or at a more general level' (Ajzen et al., 2019, p. 208). Considerable empirical research regarding attitude–behaviour relationships has shown that 'specific behaviours can be predicted from attitudes towards a specific behaviour' (Ajzen et al., 2019, p. 208). Accordingly, the principle of compatibility is foundational to my theoretical framework with which to examine employee attitudes as an antecedent of utilisation of FWAs. In my study, consistent with the principle of compatibility, the four elements identified by Ajzen et al. (2019) are explicitly specified to examine employee attitudes towards utilisation (action) of FWAs (target) available at their organisation (context) within a defined period (time).

2.2.3 Centrality of Role Identity

Work–family scholars (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Ramarajan & Reid, 2013; Williams et al., 2016) suggest that a change of theoretical focus from cultural schemas to the concept of identity as a key variable influencing attitudes and behaviour may provide additional insight. This shift in focus has occurred because, despite a significant amount of work–family research, the findings have had a comparatively minor influence on workplace practice, and globally, work–life stress levels continue to rise (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Kossek et al., 2015). From a theoretical perspective, the focus is shifting as work–family scholars begin to

direct their attention towards understanding how identity is defined at work, rather than an employee's work and family circumstances (Williams et al., 2016). For example, Williams et al. (2016, p. 525) contended 'that what is needed is not simply more evidence or more rigor but a different conversation, one that explores the psychological investments in cherished identities'. Put another way, work–family research would benefit from a sustained focus on identity because 'sociologists look at social structures, psychologists look at individual behavior; identity connects the two' (Williams et al., 2016, p. 525). In addition, Kossek and Lautsch (2018) posited that work–life flexibility research would benefit from a better understanding of the relationship between work identities and non-work identities, such as family.

Accordingly, an examination of identity in terms of work–family scholarship—specifically how identity may influence attitudes towards FWA utilisation—is outlined in the following sections of this literature review. The next section provides an overview of theoretical perspectives in social psychology, with a focus on symbolic interactionism as the theoretical perspective that underpins my study.

2.3 Identity—Theoretical Perspectives

This section presents a brief overview of social psychology, because identity is a central focus of social psychological theorising and research in contemporary societies (Howard, 2000). Accordingly, two prevailing perspectives in social psychology—social cognition and symbolic interaction—that underpin our theoretical understandings of identity are outlined. This is followed by an outline of how the concept of identity is nested in the broader concepts of self and self-concept.

2.3.1 Social Cognition

Social cognition theory is based on how people store and process information (Augoustinos & Walker, 1995; Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Howard, 2000). Social cognitive

theories of identity are based on several underlying assumptions; in particular, human cognitive capacities are limited, and 'following from the need for cognitive efficiency, we categorize information about people, objects, and situations before we engage memory or inferential processes' (Howard, 2000, p. 368). Hence, a central principle of social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) is that an individual's identity may be defined in two ways: social, defined by membership in social groups; and personal, comprised of the individual characteristics that distinguish a person (Howard, 2000).

Social identity consists of facets of an individual's self-image that derive from the social categories to which they perceive themselves belonging (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Tajfel and Turner contended that there are three sequential mental processes involved in evaluating others as either 'in-group' or 'out-group' members. The first process is that of categorisation, in which individuals categorise themselves and others to comprehend the social environment; for example, social categories such as student or worker. Individuals then adopt the identity and begin to behave in ways they believe a member of the group to which they self-categorised as belonging would act. This process is referred to as social identification. Finally, once individuals have categorised themselves and identified with that group, they compare that group with other groups through social comparison (Tajfel, 1972; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This perspective is supported by Hogg et al. (1995, p. 259), who contended that 'a social category (e.g. nationality, political affiliation) into which one falls, and to which one feels one belongs, provides a definition of who one is in terms of the defining characteristics of the category'. In summary, social identity theory is a social psychological theory of intergroup relationships that examines identity in terms of group and intergroup aspects of behaviour. Given social cognition refers to intergroup relationships more so than the individual actor, the next section outlines the social psychological perspective, which focuses more on individual self-concept and role behaviour: symbolic interactionism.

2.3.2 Symbolic Interactionism

Symbolic interactionism can be traced back to the work of Mead (1934) in which the relationships an individual has with others in society will shape their concept of self and determine their social behaviour. The underlying principle of symbolic interactionism is that 'people attach symbolic meaning to objects, behaviours, themselves, and other people, and they develop and transmit these meanings through interaction' (Howard, 2000, p. 371). Mead's approach was based on the premise that society is constantly in a state of flux, lacking organisation or structure (Stets, 2006). Stryker (1980) extended on Mead's (1934) work by introducing structural symbolic interaction, in which society possesses structure and organisation, through the patterned behaviour within and between individuals (Abeysekera & Gahan, 2017).

Theorists in the symbolic interactionism tradition proposed the development of the self through reflection from others in social exchanges (Breakwell, 1986; Mead, 1934). In identity theory based on symbolic interactionism (Burke, 1980; McCall & Simmons, 1978; Stryker, 1968, 1980, 1987; Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Turner, 1978) and social identity theory (Tajfel, 1972; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) the 'self is reflexive, in that it can view itself objectively and categorise or name itself in various ways in relation to other social categories or classifications' (Stets & Burke, 2000, p. 224). In identity theory this process is called identification (McCall & Simmons 1978; Stets & Burke, 2000) and in social identity theory, self-categorisation (Turner et al., 1987). Although the basis of self-classification is different in identity theory (role) and social identity theory (group/category), Stets and Burke (2000, p. 226) stated that 'theorists in both traditions recognize that individuals view themselves in terms of meanings imparted by a structured society'. In summary, although identity represents an individual's subjective perspective on the self, identities are formed through social interaction. Accordingly, an outline of how the concept of identity is nested in the

broader concepts of self and self-concept is warranted, to elucidate where my examination of identity sits in relation to existing social psychological scholarship.

2.3.3 Self and Self-concept

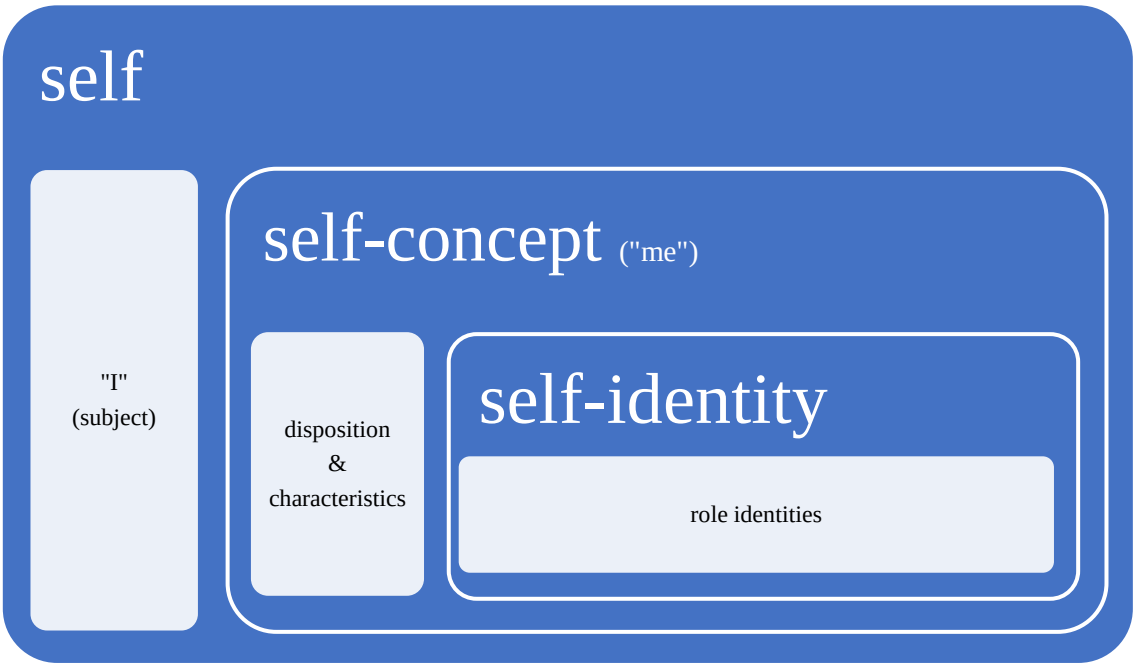
Symbolic interactionism theorists emphasise the internalised nature of identity within the context of a stable self-structure. Consequently, the self-concept is nested (see Figure 7) within the more inclusive concept of the self (Owens et al., 2010). As Owens et al. (2010, p. 478) contended,

> "the self consists of two components: the "I" and the "me" (Mead, 1934). The "I" (or subject) is the dynamic, novel, spontaneous aspect of the self that constitutes the individual as knower and actor. The "me" (or object) is all the learned perspectives a person takes towards themselves and the attitudes that the "I" assumes towards one's own person, especially when taking the role of the other."

In contrast, Rosenberg (1979) defined self-concept as the totality of a specific person's thoughts and feelings towards themselves as an object of reflection. In both the sociological and psychological literature, a person's self-concept is viewed as having an important influence on behaviour (Epstein, 1973; Markus, 1977; Turner, 1982). The self-concept (or the 'me') can be thought of as consisting of three broad classes of individual attributes (Rosenberg, 1979): self-referring dispositions, physical characteristics and identities (Owens et al., 2010). Given that the focus of my study is self-identity, the next section provides a definition of self-identity, and outlines how self-identity is nested in the broader concepts of self and self-concept, to explain how my examination of self-identity sits in relation to existing social psychological scholarship.

Figure 7

Self, Self-Concept & Self-identity



Source: Owens et al., 2010

2.3.4 Self-identity

The concept of self-identity is nested (see Figure 7) within the more inclusive concepts of the self and the self-concept (Owens et al., 2010). Self-identity has been defined as being 'composed of the self-views that emerge from the reflexive activity of identification or self-categorization in terms of membership in particular roles or groups' (Stets & Burke, 2000, p. 226). Consequently, individuals tend to present themselves in ways that are congruent with their self-identity (Burke & Reitzes, 1991), and this extends to attitudes (Smith & Hogg, 2008) and behaviour (Callero, 1985; Sparks & Shepherd, 1992). The next section provides an overview of the sources of self-identity, including the selection of role-based identities as a valid and enduring concept on which to theoretically rely when examining attitudes and behaviour across various contexts.

2.3.5 Sources of Self-identity

The focus of this study is the third attribute of Rosenberg's (1979) self-concept; that is, self-identity. Four key forms of self-identity are identified and categorised in the literature: personal identity, role-based identity, category-based identity and group membership-based identity (Owens et al., 2010; Rosenberg, 1979; Thoits & Virshup, 1997). In other words, classification is generally based on the source of identity (personal or role based, social category or group based).

The most elementary type of identity is personal identity, the social classification of an individual into a single category (Rosenberg 1979). Personal identity is described in the literature as 'a person's unique sense of self' (Postmes & Jetten, 2006, p. 260). According to Owens et al. (2010), personal identities may also include roles such as organisational, relational and occupational roles, and are called role identities (Stryker, 1968, 1980). Stryker and Burke (2000) noted that individuals tied to social structures and relationships also develop personal identities.

Based on Thoits and Virshup's (1997) conceptualisations, Terry et al. (1999, p. 229) described:

> "role identities as individual-level identities or 'me's' because they reflect the definition of self as a person who performs a particular social role and group-level identities (group and category identities) as 'we's' because they reflect identifications of the self with a social group or category."

Moreover, role identities have been defined as self-descriptive and internalised, and have consequently become part of one's self-concept (Owens et al., 2010; Thoits, 1995). Put another way, role identities are predicated on recurrent interactions between role partners and provide the self with meaning because they carry recognised role expectations (Hogg et al.,

1995; Owens et al., 2010), whether complementary (parent and carer) or competing (professional and parent).

Role identities have also been described as a social position a person holds in a broader social structure (Owens et al., 2010; Stryker, 2008). Stryker's (2008) explanation of the concept of social structure, 'as the socially patterned interactions and relationships noted for their regularity, resistance to change, and capacity to reproduce themselves' (Owens et al., 2010, p. 481), affirms role identities as a valid concept to theoretically rely upon when examining behaviour. Classic identity theory argues that people choose behaviours that correspond to their role identity (Burke & Reitzes, 1981; Burke & Tully, 1977; Callero, 1985; Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Tripathi et al., 2020). In other words, role identities may influence behaviour because of a person's motivation to pursue lines of conduct compatible with their self-concept, and tendency to perceive situations as relevant to their role identities (Capitano et al., 2017; Markus, 1977). Accordingly, my study focuses on role-based identities (the me's), that involve internalisation of identity meaning into the self-structure, which is underpinned by role relationships.

The next section provides an overview of role-based identity theoretical perspectives, including the selection and application of a structural symbolic interactionism (Stryker, 1968, 1980) theoretical approach within my study.

2.4 Role Identity—Theoretical Perspectives

The general idea that role identities vary in the degree to which they are a part of the self was first introduced by James (1890), Cooley (1902) and Mead (1934). Since these seminal works, the concept has been theorised in the self-identity literature. Specifically, role identity has been conceptualised via three separate, but related theoretical perspectives (Abeysekera & Gahan, 2017; Stryker & Burke, 2000). These approaches are represented by the work of Stryker and colleagues (Stryker, 1968, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1982) and Burke

and colleagues (Burke, 1991; Burke & Reitzes, 1981, 1991; Burke & Stets, 1999; Cast et al., 1999; Stets & Burke, 1996, 2000). Over several decades, role identity theory has emerged as a robust theory of the self (Burke & Stets, 2009; Carter, 2013).

Role identity has often been conceptualised as a motivational source for performing tasks and activities central to a role (Stryker, 1968). The notion that identity remains relatively stable and accounts for role performance is pivotal to identity theory research (Burke & Stets, 2009; Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Tripathi et al., 2020). Stets and Burke (2000, p.225) emphasised that the 'core of an identity is the categorization of the self as an occupant of a role, and the incorporation, into the self, of the meanings and expectations associated with that role and its performance'. These expectations and meanings form a set of standards that guide behaviour (Burke, 1980, 1991; Burke & Reitzes, 1981; Stets & Burke, 2000). Burke and colleagues focused on the internal dynamics of self-processes as these affect social behaviour (Stryker & Burke, 2000). According to Burke (1991), when an identity is activated in a given situation, a feedback loop is required to influence social behaviours. Put another way, behaviour is a function of the difference between the meanings perceived by an individual in a given situation and the self-meanings of the identity. These self-meanings are the identity standard, which defines an individual's role identity in the situation (Burke, 1991; Stets, 2006; Stryker & Burke, 2000). Conversely, McCall and Simmons (1978) viewed identity and behaviour as a product of an individual's attempt to relate their identities with those of others with whom they interact in a given situation (Stets, 2006).

Role identity theory (Stryker, 1968, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1982) regards the self as differentiated into multiple identities that reside in circumscribed practices, such as roles. Identification occurs from holding a role and behaving in ways that meet the obligations and expectations of that role (Hogg et al., 1995), in which the focus is on individual behaviour as

it is mediated by role identities (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Consistent with the role identity theory literature (Stryker, 1968, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1982), Terry et al., (1999, p. 226) contended that 'people have distinct components of self for each of the role positions that they occupy'. Additionally, this perspective was held by Stets and Burke (2003) who contended that the self is composed of a collection of identities that reflect the roles that a person occupies in the social structure.

As noted, the role identity theory perspective that underpins my study is based on the work of Stryker and Burke (2000, p. 285), who examined 'how social structures affect the structure of self and how structure of the self, influences social behaviour'. Stryker (1968, 1980) contended that, through social interaction, individuals classify relationships and expected standards of behaviour. These classified relationships consist of roles, which are linked to positions individuals hold within the social structure (e.g. employee, parent). Accordingly, identity represents internalised meanings and behavioural expectations associated with a given role (Stryker & Burke, 2000). This theoretical approach lies within structural symbolic interactionism (Stryker, 1980), whose 'goal is to understand and explain how social structures affect self and how self affects social behaviours' (Stryker & Burke, 2000, p. 285). Through the lens of role identity, this study examines internalised meanings and behaviours associated with multiple identities and their effect on attitudes towards and social behaviours.

Central to role identity theory is the view that to understand and predict behaviour, it is necessary to conceive of the self and the wider social structure as inseparably linked (Terry et al., 1999). Accordingly, one's role identity is shared, socially recognised and defined by action. In this sense a role identity provides an opportunity to better understand the connection between the behaviour of the individual self and society (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Stryker and Burke (2000) contended that the most visible consequences of the importance of

role identities relate to behaviour. Role identities, by definition, imply action, and it is through action that role identities are realised and validated. Accordingly, variation in the importance a person places on a particular role identity is likely to be reflected in differences in behaviour associated with that role identity (Callero, 1985). This view was further supported by Terry et al, (1999), who contended that the extent to which the self is defined in terms of the role identity may predict behaviours. In terms of behavioural consequences, Stryker and Burke (2000) posited that if the competing identities differ greatly in importance, the identity with higher levels of importance will be enacted through the operative identity standard and perceived self-meanings. The direct implication of the behavioural notion of identity importance is that identities positioned higher in the salience hierarchy are tied more closely to behaviour. Thus, people with the same role identities may behave differently in a given context, because of differences in identity salience (Callero, 1985; Hogg et al., 1995; Thoits 1991). For example, one person may work on the weekend while another may spend time with their children; yet both may have a 'family' role identity. The work behaviour enacted by one person may be explained by the extent to which their self is defined in terms of higher work role identity taking precedence over family role identity. In contrast, the family behaviour exhibited by the other person may result from the extent to which their self is defined in terms of higher family role identity taking precedence over work role identity.

My study draws on role identity theory by conceptualising identity on a continuum encompassing a range of attitudinal and behavioural possibilities. When identity is 'considered in probability terms, it appears that social identity theory uses only the probabilities of 0 and 1 (the in or out group), while role identity theory uses the full range of probabilities' (Stets & Burke, 2000, p. 229). The conceptualisation of attitudinal and behavioural constructs on a continuum, in the identity literature, is not without precedent. For instance, Katz-Wise et al. (2010) operationalised gender-role attitudes, family and work

identity on continua, when examining changes in behaviour across the first-time transition to parenthood.

The next section justifies the selection of role identity theory as the underlying theoretical framework with which to examine relationships between an individual's identity and attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. The selection of role identity theory is outlined through the critical review of role identity theory and its suitability for my research.

2.5 Selection of Role Identity Theory as the Framework for the Current Study

Role identity theory is conceptually well positioned to support my research objective to examine the relationship between role identity (the self) and prediction of attitudes towards and utilisation (behaviour) of FWAs in the workplace. Recently, work–family scholars (Williams et al., 2016) have contended that research may benefit from an examination of identity, as it connects social structures and individual behaviour. This viewpoint had previously been supported by identity researchers (Hogg et al., 1995, p. 257) who contended that 'Identity is a pivotal concept linking social structure with individual action; thus, the prediction of behaviour requires an analysis of the relationship between self and social structure'. Accordingly, the combination of Williams et al.'s recommendation regarding the examination of identity, and Hogg et al.'s contention that role identity theory may be effective in understanding salient identities and their influence on behaviour, reinforces the selection for this study of identity theory as an appropriate theoretical framework. This theoretical approach is consistent with Stryker and colleagues' contemplation and examination of the way social structures influence the structure of self; and conversely, how structure of the self influences social behaviour (e.g. Stryker & Burke, 2000).

Leading identity scholars (Hogg et al., 1995) have critically examined the similarities and differences between social identity theory and identity theory. Hogg et al. contended that

role identity theory has ‘strengths in its analysis of the impact of chronic identities on (mostly individualistic) outcomes, and in its emphasis on interpersonal social interactive contexts’ (Hogg et al., 1995, p. 267). Moreover, Hogg et al. suggested that role identity theory may be more effective for understanding salient identities and interpersonal social interaction, than social identity theory, whereas social identity theory is more valuable in exploring intergroup dimensions. Stets and Burke’s (2000) examination of social identity theory and role identity theory provided an insight into the similarities and core components of both theories.

An important implication of role identity is found in its effect on attitude and behaviour. The more strongly an individual identifies with a role identity, the greater the probability that they will behave consistently with that identity (Charng et al., 1988). Very limited research has empirically tested role identity as an antecedent of attitudes and behaviours—an exception being Fox and Bruce’s (2001) examination of father role identity. Accordingly, the current study seeks to contribute to this area of theory by examining multiple role identities and their influence on attitudes and behaviour.

Prior to examining multiple role identity theory, a brief overview of intersectionality theory (Crenshaw, 1991) is provided to distinguish between the intersecting social identity theoretical perspective and multiple role identity theory, which underpins my study.

2.5.1 Intersectionality Theory

Intersectionality theory (Crenshaw, 1991) examines how the intersections of multiple social identities (e.g. race, gender, class, sexuality, religion, disability) may influence social experiences. Crenshaw (1989) used the concept of intersectionality to represent how gender and race interact to influence various aspects of Black women’s employment experiences. Furthermore, Crenshaw (1991, p. 1244) explored ‘the various ways in which race and gender intersect in shaping structural, political, and representational aspects of violence against women of colour’. Although social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) theoretically

underpins intersectionality theory through contemplation of broader social category membership, it is important to note that Crenshaw (1991, p. 1242) contended that 'ignoring differences within groups contributes to tension among groups'. By examining the intersections of race and gender, intersectionality theory challenged the assumption that race and gender are essentially separate categories. Put another way, by tracing the categories to their intersections, Crenshaw (1991) established a methodology that disrupted the tendency to see social identities (race and gender) as exclusive or separable.

Although this theoretical approach has similarity with role identity, in that it contemplates intragroup associations, it differs from role identity theory (Serpe & Stryker, 1987; Stets & Burke, 1996) in that role identity is based on the behaviours displayed by persons as a function of their role identities, and focuses on reciprocal, negotiated outcomes for group members (Stets & Burke, 2000). Conversely, intersectionality theory is underpinned by social identity theory, in that it is based on the meanings associated with being a member of a broader social category and focuses on common or shared outcomes for group members. Hogg et al. (1995) contended that role identity theory may be more effective in understanding role identities and interpersonal social interaction, than social identity theory. Accordingly, the activation of multiple role identities, which underpins my study, is discussed in the next section, including how a person may independently activate or co-activate role identities.

2.6 Multiple Identities

Scholars acknowledge that individuals often hold multiple identities concurrently (Burke & Stets, 2009; Capitano et al., 2017; Marks & MacDermid, 1996; Roccas & Brewer, 2002). For example, Ramarajan and Reid (2013, p. 621) contended that the 'self-definitions and meanings constructed through interaction with others' may encompass multiple identities developed across various social settings (Burke & Stets, 2009; James, 1890; Mead, 1934).

Furthermore, multiple identity conceptualisation is congruent with identity theory, in which the self is viewed as a structure of roles (Turner, 1978), identities (Stryker, 1980) or role identities (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Role identities are defined by the social structure and by the individual; when combined they are said to represent the person (Turner, 1978). People have multiple identities, but not all identities are activated at the same time and sometimes identities may concurrently operate with other identities (Burke, 1991; Burke & Stets, 2009). An example is a situation in which a person (who is both a professional and a parent) is dealing with or thinking about a family member in a work setting, which activates both identities (e.g. work role identity and family role identity) at the same time.

When considering multiple identities within a person, Burke and Stets (2009) posited that multiple identities can be examined from an internal or external perspective. The internal framework focuses on how an individual's multiple identities function together within the self and how a person manages to verify each identity. Conversely, the external perspective 'addresses how the multiple identities that an individual has are tied into the complexities of the social structure in which the individual is embedded' (Burke & Stets, 2009, p. 131). This external focus is consistent with the structural symbolic interaction theoretical framework (Stryker, 1980) that underpins my study. The external perspective contends that there are several ways in which the identities may relate to one another within the social structure. For example, a person may activate multiple role identities within a single group, or different role identities within intersecting groups (Burke & Stets, 2009).

In circumstances in which multiple role identities are activated within the context of a single group, activation of identities may lead over time to the identities developing similar levels of importance (Burke & Stets, 2009). In other words, when identities are activated together (co-activated), and with similar activation levels, identities should develop similar levels of probability of activation. Furthermore, Burke and Stets contended that when co-

activation occurs in the presence of a common set of others (e.g. a family or workplace), these others come to know the person in terms of those identities, and therefore the person increases their commitment to those activated multiple identities. Accordingly, each of the multiple co-activated identities becomes embedded in the overall structure and functioning of the group, which further assists the role identity verification process and, by extension, increases the likelihood of future multiple identity interaction.

When multiple role identities are activated within intersecting groups (circumstances in which different groups interact), activation of each may or may not occur at the same time. Burke and Stets (2009) contended that identity standards involved may shift when multiple identities are activated, with the more important identity shifting the least. Accordingly, when co-activation occurs and the meanings and expectations for each identity are incongruent, there may be an effect on identity standards.

In summary, when multiple identities are activated, a person may independently activate or co-activate multiple role identities (see Figure 8) within a single circumstance, or in the context of intersecting groups. The next section provides an explanation of co-activation of identities, and potential conflict or compatibility between identities.

2.7 Co-activation of Identities

People often hold multiple identities (Roccas & Brewer, 2002; Rosenberg, 1997), although the identities may be at various states of activation at any given time. The identity literature focuses on the concept of identity hierarchy, where one identity becomes activated and rises in the hierarchy in a specific situation, and the level of activation of other identities is reduced. Accordingly, the notion of co-activation of identities is not widely considered in the identity literature (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009). Co-activation is built on the logic of associative networks in cognitive psychology, where multiple identities can be simultaneously activated. Independent activation of an identity is based on the premise ‘that

one identity is activated at a time dependent on a particular situation or domain' (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009, p. 129). In contrast, co-activation of identities is based on 'situations in which boundaries such as those between work and non-work domains are being crossed and multiple boundaries are activated together' (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009, p. 129).

Rothbard and Ramarajan (2009) contended that the co-activation of work and non-work identities occurs when identities are integrated and the boundaries between them are permeable (see Figure 8). Integration does not involve only positively related co-activation in a compatible way; co-activation may also occur between negatively related integrated identities, such that they are conflicting. The key point is that co-activation, be it compatible or conflicting, requires integration. Put another way, co-activation involves engaging in another identity, while the other identity remains activated. A person may have a positive or negative experience when identities are simultaneously activated. A negative co-activation is experienced as conflicting; that is, identities are experienced in opposition to one another (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009). In contrast, a positive co-activation is experienced as compatible; that is, identities are experienced as synergistic with one another (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009). This theoretical perspective underpins later sections of this chapter in which I examine co-activation of role identities on employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs, and subsequent interactive effects.

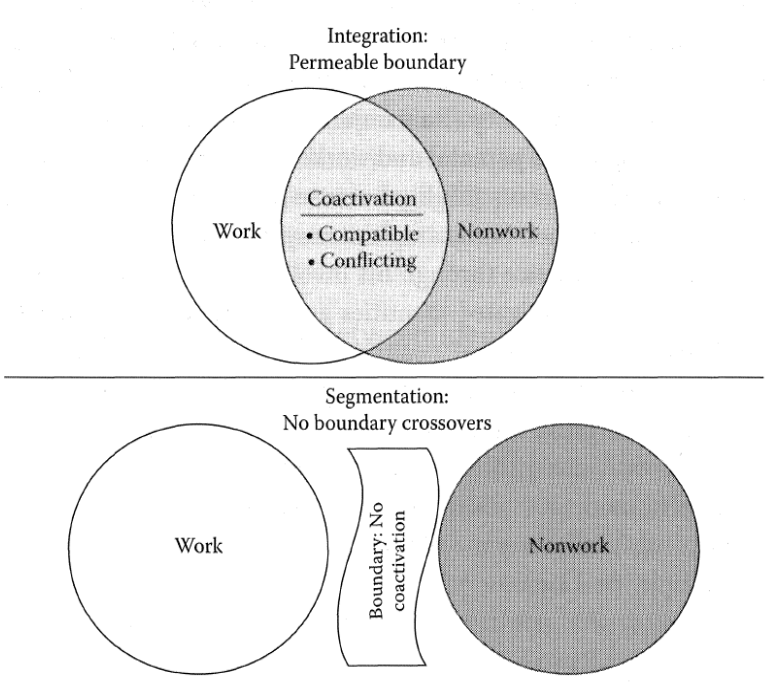
2.7.1 Conflict or Compatibility between Identities

How do people experience the co-activation of identities, positively or negatively? The work–family literature examines how work and family identities may collide (Lobel, 1991; Rothbard & Edwards, 2003). For example, when family role identity and ideal worker are intermingled in the workplace, a person may feel conflict because they are torn between being a parent or spouse and an ideal worker. When two conflicting identities are co-activated, one may experience negative effect and tension because of opposing cognitions

(Festinger, 1957). In contrast to this situation, the work–family literature examines how co-activated identities may relate positively to one another. This idea is based on the notion that engagement in a role and identification with a role identity may be enriching to other roles and identities (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010; Rothbard, 2001). Furthermore, Ramarajan (2008) contended that identity compatibility occurs when information associated with one identity is complementary to that for another identity. If co-activated identities are compatible, individuals are likely to feel positive towards potential cognitive behaviours (Clore & Huntsinger, 2007: Fredrickson, 2001; Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009).

Figure 8

Co-activation (Integration) and Independent (Segmentation) Activation of Multiple Identities



Note. Based on boundary crossovers, integration, and co-activation between work and non-work identities (Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009, p. 132).

Research has shown that identities may spill across domains (Rothbard & Edwards, 2003; Rothbard & Ramarajan, 2009). Given the existence of multiple identities, the understanding of co-activation provides an insight into how activation of more than one role identity occurs, and subsequent interactive effects. The next section outlines the application of role identity theory in the current study and explains how different role identity may influence employee attitudes towards and utilisation of FWAs.

2.8 Application of Role Identity in the Current Study

This study draws on role identity to examine the activation of multiple identities: ideal worker role identity, family role identity and caregiver role identity. These role identities were selected given their ubiquitous nature and increasing importance in the work–family literature. Central to this perspective is the assumption that some role identities are more a part of the self than others, and thus have a variable effect on the self-concept. Thus, for one person the ideal worker role identity may be the dominant aspect of the self, taking precedence over other role identities and affecting general self-perceptions and actions. For another person, however, the family role identity may be more important and concerns of family will come before those of work (Callero, 1985). Conceptualisation and operationalisation of these role identities provides the theoretical and empirical framework with which to examine how role identity may influence employees' attitudes towards FWAs. The next section provides a review of the literature regarding ideal worker role identity, family role identity and caregiver role identity.

2.9 Ideal Worker Role Identity

Having outlined the application of role identities in the current study, I now focus on the ideal worker role identity (hereafter ideal worker identity), which is underpinned by two social constructs. The first is the ideal worker norm (Williams, 2000), 'whereby critical social identities are forged on the job: such as, core identities of what it means to be a good worker,

a good man or woman, and a good person' (Williams et al., 2016, p. 532). Moreover, Williams et al. (2016, p. 527) contended that 'the ideal worker identity is framed around the ideal worker norm'. The second is the work devotion schema, which reflects deep cultural assumptions that work demands and deserves undivided and intensive allegiance (Blair-Loy, 2003).

Over the past three decades, organisational scholarship (Acker, 1990; Bailyn, 2006; Reid, 2015; Williams et al., 2013) has posited that organisations often expect professionals to assume an ideal worker identity, which demonstrates 'they are fully committed to and totally available for their work, with no external commitments that limit this devotion' (Reid, 2015, p. 998). Furthermore, individuals with high ideal worker identity are more likely to be totally dedicated to their jobs and always on call, consistently choosing to 'prioritize their jobs ahead of other parts of their lives: their role as parents (actual or anticipated), their personal needs, and even their health' (Reid & Ramarajan, 2016, p. 86). These behaviours personify an ideal worker—'the most desirable worker, as one who is totally committed to, and always available for, his or her work' (Reid, 2015, p. 997). In summary, the ideal worker identity is conceptually aligned with Williams et al.'s (2013, p. 211) viewpoint that the 'work devotion schema specifies the cognitive belief, moral commitment, and emotional salience of making work the central focus of one's life'.

Munsch et al. (2014, p. 44) contended that 'the ideal worker identity is based on a traditional, gendered division of labour' (Acker, 1990; Williams, 2000). Historically, men have been more able to comply with these norms because women have been responsible for the domestic realm (Davies & Frink, 2014). However, with women's participation in paid labour now widespread (Bailyn, 1993; Drago, 2007; Williams, 1999), this traditional view requires reconsideration. Berdahl and Moon (2013) found that women with no children are likely to be perceived as ideal workers, and highly competent and dedicated to their work

(Cuddy et al., 2004). Childless professional women who are highly competent, work long hours and are dedicated to their work are likely to adopt the ideal worker identity (Berdahl & Moon, 2013; Cuddy et al., 2004).

It is widely believed in today's modern workforce, that professionals' and managers' (knowledge workers) behaviours are still being driven by the ideal worker norm and work devotion schema, as career progression and rewards often follow through being perceived to exhibit such devotion through associated behaviours (Bailyn, 2006; Reid, 2015). Indeed, the ideal worker identity is now perceived as widespread in professional and managerial settings across multiple industries, including tech start-ups, investment banks, consulting, architecture, journalism, teaching and medical services (Reid & Ramarajan, 2016). Put another way, the ideal worker identity is unencumbered by non-work responsibilities and places a primacy on work (Dumas & Sanchez-Burks, 2015; Williams et al., 2016). The ideal worker image is central to many professions' expected identities, such as those of academics (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014; Manchester et al., 2013), and executives and managers (Blair-Loy; 2003; Reid, 2015).

Influential work–family scholars have contemplated the ideal worker identity. For example, Drago (2007, pp. 8–9) described his own ideal worker identity when explaining how he attempted, but ultimately failed, to reduce his self-imposed long hours of work by recounting that 'partly because I love the work, but also because my identity and sense of self-value were so closely tied to job performance. After a few months, I basically returned to my earlier pattern of long hours'. Moreover, based on interviews with corporate executives, Blair-Loy contended that work devotion not only defines our assumptions about work but gives the worker a sense of identity (Aguilar, 2012). These insights provide a glimpse into the importance of having a better understanding of ideal worker identity; specifically, to examine the influence identity may have in terms of employee attitudes and behaviour.

To date, very limited research (e.g. Howell et al., 2017; Reid, 2015) has examined flexibile work practices through the lens of an employee's professional identity, which this study examines as an ideal worker identity. Howell et al. (2017) examined flexibility from the perspective of conflicts related to medicine's professional identity, built on the 'ideal worker' norm, as a framework to build effective interventions that enhance career flexibility and improve faculty recruitment and retention. Reid (2015) conceptualised that the way employees navigate organisational expectations that they be ideal workers is through an expected professional identity, which is built on the 'ideal worker' norm. My study's examination of the ideal worker identity builds on recent ideal worker identity scholarship (Howell et al., 2017; Reid, 2015), which highlighted the importance of examining the continued demand to be an ideal worker in professional organisational settings, and the various ways these demands influence employee work experiences.

My research was undertaken in organisational settings, with the objective of better understanding how role identity may influence employee attitudes to utilisation of FWAs. Congruent with leading work–family scholars (e.g. Williams et al., 2016) this study examines identities by focusing on professionals and managers:

> "as the norms of work devotion (Blair-Loy, 2003) that fuel extreme work hours and the exponential pay that comes with them (Cha & Weeden, 2014) are most intense in this demographic. Professionals and managers are most influential in shaping workplace policies." (Williams et al., 2016, p. 526).

Accordingly, an enhanced understanding of the effect of identity on attitudes and behaviours towards utilisation of FWAs will better inform consideration of practical implications for this influential employee group. Drawing on identity theory (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Burke, 2000) and consistent with the professional identity literature (Acker, 1990; Bailyn, 2006; Howell et al., 2017; Reid, 2015), I conceptualise ideal worker identity as

internalised meanings and behavioural expectations associated with being completely committed to, and available for work, while limiting non-work commitments.

As a complement to the work–family literature (e.g. Williams et al., 2016), which posits that critical social identities are forged on the job, this study also examines non-work role identities of family role identity and caregiver role identity, given their importance and relevance in work–family research. Rising workforce diversity (Davis-Blake & Broschak, 2009; Deal et al., 2010), declining job security (Kalleberg, 2009) and the spread of communication technologies (Barley et al., 2011; Scott, 1999; Scott & Timmerman, 1999) is breaking down the barriers between work and non-work identities (Ramarajan & Reid, 2013). In response to workplace trends, work–life researchers (e.g. Kossek & Lautsch, 2018) have suggested there is value in examining how work identities interact with non-work identities. One such non-work identity, family role identity, warrants examination given its ubiquitous nature and relevance to identity family and workplace research.

2.10 Family Role Identity

Work–family scholars (e.g. Dumas & Stanko, 2017; Wayne et al., 2006) posit that family structure, parental responsibility and spousal relationships are key drivers of family role identification. A family role identity may be composed of multiple meaningful relationships (e.g. spouse and/or parent) that contribute to an individual's identification with their family role (Masterson & Hoobler, 2015). The more these types of relationships people experience, the greater will be their family role identification, particularly when the relationships entail regular interaction with role members. Moreover, having a family is generally associated with greater psychological importance being placed on the non-work domain, and greater attention devoted to the family role, often because of increased time spent on domestic responsibilities (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). For example, being a parent may result in spending more time on family responsibilities and

attending to the needs of children (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Grady & McCarthy, 2008; Mayrhofer et al., 2008). Additionally, having a spouse often requires time and effort to maintain and nurture the relationship (Becker & Moen, 1999).

Drawing on identity theory (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Burke, 2000) and consistent with the family identity literature (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Becker & Moen, 1999; Dumas & Stanko, 2017; Grady & McCarthy, 2008; Mayrhofer et al., 2008; Wayne et al., 2006) I define family role identity (hereafter family identity) as the importance placed on family as part of one's self-identity, through the internalised meanings and behavioural expectations associated with attending to domestic and/or parenting responsibilities and maintaining spousal relationships. An examination of the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards FWAs has merit, given that the utilisation of FWAs may provide the opportunity for a person to attend to and balance parenting responsibilities and spousal relationships with work obligations, thereby verifying their family identity.

In addition to an examination of the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards FWAs, another important non-work role identity requires examination: caregiver role identity. Other work–life researchers (e.g. Kossek & Lautsch, 2018) have called for examination of how work identities interact with non-work identities. Thus, another non-work identity, the caregiver role identity, merits consideration, given its ubiquitous nature and increasing relevance to family and workplace research.

2.11 Caregiver Role Identity

Caregiver role identity warrants examination given caregiving's ever-increasing importance and relevance to work–family research as a result of ageing population trends, longer life expectancies and increasing numbers of people with chronic illness or dementia globally (Calvano, 2013; Eifert et al., 2015; Miller et al., 2020). As demographic trends alter the traditional arrangements for caregiving, an increasing percentage of caregivers is

employed. Consequently, the tension between employment and caregiving responsibilities is increasing, thereby potentially influencing employees' attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs (Calvano, 2013).

Given global ageing population trends, longer life expectancies are leading to greater possibility of illness and incapacitation (Crimmins & Beltrán-Sánchez, 2010), and by extension an increased requirement for caregiving. This viewpoint was supported by Eifert et al. (2015, p. 357) who stated that 'as the ageing population increases, the prevalence of people with chronic illness or disability who need care will also increase'. Consequently, the necessity for caregiving—defined as informal, uncompensated care provided by family and friends (Smith, 2004)—will continue to rise. This caregiving responsibility often falls to spouses and/or adult children. In terms of identity, these caregivers cease to be just husband/wife/partner or son/daughter but take on the identity of 'caregiver'. Caregiving, beyond parental responsibility, may extend to caring for siblings or partners; however, most caregiving, beyond direct parental responsibility, relates to caring for parents, often referred to as eldercare (Calvano, 2013).

In practice, the range of elder caregiving roles and responsibilities is wide and includes providing direct care such as bathing, feeding, toileting and giving medication, offering emotional support and comfort, managing relationships among doctors, scheduling appointments, and transporting and accompanying patients to appointments (Bookman & Harrington, 2007; Smith, 2004). Rosenthal et al. (2007, p. 757) divided these tasks into two categories: 'hands-on care' and 'managerial care'. Although most caregivers are female (Bookman & Harrington, 2007), eldercare responsibilities are on the rise for men (Barrah et al., 2004; Robinson et al., 2003). Further layers of complexity are added because caregivers are usually employed outside the home and live in a different geographic area than their elderly relatives (Calvano, 2013). Given that a high percentage of caregivers is employed

outside the home, the tension between employment and caregiving responsibilities may also increase (Calvano, 2013).

Drawing on identity theory (Stryker, 1968; Stryker & Burke, 2000) and consistent with the caregiver identity literature (Calvano, 2013; Eifert et al., 2015) I define caregiver role identity (hereafter caregiver identity), as the importance placed on caregiving as part of one's self-identity, through the internalised meanings and behavioural expectations associated with the provision of informal, uncompensated care to an unwell person, most often a parent or spouse. Thus, an examination of caregiver identity and its effect on employee attitudes towards FWAs will provide valuable insight for organisations as they contemplate the effect of increasing caregiving on employee identities, attitudes and behaviours. Furthermore, an examination of the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards FWAs has merit given that the utilisation of FWAs may provide the opportunity for a person to attend to and balance caregiving responsibilities with work obligations, thereby verifying their caregiver identity.

In summary, the ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity constructs outlined above provide the foundation for examining how these role identities may influence employee attitudes towards FWAs. Given that identity scholarship (Burke & Stets, 2009; Capitano et al., 2017; Marks & MacDermid, 1996; Roccas & Brewer, 2002) acknowledges that individuals may often hold multiple identities concurrently, my study discusses both the independent activation and co-activation of role identities. Independent activation and co-activation are discussed in the following sections of the literature review to better understand how multiple role identities may influence employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Specifically, the next section considers the independent activation of ideal worker identity in terms of its effect on employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

2.12 Independent Activation of Multiple Identities

As previously discussed, when multiple identities are activated, a person may independently activate or co-activate multiple role identities (see Figure 8 presented earlier) within a single circumstance, or in the context of intersecting groups. The next section outlines the application of role identity and boundary theory in the current study and explains how independent activation of ideal worker identity may influence employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

2.12.1 Ideal Worker Identity and Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Arrangements

The ideal worker identity is institutionalised in organisational practices and is underpinned by work devotion. Williams et al.'s (2013, p. 211) contention that 'company practices including an expectation that minimal time will be spent on caregiving or else risk stigma and career penalties' supports this viewpoint. Moreover, Howell et al. (2017) contended that conflict between personal identity and ideal worker (elite professional) identity negatively affects medical professionals' use of career flexibility policies and is a barrier to the opportunities provided by organisations' career flexibility policies. Drawing on Howell et al.'s research approach provides an understanding of why employees with higher levels of ideal worker identity may have unfavourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Blair-Loy and Wharton (2004) posited that elite jobs revolve around the work devotion schema, and those professionals 'demonstrate commitment by making work the central focus of their lives' and 'manifest singular devotion to work, unencumbered with family responsibilities' (2004, pp. 151, 153). Moreover, Coltrane et al. (2013) contended that the ideal worker is supposed to work long hours and ensure family matters do not intrude on their commitment to the job. Specifically, Cech and Blair-Loy (2014, p. 99) stated that 'those who do not illustrate a single-minded dedication to work by having childcare responsibilities or using work–life policies are seen as less ideal workers'. Consequently, a person with higher

ideal worker identity is likely to have negative perceptions towards utilisation of FWAs, arising from a combination of notions surrounding family care commitments and traditional organisational expectations. In the following section, I discuss boundary theory to further explain the influence of ideal work identity on attitudes.

2.12.2 Drawing on Boundary Theory

Boundary theory examines the various approaches through which individuals establish, maintain or alter boundaries around a role, to create order (Ashforth et al., 2000). A key challenge that many employees encounter is how to manage the relationships between the responsibilities of the work role and those of the family role (Ashforth et al., 2000). This work–life tension is examined from a role identity perspective in my study through the lens of boundary theory. The two characteristics of boundaries, as posited by Kossek and Lautsch (2012, p. 156) that 'are highlighted in work–family border theory and boundary theory are boundary permeability and flexibility'. Permeable boundaries allow aspects of one's role, such as behaviours, to spill over into another (Clark, 2000), so that 'one may be physically located in one role's domain, but psychologically and/or behaviourally involved in another role' (Ashforth et al., 2000, p. 474). In terms of flexibility, Kossek and Lautsch (2012, p. 157) defined 'role flexibility as the degree to which the boundaries of a role are elastic and changeable, so that it may be enacted in different places or at different times'. Put another way, transitions between roles are easier for flexible roles (Kossek et al., 1999).

In terms of role identity, my perspective is based on Kossek and Lautsch's (2012, p.158) position that:

> "the approach one adopts for managing boundaries may also be shaped by the priorities placed upon the work and family roles, particularly an individual's role identities. As noted earlier, role identity refers to the construction of the self in a role

and what are construed as core (essential) and noncore (flexible) features (Ashforth et al., 2000)".

Role identity assists our understanding of boundary management style, as roles with 'high identification are likely to have higher contrast in boundaries (and be less flexible and permeable) compared to others' (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012, p. 159). This theoretical perspective is consistent with work–family boundary management literature (e.g. Ashforth et al., 2000; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Lobel, 1991) that suggests that individuals may strongly identify simultaneously or independently with multiple roles, such as work and family roles, depending on the strength of the role identity and its influence on boundary management style. Accordingly, the next section explains how boundary theory, specifically the 'protection effect', may contribute to our understanding of how role identities influence employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

2.12.3 Protection Effect

Boundary theory posits that the stronger an individual's role identity, the greater the reluctance to exit that role (Ashforth et al., 2000). Consequently, individuals in a highly important role may prefer to avoid extra-role boundary permeations. For example, individuals with higher family identity may be motivated to prevent work from interrupting their family time and thereby hold favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. The protection effect is enacted when an individual with higher role identity protects that role by activating a strong impermeable boundary around that role (Capitano et al., 2017; Hecht & Allen, 2009). In terms of the work–home context, several studies have found positive relationships between work role identity and work–home boundary protection (Kossek et al., 2012; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006; Winkel & Clayton, 2010).

This study posits that individuals with higher ideal worker identity are likely to prevent non-work roles from permeating their ideal worker identity and thereby hold less

favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Accordingly, I contend that employees with higher levels of ideal work identity are more likely to be dedicated to their job and choose to prioritise their job ahead of other role identities. Put another way, less favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs are more likely to be invoked among employees with higher ideal worker identity. Accordingly, from a role identity theory perspective, ideal worker identity should be negatively associated with attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs in the form of flextime and flexplace. Thus:

H1a: There is an inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flextime.

H1b: There is an inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flexplace.

The next section examines family identity and its proposed association with employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Specifically, it outlines how independent activation of family identity may influence employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

2.12.4 Family Identity and Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Arrangements

The literature contends that having a family is generally associated with greater psychological importance being placed on the non-work domain, and increased attention devoted to the family role—often because of increased time spent on domestic responsibilities (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). For example, being a parent may result in spending increased time on family responsibilities and attending to the needs of children (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Grady & McCarthy, 2008; Mayrhofer et al., 2008). Moreover, Allen et al. (2013) contended that those with higher levels of family responsibility, such as those who are married and/or are parents, also stand to benefit more from FWAs than those with less family responsibility (Shockley & Allen, 2007). Accordingly, an examination of the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards FWAs has merit, given that

the utilisation of FWAs may provide the opportunity for a person to balance parenting responsibilities and spousal relationships with work obligations, thereby verifying their family identity.

Given mixed findings regarding the effects of family responsibility on utilisation of FWAs (Kossek et al., 1999; Ten Brummelhuis & van Der Lippe, 2010), an examination of the literature addressing the relationship between family responsibility and attitudes towards FWA utilisation may inform our understanding of how family identity affects FWA utilisation from an identity perspective. The family responsibility literature suggests that the overall desire to achieve work–life balance is a major motivation for FWA use (Frone & Yardley, 1996; McDonald et al., 2005), with parental commitment being considered a principal, but not exclusive, motivator (Sullivan & Lewis, 2001).

Cinamon and Rich (2002) suggested an employee who attributes high importance to both work and family roles will seek a workplace with a corresponding work–family culture that invests considerable resources in FWAs (such as flextime), which facilitates effective functioning in both roles. Further support for this idea was provided by the research of Honeycutt and Rosen (1997), who found that family-oriented workers used organisational programs that enabled a combination of work and family roles, to a greater extent than did career-oriented workers. This perspective acknowledges the increased responsibilities often present for employees with families, suggesting that having a family will lead employees to become more invested in their roles outside of work (Dumas & Stanko, 2017). A significant number of mothers responsible for young children is now employed, so fathers are becoming increasingly responsible for childcare (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). Consequently, mothers and fathers are more often sharing the role of primary parental caregiver. Given FWA utilisation provides workers with the opportunity to spend more time with their family members (spouse

and/or children), it follows that those employees with higher family identity are likely to hold more favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

Drawing on boundary theory, this study posits that the higher an individual's role identity, the greater the reluctance to exit that role; thus, individuals with a high role identity may prefer to avoid extra-role boundary permeation (Ashforth et al., 2000). Therefore, I contend that employees with higher levels of family identity are more likely to be dedicated to their family and choose to prioritise their family identity ahead of other role identities. Put another way, individuals with higher family identity are likely to prevent work from interrupting their family time and thereby hold favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Accordingly, viewed from an identity theory perspective, family identity should be positively associated with attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Thus:

H2a: There is a positive relationship between family identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flextime.

H2b: There is a positive relationship between family identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flexplace.

The next section examines caregiver identity and its proposed association with attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Specifically, it outlines how the independent activation of caregiver identity may influence employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

2.12.5 Caregiver Identity and Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Arrangements

As discussed previously, caregiving has been defined as informal, uncompensated care provided by family and friends (Calvano, 2013; Smith, 2004). In terms of identity, caregivers cease to be just husband/wife/partner or son/daughter, taking on the identity of 'caregiver'. Caregiving, beyond parental responsibility, may extend to caring for siblings or partners; however most caregiving, beyond direct parental responsibility, relates to caring for parents, often referred to as eldercare (Calvano, 2013).

Eldercare has been described as a ‘silent productivity killer’ because, unlike childcare, it is not discussed openly (Bookman & Harrington, 2007; Smith, 2004). Moreover, even when employers offer eldercare benefits, they are often underutilised (Dembe et al., 2008). Employees may choose not to divulge eldercare issues or may manage the demands covertly as a coping strategy and/or out of concern for their careers (Bookman & Harrington, 2007; McGowan, 2009). Given the dual elements of hands-on and managerial care, and the emotional ties family members have with each other, caregiving can be challenging on physical and emotional levels. Two-thirds of elder carers are employed across Western Economies, such as the United States, European Union countries, New Zealand and Australia (ABS, 2021; Calvano, 2013). Thus, this study proposes that caregiver identity will align with Shockley and Allen’s (2012) contention that those with greater caregiving commitment are more likely to endorse utilisation of FWAs.

I contend that employees with higher levels of caregiver identity are more likely to prioritise care and to seek FWAs to accommodate caring. Put another way, individuals with higher caregiver identity are likely to prevent work from interrupting their caregiving and thereby hold favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Accordingly, viewed from a role identity theory perspective, caregiver identity should be positively associated with attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Thus:

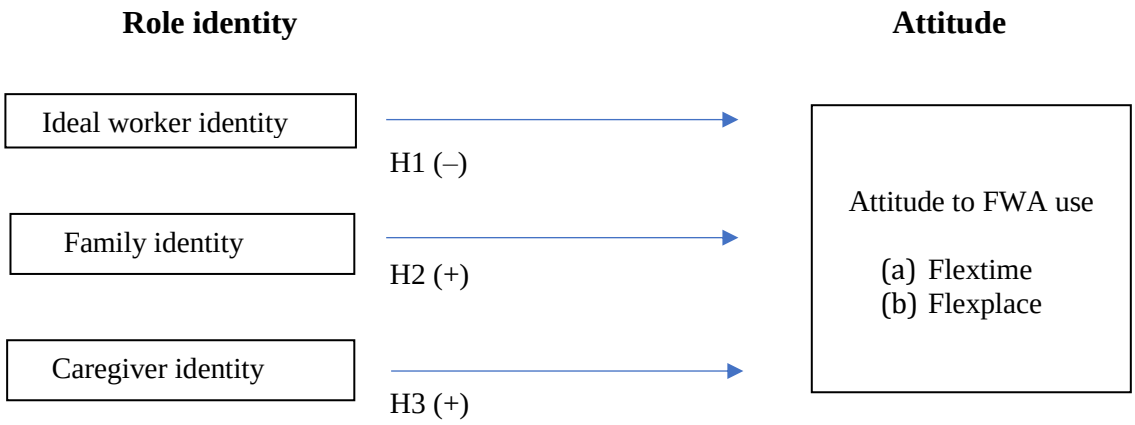
H3a: There is a positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flextime.

H3b: There is a positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flexplace.

A summary of the independent activation ‘main effects’ model is shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9

Independent Activation 'Main Effects' Model



The next section examines how gender may moderate the relationships between ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity, and attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

2.13 Gender

Gender is important as it is a key identity-related variable in the work–family literature and is widely discussed in the context of work–family issues (Eby et al., 2005) and the FWA literature (Shockley & Allen, 2012). Traditionally, gender consists of the meanings ascribed to the main two social categories (male and female) within a culture (Wood & Eagly, 2015). Through these 'gender identities, individuals understand themselves in relation to the culturally feminine and masculine meanings attached to men and women, and they may think and act according to these gendered aspects of their selves' (Wood & Eagly, 2015, p. 461). Psychologists have studied gender identity by following two major traditions. The classic tradition emerged from research on individual differences in personality and interests, and is represented by Bem's (1974) work invoking gender-stereotypic personality traits (Wood & Eagly, 2015). In contrast, the newer tradition, informed by the social identity perspective in social psychology, highlights people's sense of belonging to the social category of females or males (Schmitt & Branscombe, 2001; Wood & Eagly, 2015). The

more recent tradition of gender identity research implicates the collective identity that individuals adopt when they explicitly define themselves as a member of one gender group (female or male), through social categorisation. Wood and Eagly (2015) defined this gender group identification as the descriptive or prescriptive categorisation of oneself as female or male, along with acknowledgement of the importance of this categorisation for one's self-identity. According to Wood and Eagly (2015), self-categorisation captures a more direct self-labelling of gender identity than is provided by the personality tradition of femininity and masculinity assessment.

2.13.1 Self-defined Gender

Lindqvist et al. (2021) posited that it is important for social science researchers to identify relevant aspects of gender in relation to their research question, to assist with a grounded decision on how to measure participants' gender. Lindquist et al. (2021) recommended operationalising gender in several ways: physiological (sex); self-defined gender; legal gender; or in terms of behaviours and gender expressions (the American Psychological Association [APA] refers to this aspect as 'sex role'; APA, 2015). My study considers self-defined gender—one of the most widely used approaches to measuring gender—as a categorical variable. The measurement of gender through self-defined gender in my study is aligned with Wood and Eagly's (2015) contention that the self-categorisation approach captures a more direct self-labelling of gender identity and provides insight into the ways that gendered self-concept links the social roles of females and males with their individual cognitions, emotions and behaviours.

Specifically, this study examines how gender intensifies or de-intensifies the relationships between role identities and attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. The next section provides the background and rationale for the selection in this study of gender as a moderator of the relationships between role identities and attitudes towards FWAs. The

conceptualisation of the independent activation of multiple role identities (ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity) and the moderating influence of gender is captured within an independent activation model (see Figure 10).

2.13.2 Gender as a Moderator of the Relationship Between Ideal Worker Identity and Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Arrangements

Given the changing nature of gendered norms around the ideal worker, an examination of the moderating effects of gender is important to better understand the relationship between ideal worker identity and utilisation of FWAs. Gender is central to work–life studies (Eby et al., 2005) and underpins the ideal worker norm (Dumas & Perry-Smith, 2018; Kelly et al., 2010; Reid, 2015). Although Acker's (1990) early explanation of the ideal worker was patriarchal and historically applied to male professionals and managers, ideal worker identity may similarly apply to women in the contemporary workplace (Bardoel et al., 2011; Drago, 2007; Williams, 1999). Some scholars have suggested that gender-related assumptions about the motivation to use FWAs are potentially no longer relevant in contemporary society, because men and women increasingly do not endorse traditional gender roles (Galinsky et al., 2009; Shockley & Allen, 2012). However, there have been mixed findings concerning the effects of gender on utilisation of FWAs (e.g. Shockley & Allen, 2012; Swanberg et al., 2005; Sweet et al., 2016) and further gender research is warranted. Below, I propose that gender is a moderator of the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flextime and flexplace.

Males and females develop a clear sense of gender identity—that is, a basic psychological sense of belongingness to their own sex—early in life and continue to maintain that identity throughout their life (Green, 1974; Spence, 1993). The term typically used to label men's psychological sense of maleness is masculinity. For example, Ta (2017, p. 1) defined masculinity 'as the quality of being instrumental, agentic, and goal-oriented, and is

characterised by traits such as “dominance” and “assertiveness”’ (Bem, 1987; Spence, 1993; Spence & Helmreich, 1980). Psychological masculinity has been found to be associated with behaviours (Ta, 2017) such as self-efficacy (Adams & Sherer, 1985), self-esteem (Carlson & Steuer, 1985), fewer psychological help-seeking behaviours (e.g. Addis & Mahalik, 2003; Levant et al., 2013; Yousaf et al., 2015), higher rates of transgressions (Tsirigotis, 2017), higher job and career satisfaction (Ngo et al., 2014), and higher executive functioning (Norvilitis & Reid, 2002). Consequently, male employees may adopt extreme and inflexible schedules that require work primacy and constant availability to work, as a way of enacting masculinity (Ely & Meyerson, 2000). Therefore, male employees with higher ideal worker identity are less likely to display positive attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H4a: Gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flextime, such that the inverse relationship will be stronger for males than females.

H4b: Gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flexplace, such that the inverse relationship will be stronger for males than females.

2.13.3 Gender as a Moderator of the Relationship Between Family Identity and Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Arrangements

Working women consistently spend more time on childcare than do working men (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). Even among professional couples where both partners work full time, over 40% of female partners report doing more childcare, and almost one-third report doing more household chores (McKinsey and Company & Lean In, 2015). According to Kossek et al. (2017, p. 237) ‘compared to men, women are more family or ‘dual centric’

(equally high identity with work and family), have greater interest in jobs that have family flexibility, and are heavier users of flexibility practices'.

Accordingly, female employees with higher family worker identity are more likely to display positive attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H5a: Gender moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flextime, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.

H5b: Gender moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.

2.13.4 Gender as a Moderator of the Relationship Between Caregiver Identity and Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Arrangements

Female employees may avoid extreme and inflexible work schedules that require work primacy and constant availability to work, as a way of enacting psychological femininity gender identity traits. This view is supported by the literature, as psychological femininity has been found to be associated with caregiving-oriented behaviours (Ta, 2017) such as help-seeking intentions (Shea et al., 2017), a higher willingness to invest in relationships (Lin & Rusbult, 1995) and accommodation in relationships (Kilpatrick et al., 2002; Rusbult et al., 1991; Ta, 2017). Working women consistently spend more time on elder care than do working men (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). Therefore, female employees with higher caregiver identity are more likely to display positive attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

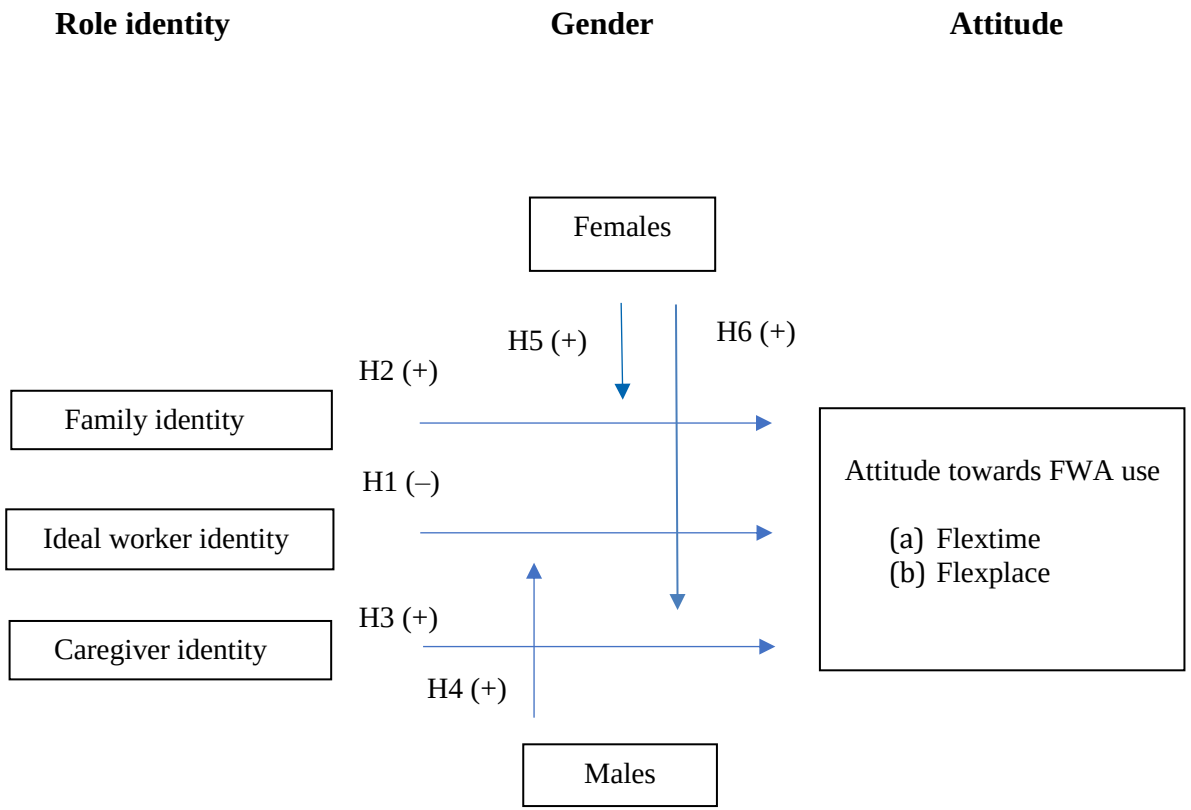
H6a: Gender moderates the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes toward utilisation of flextime, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.

H6b: Gender moderates the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes toward utilisation of flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.

As discussed previously, activation of multiple role identities may be independent or co-activated. I now turn my attention from independent activation of multiple role identities to the next section of this literature review, which examines the effect of co-activation of role identities (ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity) on employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs, and subsequent interactive effects, through the lens of a multiplicative co-activation interaction model (see Figure 11).

Figure 10

Independent Activation (with Gender Moderator) Model



2.14 Co-activation of Role Identities

According to the recent literature (Kossek et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2010), a significant challenge facing organisations is how employees 'manage the boundaries around their work and non-work roles in a way that promotes positive outcomes at work and in other parts of their lives' (Capitano et al., 2017, p. 99). Boundary management researchers (Capitano et al., 2017; Kossek et al., 2012) have contended that the combined effect of two countervailing trends has increased the significance and importance of better understanding how organisations may better manage boundaries around employee work and non-work roles. First, increased access to utilisation of FWAs affords employees the opportunity to decide when and where they work, resulting in enhanced control of their work role boundaries (Capitano et al., 2017). Second, communication technology developments have blurred the boundary between work and non-work roles such that organisations now have the ability to contact and expect employees to respond to work demands outside traditional workspaces and/or hours. Together, these trends require employees to manage the boundaries around multiple life roles (Capitano et al., 2017).

Role boundaries occur when individuals create socially constructed limits for their various life roles to establish certainty (Ashforth et al., 2000). Permeability is an important characteristic of a role boundary (Capitano et al., 2017). Essentially a role boundary is deemed permeable when aspects of another life role frequently cross the boundary and enter the role (Nippert-Eng, 1996b). Given that the permeability of boundaries can influence outcomes in multiple life roles, people develop preferences regarding how permeable their role boundaries should be. For example, work–life scholars (Kossek et al., 2012) have contended that employees who prefer an impermeable home boundary are more committed when they have greater access to segmenting policies such as flextime or flexplace

arrangements, which enable them to separate work and home. The next section examines the co-activation of identities through an examination of the ‘enactment effect’.

2.15 Enactment Effect

Boundary theory posits that an individual may prefer to enact a highly important role in other role domains (Ashforth et al., 2000; Capitano et al., 2017); thus, individuals with higher role identity may seek to enact extra-role boundary permeation. Put another way, higher role identity may lead to the desire for permeable boundaries (Capitano et al., 2017). Thus, an enactment effect exists when an individual’s higher role identity leads them to desire permeable boundaries around that role (Capitano et al., 2017; Hecht & Allen, 2009). Consistent with an enactment perspective, several studies have found positive relationships between work role identity and work–home boundary permeation (Kossek et al., 2012; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006; Winkel & Clayton, 2010). Accordingly, the examination of how co-activated role identities affect employee attitudes and utilisation of FWAs is informed by role identity theory and boundary theory, specifically the enactment effect.

Drawing on boundary theory, this study posits that when an individual prefers to enact a highly important role in other life roles, individuals with higher role identity may prefer extra-role boundary permeation (Ashforth et al., 2000). Specifically, individuals with higher family identity may be motivated to allow family responsibilities to interrupt their work time. Thus, the enactment effect is activated, and ideal worker identity is permeated because of a weak boundary around that role (Capitano et al., 2017; Hecht & Allen, 2009). Accordingly, viewed from a multiple identity co-activation perspective, the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs will be weakened by co-activation of ideal worker identity with family identity. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H7a: Family identity moderates the inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases.

H7b: Family identity moderates the inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases.

Likewise, individuals with higher caregiver identity may hold favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs and be motivated to allow caregiving to disrupt their work schedule. Thus, the enactment effect is activated, and ideal worker identity is permeated because of a weak boundary around that role (Capitano et al., 2017; Hecht & Allen, 2009). Accordingly, viewed from a multiple identity co-activation perspective, the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs would be weakened by co-activation of ideal worker identity with caregiver identity. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H8a: Caregiver identity moderates the inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases.

H8b: Caregiver identity moderates the inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases.

Caregiving responsibilities will often fall to spouses and/or adult children. As a result, family members are often caregivers and as such take on the identity of caregiver (Eifert et al., 2015). Consequently, the family identity of these spouse or adult children may be activated concurrently with their caregiver identity.

Specifically, individuals with higher family identity are motivated to conduct caregiving and thereby hold favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. Thus, the enactment effect is activated, and family identity is permeated because of a weak boundary around that role (Capitano et al., 2017; Hecht & Allen, 2009). Accordingly, viewed from a multiple identity co-activation perspective, attitudes towards FWAs are strengthened by the co-activation of family identity and caregiver identity. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H9a: Caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases.

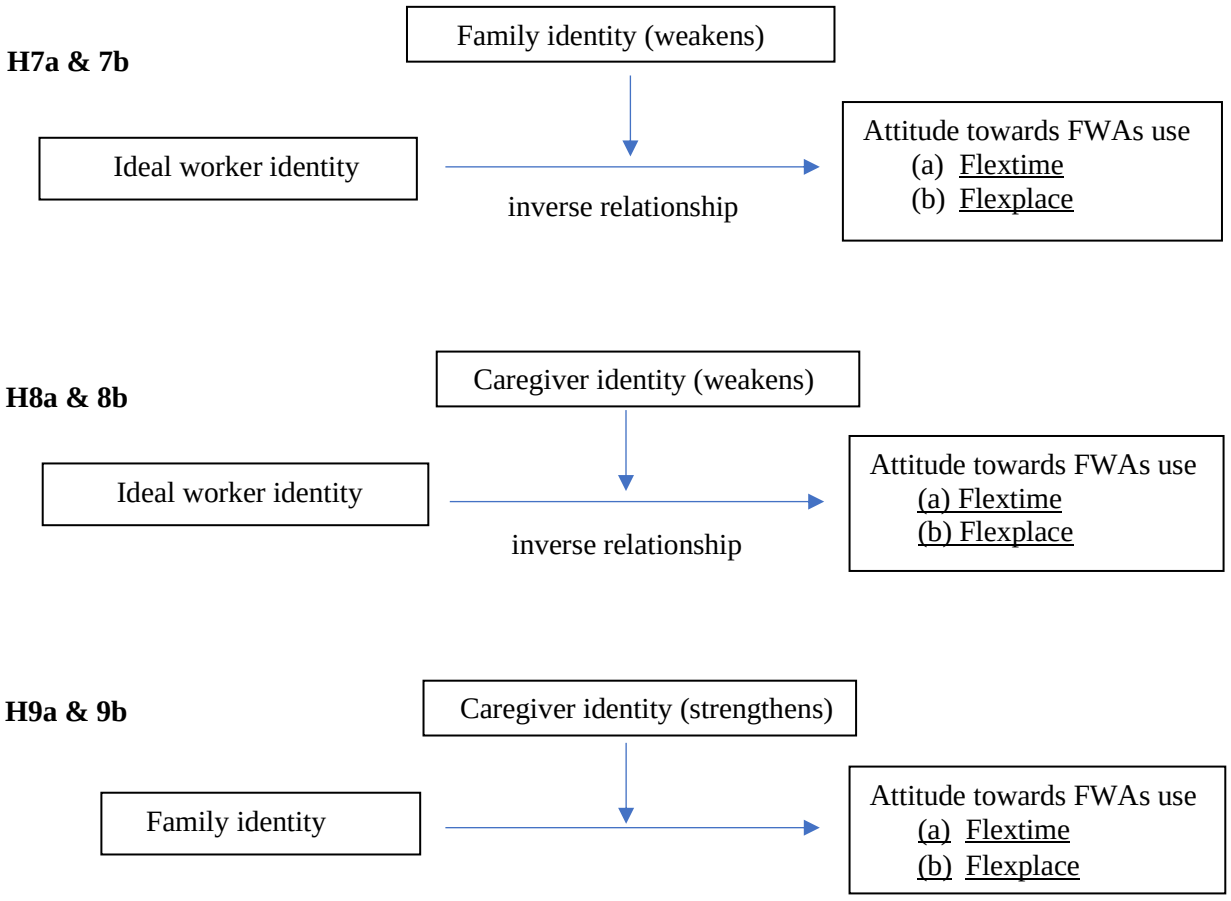
H9b: Caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases.

To this point, my literature review has focused on my Study 1 research question by examining the influence of ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity on attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. This was followed by a review of the boundary condition of gender on these relationships. Co-activation of ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity was then examined in terms of their effect on attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

The next section provides a brief review of the attitude–behaviour literature, specifically the principle of compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977), which has been selected as the Study 2 theoretical framework with which to examine employee attitudes as an antecedent of utilisation of FWAs. The chapter concludes with an examination of flexibility stigma and a discussion of the potential moderating influence of flexibility stigma on utilisation of FWAs.

Figure 11

Multiplicative Co-activation Model



2.16 Attitudes

Attitudes are an important long-standing concept in social psychology (Allport, 1935) and continue to be one of the most active areas of social psychology research. Attitude research is prominent in social psychology as leading scholars posit that attitudes guide information processing and influence behaviour (Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Glasman & Albarracın, 2006). For example, Bohner and Dickel (2011, p. 391) contended that attitudes determine what people see, hear, think and do, and Allport (1935, p. 806) described attitudes as 'our methods for finding our way about in an ambiguous universe'.

Attitudes are defined in numerous ways in the literature. For example, Ajzen (1991) argued that attitudes towards a behaviour refer to the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable appraisal of the behaviour in question. Eagly and Chaiken (2007) posited that attitudes are a psychological tendency, expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour. Put simply, an attitude 'is an evaluation of an object of thought' (Bohner & Dickel, 2011, p. 391).

2.17 Attitude–Behaviour

Leading attitude researchers (Allport, 1935; Azjen & Fishbein, 2018; Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Glasman & Albarracın, 2006) have noted the utility and predictive validity of the attitude construct for over four decades. The viewpoint that attitudes guide information processing and influence behaviour has driven extensive attitude research in social psychology (Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Glasman & Albarracın, 2006) as well as significantly influencing attitude–behaviour research (Stock & Hoyer, 2005). A wealth of studies has established that attitudes are important determinants of behaviour. For example, Kraus's (1995) meta-analysis of 88 attitude–behaviour studies confirmed that attitudes significantly and substantially predict future behaviour (Kraus, 1995). Put simply, it is now generally

accepted that there is a positive relationship between attitudes towards a particular behaviour and subsequently enacting that behaviour (Kraus, 1995; Smith & Hogg, 2008).

Although the relative importance of attitude in the prediction of behaviour may vary across situations, two prominent lines of research have implications for the attitude–behaviour relationship (Glasman & Albarracın, 2006). First, easily retrievable attitudes predict behaviour better (Fazio, 1989; Fazio & Williams, 1986). In other words, accessible attitudes allow people to make behavioural decisions (Fazio, 1989). Second, repeated expression of the attitude and direct behavioural experience are associated with both greater attitude accessibility and greater attitude–behaviour correspondence (Fazio et al., 1982; Glasman & Albarracin, 2006; Powell & Fazio, 1984; Regan & Fazio, 1977). Fazio and colleagues' research suggests that 'greater amount of thought about the attitude object, greater number of reports or expressions of the attitude, and more direct behavioural experience should increase attitude accessibility and, consequently, attitude-behaviour associations' (Glasman & Albarracın, 2006, p. 780). Moreover, Glasman and Albarracin (2006, p. 780) posited that:

> "People often retrieve and use their prior attitudes as a basis for a behaviour. However, they also adjust these attitudes on the basis of information available at the time of the behaviour decision. Thus, the stability of information associated with attitudes can increase attitude-behaviour correspondence".

In summary, leading attitude–behaviour scholars Glasman and Albarracin (2006, p. 782) have contended 'that greater amount of thought about the attitude object, greater number of reports or expressions of the attitude, and more direct behavioural experience should increase attitude accessibility and, consequently, attitude–behaviour associations'. Accordingly, an examination of the relationship between a particular attitude and subsequently enacting that particular behaviour is congruent with the principle of

compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977), which states that it is possible to obtain compatibility for a single behaviour by assessing attitudes towards the behaviour in question. The next section outlines the rationale for selecting the principle of compatibility for examining employee attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

2.17.1 Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Arrangements and Their Subsequent Utilisation

As stated by Ajzen et al. (2019, p. 208) 'The principle of compatibility requires that measures of attitude and behaviour involve exactly the same action, target, context and time elements'. These four elements are explicitly specified within this study, to examine employee attitudes towards utilisation (action) of FWAs (target) available at their organisation (context) within a defined period (time). Accordingly, the principle of compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) has been selected as a theoretical basis to underpin the examination of employee attitudes as an antecedent of utilisation of FWAs.

In accordance with the theory of compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977)—which states that it is possible to obtain compatibility for a single behaviour by assessing attitudes towards the behaviour in question—and the extant attitude–behaviour literature, which contends that attitudes are key predictors of behaviour—this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H10a: There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards flextime and utilisation of flextime.

H10b: There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and utilisation of flexplace.

2.18 Flexibility Stigma

Flexibility stigma has been described by researchers as the 'negative sanctions towards workers who appear to violate this ideal worker norm by seeking, or being assumed

by others to need, workplace accommodations to attend to their personal responsibilities' (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014, p. 87; Williams, 2000). Hays (1998) contended that employees feel constrained when considering utilisation of FWAs. Moreover, studies (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Jacobs & Gerson, 2004) have found that workers are interested in using FWAs but fear that utilisation might damage their careers.

Following the logic of the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985), flexibility stigma may stem from the subjective norm, in which perceived social pressure to perform the relevant behaviour may negatively influence attitudes towards use and utilisation of FWAs. For example, Cech and Blair-Loy (2014) demonstrated that perceptions of negative consequences regarding the use of FWAs were strongly related to perceptions that mothers and fathers were viewed as less committed than employees without parental responsibility, thereby providing empirical support for the theoretical argument that use of FWAs is stigmatised because 'parents are assumed to violate norms of work devotion' (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014, p. 91). Apart from Cech and Blair-Loy's (2014) study, there has been limited quantitative empirical work to support the theoretical literature, which contends that employees who utilise FWAs for parenting responsibilities are stigmatised because this behaviour is perceived to violate expectations of work devotion and commitment (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2014; Williams et al., 2013). Moreover, Blair-Loy et al. (2015) called for more research on how flexibility stigma may affect workplace behaviour.

2.18.1 Influence of Stigma Weakening the Attitude–Behaviour Relationship

For employees who use FWAs, this often comes with a stigma (Leslie et al., 2012) because it may conflict with the image of the ideal worker (Dumas & Sanchez-Burks, 2015), who is always available (Spreitzer et al., 2017). For example, research studies consistently report 'professionals with flexible work arrangements are viewed as time deviants who are marginalized' (Williams et al., 2016, p. 525). Flexibility stigma theorists posit that managers

may interpret employees' utilisation of FWAs as a signal of low commitment (Leslie et al., 2012; Spreitzer et al., 2017). Furthermore, leading researchers in the work–family field have contended that flexibility stigma in many workplaces affects professionals who take leave or adopt FWAs (Blair-Loy et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2013). Managers and professionals are more likely to have long work weeks than are workers in other occupations (Jacobs & Gerson, 2004), and long work hours are linked to the desire to work less (Golden & Wiens-Tuers, 2006). At the same time, these workers are also more likely to have access to flexibility practices that provide schedule control (Galinsky et al., 2008). Several studies have shown that 'workers who do have access to flexible work arrangements can be considered to be a more so-called privileged group of employees' (Swanberg et al., 2005, p. 870). However, a key challenge for workers in the upper 20% who use flexibility is having their careers stalled and not being able to rise to the most senior leadership levels, because of stigma associated with working flexibly and not being able to cut back or access reduced load to be able to care for their families (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Kossek et al., 2017). This view is supported by the empirical evidence that the lack of presenteeism associated with the use of FWAs may be detrimental to performance appraisals and career progression (Casper et al., 2007; Hoobler et al., 2009; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2016; Spreitzer et al., 2017).

Building on previous work (A. Hochschild, 1989; A. R. Hochschild, 2003; Williams, 2000), a host of studies using qualitative, quantitative and laboratory-based experimental methods have found that workers' fears of career penalties are well founded. The flexibility stigma means different things, however, depending on the social class of the worker (Williams et al., 2013). For example, professional mothers are faulted when they fail to cut back on work to care for children (Benard & Correll, 2010), and low-wage mothers are faulted when they do: if mothers need time off work, they often face the judgment that they had no business having children in the first place (Dodson, 2013). Accordingly, flexibility

stigma may weaken employee utilisation of FWAs, despite numerous benefits associated with it. Drawing upon the abovementioned flexibility stigma, and the FWA literature, this study proposes:

H11a: Flexibility stigma moderates the relationship between attitudes towards flextime and subsequent utilisation of flextime, such that the relationship will be weaker when flexibility stigma is higher.

H11b: Flexibility stigma moderates the relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and subsequent utilisation of flexplace, such that the relationship will be weaker when flexibility stigma is higher.

Figure 12 represents attitude towards utilisation of FWAs (with flexibility stigma as moderator).

2.19 Chapter Summary

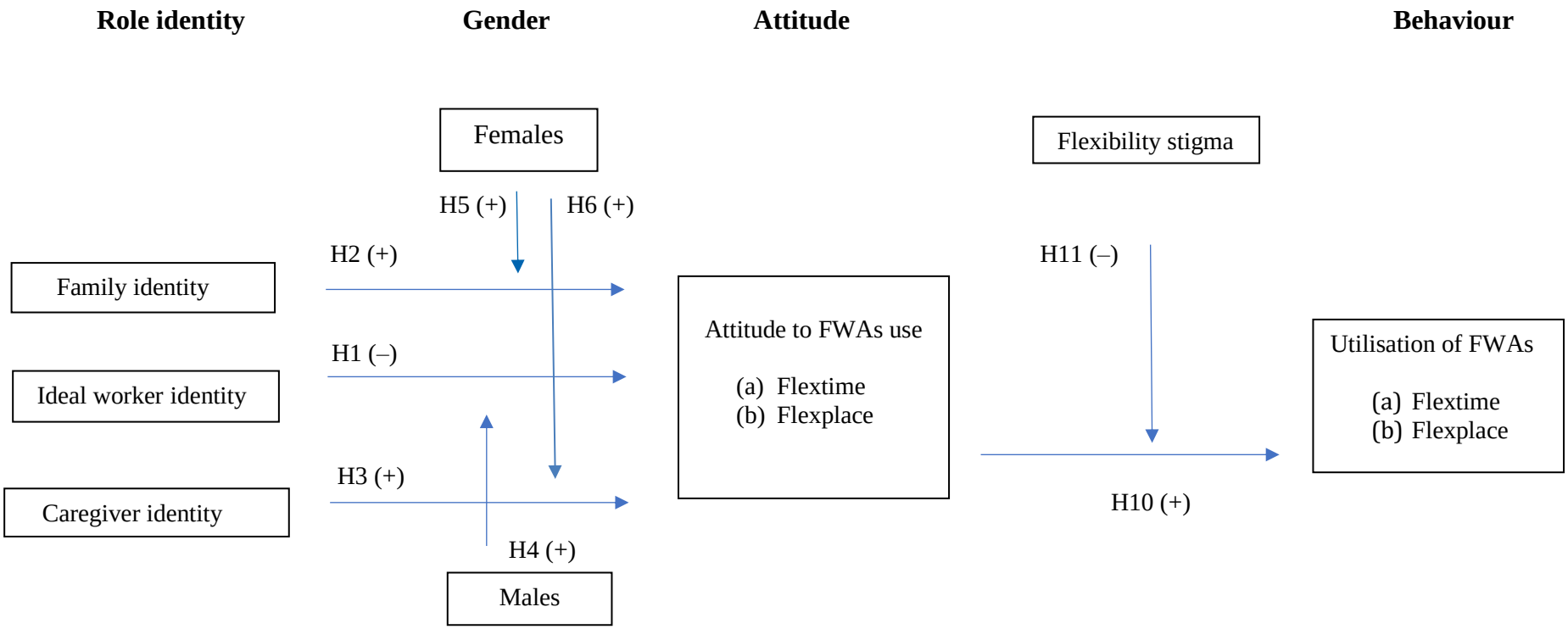
To better understand the relationships between role identity, attitudes towards, and utilisation of FWAs, a review of the theoretical and empirical literature was undertaken. The literature review provided an overview of FWAs and examined a potentially important antecedent of attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs; that is, identity. The review then critically examined identity theory; specifically, role identity theory as the theoretical framework that underpins this study. Multiple identity theory and boundary theory were then incorporated to capture the independent activation of multiple role identities in terms of their effect on attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. The literature review then discussed the influence of ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity on attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. This was by followed by a review of the boundary condition of gender identity on these relationships. Co-activation of ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity (see Figure 11) was then examined in terms of their effect on attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. The chapter then reviewed the attitude–behaviour literature and

argued for a positive relationship between attitudes towards FWAs and their subsequent utilisation. The chapter concluded with an examination of flexibility stigma as a moderator of this attitude–behaviour relationship (see Figure 12).

From this, 11 hypotheses were developed and presented throughout this chapter, and are summarised in the study's conceptual models presented throughout this chapter.

Figure 12

Model of Independent Activation (With Gender Moderator) and Attitude Towards Utilisation of FWAs (With Flexibility Stigma Moderator)



Chapter 3: Methods

3.1 Chapter Objectives

This chapter outlines the rationale for the research design and provides a description of the methods employed for my research project. My research incorporated two types of quantitative research design: a cross-sectional design in Study 1; and a two-wave prospective longitudinal design in Study 2, which involved a follow up with Study 1 participants, to test my hypotheses and address my research question. The research design and sampling approach for both studies are outlined in the first section of this chapter. This is followed by a description of the Study 1 procedure, respondents, measure selection and data collection, and a summary of the method of analysis used to empirically test the Study 1 hypotheses. The chapter concludes with a description of the Study 2 procedure, respondents, measures and data collection, and a summary of the method of analysis used to empirically test the Study 2 hypotheses.

3.2 Research Design

Guided by a post-positivist perspective, my study adopted an ontological framework in which 'an objective truth exists, and is knowable if researchers use a logical, systematic scientific methodology to find it' (Blair, 2016, p. 50). A post-positivist perspective (Creswell, 2013; Crotty, 1998; Spencer et al., 2015) acknowledges that although universal truths exist, researchers cannot completely represent the truth accurately, as individual perceptual and cognitive biases may influence the measurement of social and psychological constructs (Blair, 2016; Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000) such as role identity and attitudes towards FWAs.

Consistent with the management research methods literature (Creswell, 2003; Crotty, 1998; Graziano & Raulin, 1993; Tharenou et al., 2007), the research design for my study was based on consideration of which would be most suitable to answer my research question. First, I reviewed research methodologies employed in related empirical studies (e.g. Kossek

& Lautsch, 2018; Sweet et al., 2016) in the identity and attitude literature, to inform my understanding and selection of potential research designs. Second, I conducted a review of the identity, work family and caregiver literature (e.g. Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Rothbard & Edwards, 2003; Shockley & Allen, 2007; Siebert & Siebert, 2005; Terry et al., 1999) to examine how previous researchers operationalised the various constructs of interest, to inform the measure selection for my study. Finally, after finalising my research design, sample and measure selection, I chose the most suitable technique for data collection to ensure that my research design was 'doable' and would enable me to answer my research question within the timeframe of my PhD program.

Given that the selection of a suitable methodological design is critical to any management research project (Edmondson & McManus, 2007) a quantitative research design was selected as quantitative analyses are appropriate when examining questions of incidence and measurement (Creswell, 2003; Tharenou et al., 2007). Moreover, a quantitative approach is appropriate 'when testing theoretical predictions with precise measures of variables' (Tharenou et al., 2007, p. 17). Accordingly, a quantitative research design approach was selected for my research project.

Although a variety of approaches can be employed to conduct quantitative analyses (Tharenou et al., 2007)—such as experimental and quasi-experimental, case study (conducted in the field into a single instance, event or setting) and action research (application of an iterative diagnosis and intervention processes) designs—my research utilised a correlational field study (survey) design. This is consistent with the argument in the research methods literature (Creswell, 2003; Mitchell, 1985; Sekaran, 1992) that correlational field studies are most suitable under the following circumstances: 1) a theory is to be tested that includes independent variables, dependent variables and moderator variables; 2) research questions and hypotheses are to be tested on a large sample; 3) the relationship between dependent

variables and several independent variables is to be tested in a real-life setting; and 4) research questions to be addressed have a solid basis in the literature base and are naturalistic, with limited interference from the researcher. Therefore, a correlational field study design was employed to test my proposed hypotheses.

As noted earlier, my research employed two types of quantitative research design: a cross-sectional design (Study 1) and a follow up of Study 1 respondents using a prospective longitudinal design (Study 2) to answer my research question and test the hypotheses. Study 1 was designed to examine the relationship between role identity and attitudes towards FWA, through testing of H1–H9 (see Table 1). Given that Study 1 involved the testing of interaction effects, a large sample was required because such effects are typically difficult to detect (Kossek et al., 2020) with sufficient statistical power (Cohen, 1992; Tharenou et al., 2007). My research design was therefore consistent with recommendations in the psychological methods literature (e.g. Maxwell, 2004) that highlight the importance of sufficient statistical power to underpin rigorous and consistent social science research.

Study 2, a two-wave longitudinal study, involved a follow up of respondents from Study 1, with an intervening time of three months between December 2019 (Time 1 [T1]) and February 2020 (Time 2 [T2]). Study 2 was designed to test the attitude–behaviour relationship as stated in H10 and H11 (refer Table 1). This prospective longitudinal research design was adopted as it is consistent with the research design literature (Creswell, 2003; Menard, 2002; Tharenou et al., 2007) that highlights the importance of obtaining behavioural measures prospectively to capture the effects of attitudes, particularly when exclusively using self-report measures (Cooper et al., 2020). The limited number of studies that have examined changes in use of FWA over time (e.g. Sweet et al., 2016) have acknowledged the value of applying longitudinal methods to consider change. Table 1 provides a summary of the research design, objective and hypotheses for Study 1 and Study 2. The next section outlines

the procedural and statistical remedies adopted in my research to mitigate common method variance (CMV).

Table 1

Research Design Summary

Research design, objectives and hypotheses	
Study 1 (Cross-sectional design): designed to address the relationships between identity, and attitudes towards (a) flextime and (b) flexplace	
H1	There is an inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace.
H2	There is a positive relationship between family identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace.
H3	There is a positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace.
H4	Gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the inverse relationship will be stronger for males than females.
H5	Gender moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.
H6	Gender moderates the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.
H7	Family identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases.
H8	Caregiver identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver role identity increases.
H9	Caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases.
Study 2 (Prospective longitudinal design): designed to address the relationship between attitudes towards and utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace	
H10	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards (a) flextime and (b) flexplace and utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace.
H11	Flexibility stigma moderates the relationship between attitudes towards (a) flextime and (b) flexplace use and utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship will be weaker when flexibility stigma is higher.

3.2.1 Common Method Variance

Self-report refers to ‘data obtained when a participant reports on their beliefs, attitudes, values, traits, and behaviours, most commonly through questionnaires, rating scales,

or interviews' (Cooper et al., 2020, p. 2). Self-report measures are widely used in attitudinal and behavioural research as they enable researchers to capture subjective constructs from respondents, who are well placed to report on their attitudes and behaviours (Ajzen et al., 2019; Conway & Lance, 2010; Tharenou et al., 2007). When a study exclusively uses self-report measures to examine relationships between the self-report measures, biases such as CMV may occur (Antonakis et al., 2010, 2014; Cooper et al., 2020; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012; Spector, 2006). CMV has been defined as 'the extent of the erroneous relationship that is measured between two (or more) variables that are measured in the same way (e.g. at the same time, on the same questionnaire, using the same rating scales)' (Tharenou et al., 2007, p. 62). Although CMV has received attention in recent methodological literature (Antonakis et al., 2010, 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012; Spector, 2006) because of the potential for it to contribute to biases that could affect the validity of study findings (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Schwarz, 1999), my research design included procedural and statistical remedies to mitigate CMV. For Study 1, which was a cross-sectional design, I adopted a range of procedural remedies as recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Cooper et al. (2020) to address concerns over CMV. First, I ensured participants' responses were anonymous, to minimise social desirability biases. Second, randomised survey question order ensured that the questions were presented to participants in different orders. Third, I used a range of response formats including Likert scales and semantic differential scales. Finally, on the basis of feedback from participants in a pilot survey (discussed below), I modified the wording of scale items to reduce ambiguity in the survey questions. In addition, Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) was performed to detect potential CMV within my data and findings. This technique involved loading all the items of each study variable into an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and examining the un-rotated factor solution to determine if a single dominant factor emerged.

For Study 2, which employed a two-wave longitudinal design, I adopted a range of procedural remedies as recommended by Cooper et al. (2020) to address concerns over CMV. Study 2 (T2) included temporal separation of the measures of the independent and dependent variables to minimise the risk of CMV. This approach is consistent with studies showing that temporal separation can reduce by 30–40% the magnitude of same-source zero-order correlations (Johnson et al., 2011; Ostroff et al., 2002). In line with recent recommendations (Cooper et al., 2020; Singer et al., 2003; Tharenou et al., 2007) the size of the time lag between time points was also considered to allow sufficient time for participant behaviour and practical research completion. For my research, to test the effects of attitudes on the use of FWAs, a three-month time lag was selected between surveys as this timeframe provided sufficient time for employees to potentially use FWAs while maintaining an acceptable response rate to ensure a sufficient sample size was attained. The selected time lag is consistent with an earlier study that applied a longitudinal research design (Sweet et al., 2016) with bimonthly follow-up surveys to examine FWA changes over the previous two months.

3.3 Sampling Approach

The unit of analysis chosen to address my research question was the individual, as each participant response was an individual data source (Sekaran, 1992; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The appropriateness of the individual unit of analysis selection is supported by the literature (e.g. Sekaran & Bougie, 2016) and consistent with the aim of my research to examine how an individual's perceptions of their role identity influences their attitudes towards and utilisation of FWA. Accordingly, individual employee responses were collected and analysed to test my proposed hypotheses. An overview of my sampling approach follows, including a critical review of the selection of an increasingly utilised approach to non-probability convenience sampling—online panel data (OPD).

A non-probability convenience sampling approach, ‘in which the researcher selects the subjects based on their availability’ (Tharenou et al., 2007, p. 55), was employed for data collection in my correlational field study. An online panel platform (OPP), Qualtrics, was contracted to provide access to an online panel (OP); that is, ‘an electronic database of registrants who have indicated a willingness to participate in web-based research studies’ (Callegaro et al., 2014, p. 320). The OP was recruited by Qualtrics via a combination of database acquisition and social media channels.

Despite issues raised in the literature (e.g. Landers & Behrend, 2015; Paolacci et al., 2010) regarding the utilisation of OPD—including participant experience, representativeness of OP participants and appropriateness of OPD in management scholarship—my decision to conduct OPD-based research was made on balance after review of recent scholarly literature (Porter et al., 2019; Walter et al., 2019), and consideration of the concerns and benefits of utilising OPD. The next section provides an outline of issues and benefits, to explain the rationale for my decision to utilise OPD as the non-probability convenience sampling approach for my research.

One concern about the use of OPD is that OP participants ‘may systematically respond to surveys and experiments differently than those who rarely take part in research and may be an issue in terms of attenuating effects sizes’ (Porter et al., 2019, p. 321). This issue appears to primarily affect research employing experiments; for example, those using Amazon Mechanical Turk [MTurk] online surveys (Chandler et al., 2014). It is less of a concern in my correlational field study using a large, carefully targeted sample. A second concern is that the representativeness of OP participants has been questioned; however, there is strong empirical support that OPs are more representative of typical adult employees than are the student samples traditionally utilised in experimental or survey-based research (e.g. Crone & Williams, 2017; Goodman & Paolacci, 2017; Peer et al., 2017).

Benefits associated with the use of OPD include enhanced anonymity. Porter et al. (2019, p. 321) contended that the additional level of anonymity provided to participants on OPs 'makes them ideal for researchers to collect data on topics participants might be reluctant to respond (Smith et al., 2015)'. OPs can facilitate intensive research designs such as those that require temporal separation with acceptable retention rates (Chandler et al., 2014). They also enable researchers to minimise costs and time (Porter et al., 2019). Although the representativeness of OP participants has been questioned, research suggests that OPD is similar to data collected using traditional convenience samples. For example, Walter et al.'s (2019) recent meta-analysis, 'compared effect sizes of organisational variables collected using OPD to conventionally sourced data and concluded that these two approaches yield substantively similar effect sizes' (Porter et al., 2019, p. 321).

Finally, leading management journals are increasingly publishing OPD-based research studies (Porter et al., 2019). For example, Walter et al.'s (2019) meta-analysis reviewed six highly cited applied psychology journals between 2006 and 2015 and revealed an almost tenfold increase in the number of studies using OPD between the five-year period of 2006–10 and the five-year period of 2011–15, when 307 such papers were published. In summary, the increasing acceptance of OPD-based research indicates that OPD is no longer limited to a narrow band of applied psychology scholarship, and samples drawn from OPs are becoming more prevalent in applied research (Walter et al., 2019).

The following paragraph outlines the rationale and procedures relating to using, choosing, and reporting of OPD within my research, which adhered to recommended academic OPD reporting best practice.

In regard to choosing OPD, Porter et al. (2019) contended that the evaluation of which OPP to use in a research study should be underpinned by each OPP's alignment with the research objectives. In line with the recent literature (Callegaro et al., 2014; Chandler et al.,

2014; Porter et al., 2019) on data collection requirements, such as the need to collect time-separated data, the use of a large, targeted Qualtrics panel was appropriate for my study. In the following sections I describe the sample, sample size determination, procedure, participants, measures, control variables and method of analysis, for Study 1 and Study 2, respectively.

3.4 Study 1

3.4.1 Sample

In line with my research question, the sample for my research included only managers and professionals (knowledge workers) living and working in Australia. A total of 5,256 panel members satisfying this criterion were approached and invited by Qualtrics to participate in the study. Of these, 1,047 responded to the T1 survey, resulting in a response rate of 20%.

As noted in Chapter 1, by way of context the ANZSCO has defined eight major occupation groups. Professionals and managers (knowledge workers) are two of the most highly skilled and significant Australian occupation groups. Professionals account for the largest numbers of jobs: more than three million, representing almost one in four Australian workers (ABS, 2019). The largest number of new jobs created across Australia over the five years to November 2018 was for professionals; an increase of 476,100 (18.7%), representing 39% of all new jobs. Managers account for 1,581,600, or one in eight Australian workers, with an increase of 112,000 (7.6%), representing 9% of new jobs for the five years to November 2018 (ABS, 2019). The selection of professionals and managers (knowledge workers) is thus appropriate for my research question, as enhanced understanding of the influence of identity on attitudes and behaviours towards utilisation of FWAs will have practical implications for this influential occupational group. Furthermore, my sample

selection provided the opportunity for an examination of these two significant and growing occupation groups in the Australian labour market.

3.4.2 Sample Size Determination

To ensure the sample size was large enough to detect the minimum size of hypothesised effects, a priori sample size calculations were undertaken for statistical analyses. Statistical power calculations were conducted using Cohen's (1988, 1992) power analysis tables and formulae. These calculations were based on several considerations. First, a small anticipated effect size of .14 (where .14, .36, and .51 are considered small, medium and large, respectively; Cohen, 1992) was applied in the calculations, because small to moderate effects are often seen in management research (Maxwell, 2004; Tharenou et al., 2007). Second, to ensure my study data would have sufficient statistical power to test my hypotheses, the long-term probability of rejecting the null hypothesis needed be at least .80 (Cohen, 1992; Maxwell, 2004; Tharenou et al., 2007). Thus, the desired statistical power was set to .80 in the a priori sample size calculations. Third, the desired probability level, the *p* value, alpha level or type 1 error rate value should be less than or equal to .05, to claim statistical significance (Cohen, 1988, 1992). The *p* value was set to .05 in the a priori sample size calculations to represent the 95% level of statistical significance. Finally, the number of predictors in the model was set at 11 to capture the three predictors—ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity—and eight control variables: gender, age, marital status, parental responsibility, tenure, employment status, employment type and job level. My power analysis indicated that a sample of 402 would have adequate power to detect a small effect. In summary, the observed sample size of 1,047 provided more than sufficient power to detect an effect in the data using the multivariate analyses to be conducted for my study (Tharenou et al., 2007).

3.4.3 Procedure

The sample was drawn from two actively managed, double-opt-in market research panels. To exclude duplication and ensure validity, Qualtrics, the OPP, checked each IP address and used unique digital fingerprinting technology. Qualtrics used de-duplication technology to ensure unique respondent participation to provide reliable results and retain the integrity of the survey data. Participants were required to meet threshold criteria to overcome limitations identified in previous studies regarding employee access to FWAs: being a knowledge worker (manager or professional) and being employed by an organisation of more than 100 employees ensured they had access to FWAs prior to being able to complete the survey. These threshold criteria were implemented to ensure participants were able to reasonably request and utilise FWAs under the *Fair Work Act 2009* (Cth) (Fair Work, 2020), given that employers can only refuse a request on reasonable business grounds. Organisations in Australia with more than 100 employees were assumed to be of sufficient size to accommodate FWA requests. This approach is also consistent with the FWA literature nomenclature (e.g. Sweet et al., 2014) that defines large organisations as those with 100+ employees.

3.4.4 Pilot

Consistent with the applied social research methods literature (e.g. Bickman & Rog, 2008; Bryman, 2012), an online survey was piloted. Upon receiving feedback from respondents in the pilot survey, pertinent changes were made to the final questionnaire. Pilot study participants were excluded from participating in the survey.

3.4.5 Ethics Approval

An explanatory statement that provided brief information on the study's purpose and methods was included in the introduction section of my T1 survey (see Appendix A). Prior to data collection the appropriate Human Ethics Certificate of Approval (see Appendix B) to

conduct the research was obtained from the Monash University Standing Committee on Ethics in Research on Humans (SCERH). Voluntary participation and anonymity of respondents was also made clear in the explanatory statement (see Appendix C). Potential participants were advised that questionnaire completion was completely voluntary, and their response would be anonymous and confidential.

3.4.6 Participants

As noted above, I received 1,047 responses to the Study 1 survey—a 20% response rate from the 5,256 people approached by Qualtrics. As per the screening criteria, all participants were knowledge workers in current employment at an Australian organisation with more than 100 employees. Of the 1,047 respondents (see Table 2), 514 were female (49.1%), 532 were male (50.8%) and one identified their gender as non-binary. In terms of gender, Study 1 the proportions of female and male survey respondents closely reflected the reported gender percentages of females (48.8%) and males (51.2%) among Australian knowledge workers in 2019 (Australian Jobs, 2019). Of the respondents, 218 were single with no children (20.8%), 101 were single with children (9.6%), 189 were partnered or married with no children (18.1%) and 539 were partnered or married with children (51.5%).

The age of respondents varied, with 28 being less than 25 years of age (2.7%), 280 aged 26–35 years (26.7%), 300 aged 36–45 years (28.7%), 210 aged 46–55 years (20.1%), 192 aged 56–65 years (18.3%) and 37 aged over 66 years (3.5%). The percentage of Study 1 survey respondents less than 25 years of age (2.7%) was slightly lower than the reported percentage of Australian knowledge workers in this age group (5.9%; Australian Jobs, 2019); whereas the percentage of Study 1 survey respondents older than 55 years (21.8%) was slightly higher than the reported percentage of Australian knowledge workers in this age group (20.4%; Australian Jobs, 2019).

Table 2

Participant Demographics (Study 1)

Variable	*N*	Percentage of respondents
Gender		
Male	532	50.8
Female	514	49.1
Other	1	0.1
Total	1,047	100.0
Age (years)		
<25	28	2.7
26–35	280	26.7
36–45	300	28.7
46–55	210	20.1
56–65	192	18.3
>65	37	3.5
Total	1,047	100.0
Marital/parental status		
Single (no children)	218	20.8
Single (children)	101	9.6
Partnered/married (no children)	189	18.1
Partnered/married (children)	539	51.5
Total	1,047	100.0

Of the 1,047 respondents (see Table 3), 60% were professionals and 40% were managers. The percentage of Study 1 survey respondents who were managers and professionals slightly differed from the reported occupational group split between managers (34.4%) and professionals (65.6%) of Australian knowledge workers (Australian Jobs, 2019).

In terms of employment type, the percentage of full (88.1%) and part time (11.9%) employed Study 1 survey respondents differed from the reported occupational group split between full (78.3%) and part time (21.7%) among Australian knowledge workers (Australian Jobs, 2019). In terms of employment status, 84.4% of respondents had permanent positions, 9.7% had fixed term contracts, 5.3% had casual positions and 0.6% had other arrangements. In terms of tenure, 32.2% of participants had been with their current employer for more than 10 years, 24.4% had been with their current employer for 5–10 years, 23.5% had been with their current employer for 2–5 years, 13.4% had been with their current

employer for 1–2 years and 6.5% had been with their current employer less than 1 year. Job level varied: 7.3% of participants were executive managers, 17.5% were senior managers, 30.3% were general managers, 12.0% were team leaders and 32.9% were non-managerial professional employees.

Table 3

Respondent Employment Background (Study 1)

Variable	*N*	Percentage of respondents
Knowledge worker		
Professional	628	60.0
Manager	419	40.0
Total	1,047	100.0
Employment		
Fulltime	922	88.1
Part time	125	11.9
Total	1,047	100.0
Employment status		
Permanent	884	84.4
Fixed term contract	101	9.7
Casual	55	5.3
Other	7	0.6
Total	1,047	100.0
Tenure(years)		
<1	68	6.5
1–2	140	13.4
2–5	246	23.5
5–10	256	24.5
>10	337	32.2
Total	1,047	100.0
Job level		
Executive management	77	7.3
Senior manager	183	17.5
Manager	317	30.3
Team leader	126	12.0
Non-managerial employee	344	32.9
Total	1,047	100.0

3.4.7 Measures

This section describes the measures used in Study 1, with an explanation of how each measure was derived, examples of items, as well as the evidence for reliability and validity

for substantive variables from previous studies and from within my study. Refer to the T1 survey (Appendix A) for the list of items for each measure.

3.4.7.1 Ideal Worker Identity

To my knowledge no measures of ideal worker identity exist. There are, however, several measures of self-identity. I adapted a five-item measure by drawing on the measure of self-identity used by Terry et al. (1999), adapted from those used by Charng et al. (1988) and Sparks and Shepherd (1992). This measure is rated on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) and has demonstrated good internal consistency reliability in other studies (Cronbach's alpha [α] = .73, Terry et al., 1999; α = .80, Sparks & Shepherd, 1992). An example item is, 'I would feel at a loss if I were forced to reduce my work devotion due to external commitments'. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this measure was .87 in the current study.

3.4.7.2 Family Identity

The Family Role Identity (FIQ) Scale developed by Rothbard and Edwards (2003) was utilised in this study to measure family role identity. Consistent with Rothbard and Edwards, role identity has been operationalised as the psychological importance of a role (Lobel, 1991; Lobel & St. Clair, 1992). Rothbard and Edwards (2003) used Kanungo's (1982) six-item Work Role Identity Scale, which has been established as a valid measure of psychological identification (Blau, 1985). Following previous research (Frone et al., 1992, 1994), Rothbard and Edwards (2003) modified the Kanungo (1982) scale to measure family identity by substituting the term 'family' for 'work'. These six items are rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. The Rothbard and Edwards (2003) six-item scale has adequate reliability (α = .78) and validity (Rothbard & Edwards, 2003). In my study with removal of the negatively worded item ('Family should be only a small part of one's life') estimate of internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's alpha

for the resulting 5-item scale increased from .79 to .88. A sample item is ‘The most important things that happen in life involve family’.

3.4.7.3 Caregiver Identity

The Caregiver Role Identity Scale developed by Siebert and Siebert (2005) was adopted in my study because the prior operation of this eight-item scale (rated on a 5- point Likert scale) has adequate reliability (α = .81) and validity (Siebert & Siebert, 2005). In the Siebert and Siebert (2005) developmental study, content validity was confirmed through a review of the scale items by subject matter experts, who agreed that the measure was representative of the wider body of material. Additionally, construct validity was established through convergent validity, in which the measure was grounded in the underlying theory of the construct and supported in the literature (Siebert & Siebert, 2005). Preliminary discriminant validity was established because the caregiver role identity scale score was not significantly related to scores on unrelated constructs, such as gender. In my study, items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Scores on this scale had good internal consistency (α = .79). A sample item is ‘I regularly help family members with problems’.

3.4.8 Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Arrangements

Distinguishing between flexplace and flextime is important because these two forms of FWA are not interchangeable, so aggregating them into a single construct may mask differential effects (Allen et al., 2013). It has been suggested that flexplace may be less beneficial than flextime in terms of work–life balance because working from home may blur both the psychological and physical boundaries that exist between work and family roles (Allen & Shockley, 2009; Kossek & Michel, 2011).

3.4.8.1 Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale

Four items, measured on a seven-point bipolar adjective scales were employed to measure attitudes towards flextime. The items and scoring for flextime were, flextime is bad (1) to good (7); unpleasant (1) to pleasant (7); unfavourable (1) to favourable (7); and undesirable (1) to desirable (7). Item-total correlations ranged from .84 ('bad to good') to .90 ('unfavourable to favourable'). Scores on this four-item Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale had excellent internal consistency ($\alpha = .95$).

3.4.8.2 Attitudes Towards Flexplace Scale

Attitudes towards flexplace were measured via four items on a seven-point bipolar adjective scales. The items for flexplace were, flexplace is, bad (1) to good (7); unpleasant (1) to pleasant (7); unfavourable (1) to favourable (7); and undesirable (1) to desirable (7). Item-total correlations ranged from .90 ('bad to good') to .93 ('unfavourable to favourable'). Scores on this four-item Attitudes Towards Flexplace Scale had excellent internal consistency ($\alpha = .97$).

Table 4 presents the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the Study 1 measures. As shown in the table, all reliabilities exceeded the .70 criterion suggested by Nunnally (1978) and were thus considered acceptable.

Table 4

Reliabilities of Study 1 Measures

Measure	Reliability (α)
Ideal worker identity	.87
Family identity	.88
Caregiver identity	.79
Attitudes towards flextime	.95
Attitudes towards flexplace	.97

3.4.9 Gender

Gender was measured in my study using a self-categorisation approach and allowing for a non-binary category, consistent with recent gender measurement literature (e.g. Wood & Eagly, 2015). This approach is also consistent with previous role identity boundary management empirical research (e.g. Capitano et al., 2017) and boundary studies (Kreiner et al., 2006; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). Gender was coded here as 0 = female and 1 = male, with the one non-binary respondent randomised to a category.

As recommended by Atinc et al. (2012), the justification for inclusion of the selected control variables is as explained in the next section. Descriptions of the relationship between the study's control variables and the independent and dependent variables are provided in Chapter 4.

3.4.10 Control Variables

Consistent with the work–life literature (e.g. Shockley & Allen, 2007; Sweet et al., 2016) age, employment status, employment type, job level and organisational tenure were included as control variables because they have been found to have significant, albeit weak, correlations with some criterion variables (Abbott et al., 2005; Howell et al., 2012). In line with the recent FWA literature, my study also controlled for marital status and parental status, as research has suggested that these demographic variables may be related to employee work outcomes, including utilisation of FWAs (Chen & Fulmer, 2018; Lambert et al., 2008; Leslie et al., 2012). Moreover, recent research (Peng et al., 2020) reconfirmed that gender, parental responsibility, and relationship status may influence one's family needs and family roles (Bagger & Li, 2014; Rofcanin et al., 2020).

Age was selected as a control variable because older respondents may be more skilled in managing multi-role demands, and age may influence the priority of work over non-work (Gordon & Whelan, 1998; Martins et al., 2002). Dumas and Stanko (2017) also controlled for

age because it is likely to be associated with the life stage, which might influence respondents' family role identification. Finally, job level was selected by Rothbard and Patil (2011) as a control variable because higher positions may provide more complexity, autonomy and significance. Table 5 provides a summary of the coding methods employed for each control variable.

Table 5

Control Variable Coding Summary

Control variable	Coding method
Gender	0 = female, 1 = male
Age (years)	1 = <25, 2 = 26–35, 3 = 36–45, 4 = 46–55, 5 = 56–65, 6 = 66+
Marital status	0 = single, 1 = married or partnered
Parental responsibility	0 = no, 1 = yes
Employment type	0 = part time, 1 = full time
Permanent employment	0 = no, 1 = yes
Tenure (years)	1 = <1, 2 = 1–2, 3 = 2–5, 4 = 5–10, 5 = 10+
Job level	1 = non-managerial, 2 = team leader, 3 = manager, 4 = senior manager, 5 = executive management

3.4.11 Method of Analysis Summary

This section provides a description of the preliminary analyses and an explanation of the assumptions that underpinned the statistical tests used to explore the relationships among the variables used to test my hypotheses in Study 1. The primary method of analysis I used to test my hypotheses was multiple regression.

3.4.11.1 Data Screening

Data screening, checking and correcting for errors, preliminary analyses and testing of assumptions that underpin the statistical techniques used to examine relationships among variables were conducted using SPSS Statistics 26. Consistent with recommendations from the recent data analysis literature (Pallant, 2011; Tharenou et al., 2007) prior to data analysis, data screening and cleaning was undertaken. This involved checking for errors and finding and correcting any errors in my data file, including screening for missing values.

3.4.11.2 Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary analyses involved calculation of descriptive statistics, including the frequency of categorical variables and mean, standard deviation, range of scores, skewness and kurtosis of continuous variables (Pallant, 2011). Testing for violations of the assumptions underlying multiple regression was then undertaken because the accuracy of these statistical techniques relies on assumptions about the data to be analysed, specifically the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and absence of multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Tharenou et al., 2007). Assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity refer to 'various aspects of the distribution of scores and the nature of the underlying relationships between the variables of interest' (Pallant, 2011, p. 151). The following subsections provide a description of each procedure used to test for violation of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity.

3.4.11.3 Normality

First, the assumption of normality requires that scores on each variable are normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). As described in chapter 4, testing for violation of the assumption of normality confirmed that the scores on continuous variables were symmetrically distributed about the mean (skewness) and the distribution not too peaked or too flat (kurtosis).

3.4.11.4 Linearity

Linearity assumes that the relationship between two variables is linear (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Examination of scatterplots of scores confirmed that the assumption of linearity was not violated for my data, as the scatterplots of scores between each independent variable and dependent variable approximately represented straight lines (see Chapter 4).

3.4.11.5 Homoscedasticity

The assumption of homoscedasticity requires that the variability in scores for each variable is similar at all values of another variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Review of the bivariate scatterplots for each combination of variables confirmed that the variability in scores for variables was similar, as indicated by a cigar shape for each scatterplot.

3.4.11.6 Multicollinearity

Finally, multicollinearity exists when independent variables are highly correlated. Multicollinearity creates computational and interpretational issues for multiple regression statistical techniques (Tharenou et al., 2007). As outlined in Chapter 4, bivariate correlations confirmed that no two independent variables were correlated at a value of .70 or higher, thereby confirming the absence of multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

3.4.11.7 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Factor analysis is a data reduction technique that analyses a large set of variables to reduce or summarise data into a smaller set of factors or components (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick et al., 2019). The technique involves looking for groups among the intercorrelations of a set of variables. The objective of factor analysis is 'to reduce the number of items to smaller subsets that contain as much valuable information from the initial items as possible' (Pett et al., 2003, p. 2). EFA was undertaken to assess construct validity of the measures employed in this study. EFA was selected for my study as the continuous measures were either new measures (ideal worker role identity), measures adapted from existing measures (attitudes towards flextime and attitudes towards flexplace) or established measures with limited empirical validation (family role identity and caregiver role identity). This approach was consistent with recent literature (e.g. Tabachnick et al., 2019) recommending that EFA is performed in the early stages of research as it provides a tool for consolidating variables and generating hypotheses about underlying processes.

Specifically, for my study, principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted prior to scale development finalisation for each continuous variable, to identify sets of relationships among each measure item and ensure my study's measures were fit for purpose. This process involved two stages: definition of the number of initial factors, and rotation of the factors to improve interpretation (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

PCA assumes that all the variance in an item can be explained by the extracted factors (Pett et al., 2003). SPSS 26 was used to conduct the PCA to determine whether each continuous scale item was factorable and to identify the smallest number of factors that could be used to represent the interrelationships among the set of variables. This process involved three stages: assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis, factor extraction, and rotation of the factors to improve interpretation (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick et al., 2019).

Eigenvalues represent the amount of variance in all items that can be explained by a given principal component. Eigenvalues are used to generate the principal components of a correlation matrix. To obtain a principal component, each of the weights of a given eigenvector is multiplied by the square root of the principal component-associated eigenvalue. Weights are called factor loadings and represent the correlation of each item with the given principal component (Pett et al., 2003). PCA is used in scale development to identify sets of relationships among a group of items, deliver a parsimonious solution and ensure my study's measures were appropriate (valid). The results of the PCA are reported in Chapter 4.

Linear regression analysis was applied to test all of the hypotheses. I used the conditional process modelling (with model 1 PROCESS) macro (Hayes, 2017) and plotted the interactions using Aiken and West's protocols (Aiken & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014;

Dawson & Richter, 2006) to test moderation hypotheses H4–H9. The data analysis summary presented in Table 6 outlines the statistical techniques used to test the Study 1 hypotheses.

Table 6

Data Analysis Summary (Study 1)

	Hypothesis	Statistical technique
H1	There is a negative relationship between ideal worker role identity and attitudes toward utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace.	Standard multiple regression
H2	There is a positive relationship between family role identity and attitudes toward utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace.	Standard multiple regression
H3	There is a positive relationship between caregiver role identity and attitudes toward utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace.	Standard multiple regression
H4	Gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker role identity and attitudes toward utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the negative relationship will be stronger for males than females.	Moderated multiple regression
H5	Gender expression moderates the relationship between family role identity and attitudes toward utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for female than males.	Moderated multiple regression
H6	Gender expression moderates the relationship between caregiver role identity and attitudes toward utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.	Moderated multiple regression
H7	Family role identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker role identity and attitudes towards (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family role identity increases.	Moderated multiple regression
H8	Caregiver role identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker role identity and attitudes towards (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver role identity increases.	Moderated multiple regression
H9	Caregiver role identity moderates the relationship between family role identity and attitudes towards (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver role identity increases.	Moderated multiple regression

I now turn to Study 2.

3.5 Study 2

As noted earlier, Study 2 used a two-wave prospective (longitudinal) design, with a follow-up questionnaire conducted with the Study 1 (T1) sample three months later (at T2), in which respondents reported their perceptions of flexibility stigma and their use of FWAs (flextime and flexplace) during the previous three months.

3.5.1 Sample

I obtained 269 follow-up respondents. The retention rate from Study 1 in December 2019 (T1) to Study 2 in February 2020 (T2) was 25.6%.

3.5.2 Sample Size Determination

The sample of 269 had acceptable power post hoc. To ensure the sample was of sufficient size to detect the minimum size of hypothesised effects, post hoc power analysis for multiple regression was conducted. Statistical power calculations were conducted for multiple regression using Cohen's (1988, 1992) power analysis tables and formulae. These calculations were based on several considerations. First, an anticipated effect size of .265 was applied as per Green's (1991) medium partial correlation rule (Maxwell, 2000; Tharenou et al., 2007). Second, to ensure that Study 2 had sufficient statistical power to test my hypotheses, the long-term probability of rejecting the null hypothesis needed to be at least .80 (Cohen, 1992; Maxwell, 2000; Tharenou et al., 2007). Third, the desired probability level, the *p* value, alpha level or type 1 error rate value should be less than or equal to .05 to claim statistical significance (Cohen, 1988, 1992). The *p* value was set to .05 in the post hoc sample size calculations to ensure a 95% level of statistical significance. Finally, the number of predictors in the model was set at 11 to capture the three predictors— attitudes towards flextime and attitudes towards flexplace and flexibility stigma—and the eight control variables: gender, age, marital status, parental responsibility, tenure, employment status, employment type and job level. My power analysis indicated that a sample of 114 would

have adequate power to detect a medium effect. In summary, the observed sample size of 269 provided more than sufficient power to detect an effect in the data via regression analysis (Tharenou et al., 2007).

3.5.3 Procedure

The procedure for Study 2 was the same as that for Study 1, except that the OPP, Qualtrics, sent all Study 1 respondents an email inviting them to participate in the follow-up survey (T2) and provided access to a link for the online survey. There were no missing data in this study because of the 100% completion rate of the survey by participants.

3.5.4 Ethical Considerations

Consistent with Study 1, respondents received an explanatory statement that provided brief information about the study's purpose; the methods used were outlined in the introduction section of my T2 survey (see Appendix D). Prior to data collection, the appropriate Human Ethics Certificate of Approval (refer Appendix B) to conduct the research was obtained from the Monash University SCERH. Voluntary participation and anonymity of respondents was also made clear in the explanatory statement (see Appendix C). Potential participants were advised that questionnaire completion was completely voluntary, and their response would be anonymous and confidential.

3.5.5 Participants

Among the 269 T2 respondents (see Table 7), the percentage of males (56.9%) was higher than in Study 1 at T1 (50.8%). T2 respondents were older, with 27.9% aged 46–55 years compared with 20.1% at T1; 26% aged 56–65 years compared with 18.3% at T1; and 6.7% being older than 66 years of age, compared with 3.5% at T1. Slightly more respondents were partnered/married with children in the T2 (55.4%) than in the T1 sample (51.5%), and slightly more respondents were single with no children at T2 (21.9%) compared with T1 (20.8%).

Chi-square tests were performed to analyse whether demographic differences in respondent percentages between T1 and T2 were statistically significant. Chi-square tests for independence indicated a weak but significant association between gender and T2 participation (more men participated at T2), $\chi^2(1, N = 1{,}047) = 4.85$, $p = .03$, phi = .07; and a significant medium association between age and T2 participation (older people participated at T2), $\chi^2(1, N = 1{,}047) = 60.06$, $p = .00$, phi = .24.

Table 7

Participant Demographics (Study 2)

Variable	Percentage of respondents (T1)	Percentage of respondents (T2)
Gender		
Male	50.8	56.9
Female	49.1	43.1
Other	0.1	
Total	100.0	100.0
Age (years)		
<25	2.7	0.7
26–35	26.7	14.9
36–45	28.7	23.9
46–55	20.1	27.9
56–65	18.3	26.0
>65	3.5	6.7
Total	100.0	100.0
Marital/parental status		
Single (no children)	20.8	21.9
Single (children)	9.6	9.7
Partnered/married (no children)	18.1	13.0
Partnered/married (children)	51.5	55.4
Total	100.0	100.0

Of the 269 respondents (see Table 8), the percentage of managers (40.8%) was higher at T2 than at T1 (40.0%). Slightly more respondents at T2 (90.0%) were employed on a full-time basis than at T1 (88.1%) and more respondents at T2 had permanent positions (86.6%) than at T1 (84.4%). In terms of tenure, more respondents had been with their current employer for more than 10 years (43.1%) than at T1 (32.2%). Job level differed: fewer T2 respondents were in executive management (4.8%) than at T1 (7.4%), and fewer were in

senior management (14.9%) than at T1 (17.5%). In contrast, slightly more respondents were in management (33.5%) than at T1 (30.3%), and more were non-managerial employees (34.9%) than at T1 (32.9%).

Chi-square tests were performed to analyse whether there was an association between employment-related control variables and T2 participation. Chi-square tests for independence indicated significant but weak positive association between tenure and T2 participation, $\chi^2(1, N = 1{,}047) = 22.76$, $p = .00$, phi = .15.

Table 8

Participant Employment Background (Study 2)

Variable	Percentage of respondents	Percentage of respondents
Knowledge worker		
Professional	60.0	59.1
Manager	40.0	40.8
Total	100.0	100.0
Employment		
Full time	88.1	90.0
Part time	11.9	10.0
Total	100.0	100.0
Employment status		
Permanent	84.4	86.6
Fixed term contract	9.7	8.9
Casual	5.3	3.4
Other	0.6	1.1
Total	100.0	100.0
Tenure (years)		
<1	6.5	3.3
1–2	13.4	12.3
2–5	23.5	19.7
5–10	24.5	21.6
>10	32.2	43.1
Total	100.0	100.0
Job level		
Executive management	7.4	4.8
Senior manager	17.5	14.9
Manager	30.3	33.5
Team leader	12.0	11.9
Non-managerial employee	32.9	34.9
Total	100.0	100.0

3.5.6 Measures

All measures (at T1) are explained in Section 3.4.7, with the exception of flexibility stigma (at T2) and the behavioural measures (at T2), which are discussed below.

3.5.6.1 Flexibility Stigma

Cech and Blair-Loy's (2014) Flexibility Stigma Scale was utilised. This scale has three items capturing interconnected facets of flexibility stigma: item 1, 'female employees who have young or school-aged children are considered to be less committed to their careers than colleagues who are not mothers'; item 2, 'male employees who have young or school-aged children are considered to be less committed to their careers than colleagues who are not fathers'; and item 3, 'for those in my department who choose to use formal or informal arrangements for work–life balance, the use of such arrangements often has negative consequences for their careers'. Each item is rated on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Cech and Blair-Loy (2014) combined these three items into a single flexibility stigma scale ($\alpha = .66$). In Study 2, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was a more satisfactory .81 for flexibility stigma.

3.5.6.2 Utilisation of Flexible Work Arrangements

In line with previous FWA utilisation research (Kassinis & Stavrou, 2013; Ladge et al., 2015; Lambert et al., 2008; Lane & Gibbs, 2015; Sweet et al., 2016; Ten Brummelhuis & van der Lippe, 2010), use of FWA was measured by asking employees whether they had previously (within the preceding three months) had or were currently using flextime, and whether they previously had or were currently using flexplace arrangements. These variables were coded 1 = used, 0 = not used.

In the literature regarding the influence of attitudes on behaviour, the principle of compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Ajzen et al., 2019) states it is possible to achieve compatibility for a single behaviour by assessing attitudes towards the behaviour

in question. The principle of compatibility requires 'that measures of attitude and behaviour involve exactly the same action, target, context and time elements, whether defined at a very specific or at a more general level' (Ajzen et al., 2019, p. 208). In my study, consistent with the principle of compatibility, the abovementioned four elements are explicitly specified to examine employee attitudes towards utilisation (action) of FWAs (target) available at their organisation (context) within a defined period (time). In other words, the items were formulated to be compatible with behavioural criteria. Moreover, my longitudinal prospective design approach was consistent with the contention in the attitude–behaviour literature (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2009; Ajzen et al., 2019) that temporal separation between measurement of attitudes and behaviour improves the predictive validity of attitude measurement.

3.5.7 Control Variables

Consistent with the work–life literature (e.g. Shockley & Allen, 2007; Sweet et al., 2016) gender, age, employment status, job level and organisational tenure as measured at T1 were included as control variables because they have been found to have significantly, albeit weakly, correlated with FWA use (Abbott et al., 2005; Howell et al., 2012; Ladge et al., 2015; Sweet et al., 2016). In addition, in line with the literature examining utilisation of FWAs (Ladge et al., 2015; Sweet et al., 2016), this study controlled for marital status and parental status, because previous research has suggested that these demographic variables may be related to employee work outcomes including utilisation of FWAs (Chen & Fulmer, 2018; Lambert et al., 2008; Leslie et al., 2012). The coding methods employed for the control variables of Study 2 were the same as those for the Study 1 control variables (see Table 4).

I controlled for gender in Study 2 because, although division of domestic labour is becoming increasingly more equal between males and females, females still bear greater responsibility for family and household tasks than do males across Western economies (Leonard, 2001; Shockley & Allen, 2012). Given their greater non-work responsibilities,

females may be more motivated than males to use FWAs to manage family and caregiver roles; whereas males tend to have greater responsibility for paid work and consider work a primary aspect of their identity (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Raley et al., 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2012). Consequently, males may be less driven than females to use FWAs (Shockley & Allen, 2012) to enable them to attend to non-work responsibilities.

3.5.8 Method of Analysis Summary

Binary logistic regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses for Study 2. The data analysis summary in Table 9 outlines the statistical techniques used to explore the relationships between variables used to test this study's hypotheses. Chapter 4 provides detailed results of logistic regression.

Table 9

Data Analysis Summary (Study 2)

	Hypothesis	Statistical technique
H10a	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards flextime and utilisation of flextime.	Binary logistic regression
H10b	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and utilisation of flexplace.	Binary logistic regression
H11a	Flexibility stigma moderates the relationship between attitudes towards flextime use and utilisation of flextime, such that the relationship will be weaker when flexibility stigma is higher.	Moderated binary logistic regression
H11b	Flexibility stigma moderates the relationship between attitudes towards flexplace use and utilisation of flexplace, such that the relationship will be weaker when flexibility stigma is higher.	Moderated binary logistic regression

3.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the rationale for the selection of the samples and provided a description of the methods employed across the two studies (Study 1 and Study 2), which in combination formed my research project. The philosophical perspective, research design,

sampling approach, description of respondents, measure description, data collection and methods of analysis used to empirically test the hypotheses proposed in my research were described.

Chapter 4: Results (Study 1)

4.1 Chapter Objectives

As outlined in Chapter 2, a critical review of conceptual and empirical literature was undertaken to explore my research question of 'How do role identities influence employee attitudes towards and utilisation of flexible work arrangements? The literature review findings in Chapter 2 enabled a total of 11 testable hypotheses to be developed. These hypotheses accede to an assessment of the relationships between role identity, and attitudes towards, flexibility stigma and utilisation of FWAs. Chapter 3 outlined the rationale for the research design and provided a description of the methods employed in Study 1 and Study 2.

The results of my research are reported in two results chapters: Chapter 4 (Study 1) and Chapter 5 (Study 2). I adopted this reporting approach as my research was comprised of two research studies. Study 1 employed a cross-sectional design and Study 2 was a follow up of Study 1 respondents using a prospective longitudinal design to answer my research question and hypotheses. Study 1 addressed the relationships between role identity and attitudes towards FWAs, through testing of H1–H9, which were theoretically grounded in role identity theory, multiple identity theory and boundary theory. Study 2 was designed for the purpose of testing the relationships between attitudes towards FWAs and their utilisation, as well as the boundary condition of flexibility, H10 and H11.

Both results chapters provide a description and summary of preliminary data analyses, EFAs, construct validity and descriptive statistics, as well as the results testing 11 hypotheses. Each chapter concludes with a summary of the key results relating to each of the Study 1 and Study 2 hypotheses tested in the analyses, which form the basis for the discussion in Chapter 6.

4.2 Preliminary Analyses

This section outlines the methods of analyses undertaken to ensure my study's measures were fit for purpose. Data analyses were undertaken in several stages. The first stage involved examination of the validity and reliability of the study's measures using EFA to assess construct validity of the measures employed. As noted earlier, EFA was selected for this purpose because the continuous measures were either new measures (ideal worker identity), measures adapted from existing measures (attitudes towards flextime and attitudes towards flexplace) or established measures with limited empirical validation (family identity and caregiver identity).

4.2.1 Principal Component Analysis

SPSS 26 was used to conduct PCA to determine whether each scale was factorable and to determine the 'smallest number of factors that could be used to represent the interrelationships among the set of variables' (Pallant, 2011, p. 183). This process involved three stages: assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis, factor extraction, and rotation of the factors to improve interpretation (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick et al., 2019). The scales analysed were ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity and attitudes towards flextime and attitudes towards flexplace.

4.2.2 Assessment of the Suitability of the Data for Factor Analysis

Assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis was applied to the sample size, the strength of the relationship among the items and factorability of the data (Pallant, 2011). First, the assessment of sample size confirmed that the Study 1 sample was of sufficient size (N = 1,047), being larger than the recommended minimum sample size of 150, and within the recommended 10:1 ratio of participants to items. Second, review of the correlation matrix confirmed that most of the correlation coefficients were .3 and above, confirming adequate strength of the intercorrelations among the items for each measure.

Third, the factorability of the data was assessed by calculating Bartlett's (1954) test of sphericity and the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling for each scale. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .05$), and the KMO was greater than .6 (see Table 10) for each continuous variable measure, confirming the factorability of the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Table 10

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) Measure

Variable	Bartlett's test**	KMO
Ideal worker identity	$p < .00$	.85
Family identity	$p < .00$	.82
Caregiver identity	$p < .00$	.81
Attitude to flextime	$p < .00$	.87
Attitude to flexplace	$p < .00$	.87

** Bartlett's test of sphericity significant ($p < .05$); KMO > .6.

4.2.3 Factor Extraction

Factor extraction seeks to determine the smallest number of factors that can be used to represent the interrelationships among a set of variables (Pallant, 2011; Pett et al., 2003). For my study, three methods of evaluation were used to estimate the number of potential factors. First, I calculated Kaiser's (1970) criterion (refer Appendix E for sample output) to identify factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more. The eigenvalue of a factor represents the amount of the total variance explained by that factor. Second, Catell's scree test (Catell, 1966) was used to determine the number of potential factors. An inspection of the scree plots (refer Appendix E for sample output) enabled me to ascertain the point at which the shape of the curve changed direction and became horizontal. As per Kaiser's criterion and Catell's (1966) recommendations, all factors with eigenvalues of at least 1.0, or those above the 'elbow' in the scree plot were retained, because such factors were deemed to contribute most to the explanation of the variance in the data set.

Horn's parallel analysis (Horn, 1965) was also conducted via Monte Carlo PCA for parallel analysis (Watkins, 2000), to compare the size of eigenvalues of this study 'with those obtained from a randomly generated data set of the same size. Those eigenvalues that exceeded the corresponding values from the random data were retained' (Pallant, 2011, p. 184). Parallel analysis confirmed support for the decision based on the scree plots to retain all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 for further investigation. A comparison of eigenvalues from PCA and criterion values from parallel analysis is provided in Table 11. The next section outlines the specific results of the factor analyses undertaken.

Table 11

Comparison of Eigenvalues From Principal Component Analysis and Criterion Values From Parallel Analysis

Variable	Component number	Actual eigenvalue from PCA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
Ideal worker identity	1	3.355	1.129	Accept
Family identity	1	3.406	1.129	Accept
Caregiver identity	1	3.479	1.129	Accept
Attitudes to flextime	1	3.434	1.129	Accept
Attitudes to flexplace	1	3.619	1.129	Accept

4.2.3.1 Ideal Worker Role Identity Scale

The five items of the Ideal Worker Role Identity Scale were subjected to PCA using SPSS26. This revealed the presence of a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding 1.0 and explaining 67.1% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the first component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain one component. This was supported by the results of the parallel analysis, which showed a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding the corresponding criterion value for a randomly

generated data matrix of the same size (11 variables × 1,047 respondents). The results of this analysis supported the use of the Ideal Worker Role Identity Scale with a single factor solution (see Table 12).

Table 12

Results of Factor Analysis of the Ideal Worker Role Identity Scale

Ideal worker role identity	Factor loading
I am extremely devoted to my work	**.89**
I think of myself as a worker who can devote all my energy and attention primarily to my work role	**.86**
I am always available for my work	**.85**
I am totally committed to my work	**.85**
I would feel at a loss if I were forced to reduce up my work devotion due to external commitments	**.63**

Note. N = 1,047. The extraction method was principal axis factoring with an oblique (Promax with Kaiser normalisation) rotation. Factor loadings >.40 are in bold.

4.2.3.2 Family Role Identity Scale

The five items of the Family Role Identity Scale were subjected to PCA, revealing the presence of a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding 1.0 and explaining 68.1% of the variance. Inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the first component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain one component. This was supported by the results of the parallel analysis, which showed a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding the corresponding criterion value for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (11 variables × 1,047 respondents). The results of this analysis supported the use of the Family Role Identity Scale with a single factor solution (see Table 13).

Table 13

Results of factor Analysis of the Family Role Identity Scale

Family role identity item	Factor loading
In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be family-oriented	**.86**
Family should be considered central to life	**.86**
Family is something people should get involved in most of the time	**.86**
The most important things that happen in life involve family	**.83**
Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in family	**.72**

Note. N = 1,047. The extraction method was principal axis factoring with an oblique (Promax with Kaiser normalisation) rotation. Factor loadings >.40 are in bold.

4.2.3.3 Caregiver Role Identity Scale

The five items of the Caregiver Role Identity Scale were subjected to PCA, which revealed the presence of two components with an eigenvalue exceeding 1.0, explaining 43.5% and 13.2% of the variance, respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the second component. Based on Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain two components. This was supported by the results of the parallel analysis, which showed only two components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion value for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (11 variables × 1,047 respondents). To aid in the interpretation of these two components, promax rotation was performed because the inspection of the component correlation matrix confirmed that the strength of the correlation between the two factors was strong (.47). On this basis, I retained a single factor solution (see Table 14).

Table 14

Results of Factor Analysis of the Caregiver Role Identity Scale

Caregiver role identity item	Factor loading
Friends frequently turn to me when they have problems	**.89**
Colleagues generally turn to me when they have problems	**.85**
I have heard from others that I'm a natural caregiver	**.67**
I regularly help family members with problems	**.63**
I characterise myself as a rescuer	**.53**

Note. N = 1,047. The extraction method was principal axis factoring with an oblique (Promax with Kaiser normalisation) rotation. Factor loadings >.40 are in bold.

4.2.3.4 Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale

The four items of the Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale were subjected to PCA. This identified a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding 1.0, explaining 85.9% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the first component. Based on Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain a single component, as was also suggested by the results of the parallel analysis, which showed a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding the corresponding criterion value for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (11 variables × 1,047 respondents). The results of supported the use of the Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale with a single factor solution (see Table 15).

Table 15

Results of Factor Analysis of the Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale

Attitudes to Flextime item	Factor loading
Flextime is favourable	**.94**
Flextime is desirable	**.93**
Flextime is pleasant	**.93**
Flextime is good	**.91**

Note. N = 1,047. The extraction method was principal axis factoring with an oblique (Promax with Kaiser normalisation) rotation. Factor loadings >.40 are in bold.

4.2.3.5 Attitudes to Flexplace Scale

The four items of the Attitudes Towards Flexplace Scale were subjected to PCA. This revealed the presence of a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding 1.0 and explaining 90.5% of the variance. The scree plot showed a clear break after the first component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain a single component. This was supported by the results of the parallel analysis, which identified a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding the corresponding criterion value for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (11 variables ×1,047 respondents). The results of this analysis supported the use of the Attitudes Towards Flexplace Scale with a single factor solution (see Table 16).

Table 16

Results of Factor Analysis of the Attitudes Towards Flexplace Scale

Attitudes to Flexplace item	Factor loading
Flexplace is favourable	**.96**
Flexplace is desirable	**.96**
Flexplace is pleasant	**.95**
Flexplace is good	**.94**

Note. N = 1,047. The extraction method was principal axis factoring with an oblique (Promax with Kaiser normalisation) rotation. Factor loadings >.40 are in bold.

Table 17 summarises the factor solution of Study 1 measures, number of items with factor loadings greater than .40 and Cronbach's alpha for each variable.

Table 17

Factor Solution Summary of Study 1 Measures

Variable	Items (>.40)	No. items (>.40)	Cronbach's alpha
Ideal worker identity (single factor)	idi5, idi4, idi3, idi2, idi1	5	.87
Family identity (single factor)	fri5, fri4, fri2, fri1, fri6	5	.88
Caregiver identity (single factor)	cgri5, cgri6, cgri7, cgri8, cgri1	5	.79
Attitudes towards flextime (single factor)	aft3, aft3, aft4, aft1	4	.95
Attitudes to flexplace (single factor)	afp3, afp1, afp4, afp2	4	.97

Ensuring measures employed have adequate reliability and validity is important (Tharenou et al., 2007), as the use of unreliable measures may compromise the true estimation of effect sizes in hypothesis testing (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Bivariate analysis is used to assess the relationships between two variables using correlation coefficients. Correlation describes the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables, when both are continuous or when one variable is continuous and the other dichotomous (Pallant, 2011; Tharenou et al., 2007). The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient *r*—which can range from –1 to +1—was calculated, along with the statistical significance of *r* for each correlation. The level of statistical significance indicates how much confidence one should have in the results obtained (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, the value of *r* informs the researcher about the strength of the relationship between two variables. For example, *r* = .10 indicates a small effect size, *r* = .30 indicates a medium effect size and *r* = .50 or above indicates a large effect size (Cohen, 1988, 1992). However, these numbers are only suggested as a guide for researchers and should be considered in the context of each study when reporting effect sizes (Tharenou et al., 2007). Table 18 displays the means, standard deviations and correlations between each Study 1 variable.

This section provides commentary regarding statistically significant relationships between the demographic control variables and independent variables, and between the demographic control variables and dependent variables. Of note in regard to demographic-related control variables and independent variables, as shown in Table 18, age was negatively related to ideal worker identity ($r = –.11$, $p < .01$) and caregiver identity ($r = –.13$, $p < .01$).

Marital status (coded 1 = married) was significantly related to family identity ($r = .23$, $p < .01$) and less strongly to caregiver identity ($r = .07$, $p < .05$). Parental responsibility was significantly related to both family identity ($r = .32$, $p < .01$) and caregiver identity ($r = .11$, $p < .01$). In terms of statistically significant relationships between demographic control variables and dependent variables, gender (coded 1 = male) was weakly related to attitudes towards flextime ($r = -.09$, $p < .01$), and attitudes towards flexplace ($r = -.07$, $p < .05$),

whereas parental responsibility was positively related to attitudes towards flexplace (r = .07, p < .05).

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the attitudes to flextime scores for females and males. There was a statistically significant difference in scores for females (M = 5.98, SD = 1.28) and males (M = 5.75, SD = 1.31; t (1045) = 2.84, p =.005, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = .23, 95% CI: .07 to .38) was very small (eta squared = .007). Additionally, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the attitudes to flexplace scores for females and males. There was a statistically significant difference in scores for females (M = 5.70, SD = 1.41) and males (M = 5.50, SD = 1.44; t (1045) = 2.26, p =.024, two-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference = .20, 95% CI: .03 to .37) was very small (eta squared = .005)

I now turn my attention to the notable statistically significant relationships between employment-related control variables and dependent variables. Tenure was positively related only to family identity (r = .14, p < .01); whereas job level was positively related to ideal worker identity (r = .15, p < .01), family identity (r = .11, p < .01) and caregiver identity (r = .21, p < .01). Among demographic control variables and dependent variables, job level was weakly negatively related to attitudes towards flextime (r = –.07, p < .05).

I now provide commentary regarding statistically significant relationships among the substantive variables. First, the relationship between ideal worker role identity and attitudes towards flextime and flexplace was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. There was a small but statistically significant positive correlation between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, r = .11, p < .01, with higher ideal worker identity associated with higher levels of attitudes towards flexplace.

Second, the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flextime and flexplace was investigated. There was a significant positive correlation between family

identity and attitudes towards flextime, $r = .19$, $p < .01$, with higher family identity associated with more favourable attitudes towards flextime. Additionally, there was a significant positive correlation between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, $r = .21$, $p < .01$, with higher family identity associated with more favourable attitudes towards flexplace.

Third, the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards flextime and flexplace was investigated. There was a small but significant positive correlation between caregiver identity and attitudes towards flextime, $r = .16$, $p < .01$, with higher caregiver identity associated with more favourable attitudes towards flextime. Additionally, there was a significant positive correlation between caregiver identity and more favourable attitudes towards flexplace, $r = .20$, $p < .01$, with higher caregiver identity associated with more favourable attitudes towards flexplace.

Finally, the relationship between attitudes towards flextime and attitudes towards flexplace was investigated. There was a strong, statistically significant positive correlation between attitudes towards flextime and attitudes towards flexplace, $r = .68$, $p < .01$.

Table 18

Means, Standard Deviations, Alpha Coefficients and Correlations Among Study 1 Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Gender	.51	.50													
2 Age	3.35	1.23	**.20****												
3 Marital status	.70	.46	**.16****	.00											
4 Parental responsibility	.61	.49	**.14****	**.20****	**.40****										
5 Employment type	.88	.32	**.16****	.00	.04	.03									
6 Permanent employment	.85	.36	**.07***	**.07***	**.12****	**.10****	**.34****								
7 Tenure	3.62	1.24	**.13****	**.37****	.00	**.16****	**.10****	**.30****							
8 Job level	2.54	1.30	**.19****	.00	**.14****	**.17****	**.18****	**.09****	**.10****						
9 Ideal worker identity	4.55	1.19	-.04	**-.11****	.06	.02	-.02	.02	.03	**.15****					
10 Family identity	5.29	1.15	**.09****	.02	**.23****	**.32****	-.01	**.07***	**.14****	**.11****	**.26****				
11 Caregiver identity	3.68	.70	**-.08***	**-.13****	**.07***	**.11****	-.03	-.02	.00	**.21****	**.36****	**.38****			
12 Attitudes to flextime use	5.86	1.30	**-.09****	.04	.05	.05	.04	.04	.04	**-.07***	.06	**.19****	**.16****		
13 Attitudes to flexplace use	5.60	1.43	**-.07***	**-.06***	.05	**.07***	**.07***	.03	.01	.02	**.11****	**.21****	**.20****	**.68****	

Note. N = 1,047. Cronbach's alphas are on the diagonal. Boldfaced denotes statistically significant correlations. Gender coded 0 = female, 1 = male; age (years) coded 1 = <25, 2 = 26–35, 3 = 36–45, 4 = 46–55, 5 = 56–65, 6 = 66+; marital status coded 0 = single, 1 = married or partnered; parental responsibility coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; employment type coded 0 = part time, 1 = full time; permanent employment coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; tenure (years) coded 1 = <1, 2 = 1–2, 3 = 2–5, 4 = 5–10, 5 = 10+; job level coded 1 = non-managerial, 2 = team leader, 3 = manager, 4 = senior manager, 5 = executive management. *p < .05; **p < .01

4.4 Hypothesis Testing

Prior to undertaking statistical analyses to test this study's hypotheses, preliminary analyses were undertaken to ensure robustness of the results. The following subsections outline the results of tests, including the data screening process, which involved identification of missing values and outliers and testing for the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity and CMV.

4.4.1 Missing Data

Visual inspection of the data set confirmed there were no missing data, because of the 100% completion of the survey by the panel data participants.

4.4.2 Outliers

The presence of outliers was checked in several ways. The first was inspection of scatterplots and casewise diagnostics generated by multiple regression. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) defined outliers as cases that have a standardised residual of greater than 3.3 or less than –3.3. Large samples typically include outliers, so the finding of seven cases with outlying residuals was not considered problematic.

Second, outliers were checked by inspection of the Mahalanobis distances at the 0.001 level, as produced by multiple regression. Critical chi-square values were identified by using the number of independent variables as the number of degrees of freedom, in accordance with the critical chi-square recommendation of Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). Eight cases were found to have a Mahalanobis critical value, with the highest distance recorded for a case of 22.80. Given the small number of cases and the likelihood that these outliers represented variations on theoretically expected responses, rather than errors in data (Bandalos, 2018), they were retained in the data set for analysis.

The following subsections outline the results of testing undertaken for violation of assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity, and testing for the absence of

multicollinearity underlying data analysis. These tests were undertaken because the accuracy of statistical techniques relies on these assumptions being true for the data to be analysed (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Tharenou et al., 2007).

4.4.3 Normality

To check for violation of the assumptions of normality skewness and kurtosis values (see Table 19) I generated histograms of scores on each variable to confirm that scores on each variable were normally distributed. Skewness values fell within the required range of +/– 2, and kurtosis values fell in the required range +/– 5, indicating normality. In addition, inspection of the scatterplots confirmed that the residuals were roughly rectangularly distributed, with most of the scores concentrated in the centre. Accordingly, the data were considered to meet normality requirements.

Table 19

Skewness and Kurtosis Values

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis
Ideal worker identity	–.24	–.07
Family identity	–.72	.61
Caregiver identity	–.34	.13
Attitude to flextime	–1.41	2.04
Attitude to flexplace	–1.08	.84

4.4.4 Linearity

To check for violations of linearity, inspection of the normal P–P plots of the regression standardised residuals was undertaken. Examination confirmed that the assumption of linearity was not violated, as the points on scatterplots of scores between each independent and dependent variables were approximately in a straight line (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

4.4.5 Multicollinearity

To check for multicollinearity the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) were calculated for each independent variable. Tolerance values were all greater than 0.1, and VIF values were all less than 10 (Table 20), suggesting multicollinearity was not an issue (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Table 20

Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) Values

Variable	Attitudes towards flextime		Attitudes towards flexplace	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Gender	.84	1.19	.84	1.19
Age	.76	1.33	.76	1.33
Marital status	.79	1.27	.79	1.27
Parental responsibility	.73	1.38	.73	1.38
Employment type	.84	1.20	.84	1.20
Permanent employment	.79	1.26	.79	1.26
Tenure	.76	1.32	.76	1.32
Job level	.78	1.29	.78	1.29
Ideal worker identity	.79	1.26	.79	1.26
Family role identity	.67	1.50	.67	1.50
Caregiver role identity	.64	1.57	.64	1.57

Furthermore, inspection of the correlation matrix (see Table 18) confirmed that independent variable correlations did not exceed .70. Accordingly, the absence of multicollinearity (i.e., two or more variables that are highly correlated) was confirmed (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

4.4.6 Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity is the ‘assumption that dependent variables exhibit equal level of variances across the range of predictor variables’ (Hair et al., 2014, p. 74). In regard to testing for violation of the assumption of homoscedasticity, Tharenou et al. (2007) posited that scatterplots that form a ‘cigar’ shape suggest that the data are homoscedastic, whereas a ‘fan’ shape implies heteroscedasticity. Examination of the present study’s scatterplots of scores confirmed that the assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated, as the scatterplots of

scores between each pair of independent and dependent variable were approximately ‘cigar’ shaped. Accordingly, the variance was considered acceptable, and the data homoscedastic.

As outlined above, the regression assumptions of linearity, normality, homoscedasticity and the absence of multicollinearity were deemed satisfactory. Finally, prior to undertaking statistical analyses to test this study’s hypotheses, assessment of CMV was undertaken to ensure robustness of the results. The next section outlines the assessment of CMV within this study prior to hypotheses testing.

4.5 Common Method Variance

If a single factor were to account for the majority portion of variance (i.e. >50%), this would be evidence of CMV (Tharenou et al., 2007). As discussed in Chapter 3, Harman’s (1976) single-factor tests were performed to detect potential CMV in my data set. This technique involved loading all the items of each study variable into an EFA, and then examining the un-rotated factor solution to determine if a single dominant factor emerged. No single factor accounting for the majority of the covariance emerged in the analysis. There was no problem with common method variance in this data set because the total variance extracted by one factor was 21.0%—less than the recommended threshold of 50%. Therefore, it was deemed that CMV was not an issue in this study (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Tharenou et al., 2007), and they were deemed suitable for hypothesis testing, as outlined in the next section.

4.6 Results of Hypothesis Testing

Linear regression analysis was applied to test all of the hypotheses. I used the conditional process modelling (with model 1 PROCESS) macro (Hayes, 2017) and plotted the interactions using Aiken and West’s protocols (Aiken & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014; Dawson & Richter, 2006) to test moderation hypotheses H4–H9. To minimise issues pertaining to multicollinearity, I standardised all scores prior to analysis (Tabachnick &

Fidell, 2013). Regression assumptions of linearity, normality, homoscedasticity and the absence of multicollinearity were deemed satisfactory, as outlined in sections 4.4.1 to 4.4.6. The first subsection provides an outline of the results pertaining to H1–H3. It then summarises the regression analyses for H1–H3, showing control variables and independent variables (ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity), as predictors of attitudes towards flextime and flexplace (see Table 21).

4.6.1 Independent Activation of the Three Identities Influencing Employee Attitudes Towards Utilisation of Flextime and Flexplace

H1a proposed an inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime. To test this hypothesis, standard linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of flextime from the control variables (gender, age, marital status, parental responsibility, employment type, permanent employment, tenure, job level) and the independent variables (ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity).

The overall regression model (see Table 21) predicted 7% of variance in attitudes towards flextime ($R^2 = .07$, $F(4, 1042) = 7.21$, $p < .01$). The results of the standard linear regression analysis revealed a non-significant relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime ($\beta = –.01$, $p = .73$). Hence, H1a was not supported.

H1b proposed an inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace. To test this hypothesis, standard linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of flexplace from control variables (gender, age, marital status, parental responsibility, employment type, permanent employment, tenure, job level) and independent variables (ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity).

The overall regression model (see Table 21) predicted 8% of variance in attitudes towards flexplace ($R^2 = .08$, $F(4, 1042) = 7.60$, $p < .01$). The results of the standard linear

regression analysis revealed a non-significant relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace (β = .02, p = .50). Hence, H1b was not supported.

H2a proposed a positive relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flextime. The results of the standard linear regression analysis revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flextime (β = .16, p < .001). Hence, H2a was supported.

H2b proposed a positive relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace. The results of the standard linear regression analysis revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace (β = .16, p < .001); accordingly, H2b was supported.

H3a proposed a positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards flextime. H3a was supported because the results of the standard linear regression analysis revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards flextime (β = .13, p < .001), with a small positive effect size. Higher caregiver identity was associated with higher levels of favourable attitudes towards flextime.

H3b proposed a positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards flexplace. The results of the standard linear regression analysis revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards flexplace (β = .12, p < .001), with a small positive effect size. Higher caregiver identity was associated with higher levels of favourable attitudes towards flexplace. Hence, H3b was supported.

Table 21

Results of Testing H1–H3: Regression Analyses Showing Control Variables and Independent Variables, as Predictors of Attitudes Towards Flextime and Flexplace

Variable	Attitudes to flextime	Attitudes to flexplace
Gender	-.10**	-.08*
Age	.07*	-.04
Marital status	.03	.01
Parental responsibility	-.02	.02
Employment type	.07*	.09**
Permanent employment	.01	.00
Tenure	.01	.01
Job level	-.10**	-.03
Ideal worker identity	-.01	.02
Family identity	.16**	.16**
Caregiver identity	.13**	.12**
R^2	.07**	.08**

**$p < .01$, *$p < .05$, $N = 1{,}047$.

The next subsection outlines the results pertaining to H4a, H5a and H6a, which examined how gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity and attitudes towards flextime.

4.6.2 Moderator Influence on the Relationship between Predictor Variables and Attitudes Towards Flextime

I tested three moderation effects in H4a, H5a and H6a, in separate regression models, to examine how gender may moderate the relationship between identity variables and favourable attitudes towards flextime.

In terms of the prediction of attitudes towards flextime from control variables, and independent variables (ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity) and the moderator (gender), overall regression model (see Table 22) predicted 7% of variance in attitudes towards flextime.

H4a proposed that gender moderates the inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that it will be stronger for males than females.

There was no significant interactive effect of ideal worker identity and gender on attitudes towards flextime respectively (see Table 22). Hence, H4a was not supported.

H5a proposed that gender moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males. As per Table 22, there was no statistically significant interactive effect of family identity and gender on attitudes towards flextime. Therefore, H5a was not supported.

H6a proposed that gender moderates the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males. Table 22 shows there was no significant interactive effect of caregiver identity and gender on attitudes towards flextime. Therefore, H6a was not supported.

The next subsection provides an outline of the results pertaining to H4b, H5b and H6b, which examined how gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity and attitudes towards flexplace.

4.6.3 Moderator Influence on the Relationship between Predictor Variables and Attitudes Towards Flexplace

In terms of the prediction of attitudes towards flexplace from control variables, and independent variables (ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity) and the moderator (gender), the overall regression model (see Table 22) predicted 8% of variance in attitudes towards flexplace.

H4b proposed that gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the inverse relationship will be stronger for males than females. In terms of the interactive effect of interactive effect of ideal worker identity and gender on attitudes towards flexplace, there was no statistically significant relationship. Therefore, H4b was not supported.

H5b proposed that gender moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males. Table 22 shows there was no statistically significant interactive effect of family identity and gender on attitudes towards flexplace. Therefore, H5b was not supported.

H6b proposed that gender moderates the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males. As per Table 22, there was no statistically significant relationship regarding the interactive effect of caregiver identity and gender on attitudes towards flexplace. Therefore, H6b was not supported.

Table 22

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis Testing of H4–H6

Variables	Attitude to flextime	Attitude to flexplace
Gender	**-.10****	**-.08***
Age	.07*	-.04
Marital status	.03	.01
Parental responsibility	-.02	.02
Employment type	**.07***	**.08****
Permanent employment	.01	.00
Tenure	.01	.01
Job level	**-.10****	-.03
Ideal worker identity	-.01	.02
Family identity	**.16****	**.16****
Caregiver identity	**.13****	**.12****
Ideal worker identity x Gender	.01	.04
Family identity x Gender	.03	.04
Caregiver identity x Gender	.00	.03
R^2	**.07****	**.08****

**p < .01, *p < .05, N = 1,047.

The next subsection provides an outline of the results pertaining to H7a–H9a. It then summarises the moderated regression analyses for H7a–H9a, showing control variables and co-activation of independent variables (ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity) as predictors of attitudes towards flextime (see Tables 23–25).

4.6.4 Co-activation of Ideal Worker Identity, Family Identity and Caregiver Identity and Influence on Employee Attitudes Towards Utilisation of Flextime

I tested co-activation in H7a, H8a and H9a in separate regression models (see Tables 23–25). This subsection provides commentary on statistically significant relationships between control variables and attitudes towards flextime pertaining to moderated regression testing H7a, followed by a summary of the H7a results (see Table 23).

H7a proposed that family identity moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the negative relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases. As per Table 23, there was no statistically significant relationship associated with the co-activation of ideal worker identity and family identity, and attitudes towards flextime ($\beta = –.03$, $p = .32$). Accordingly, H7a was not supported.

Table 23

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis Testing of H7a and H7b

Variables	Attitude to flextime	Attitude to flexplace
Gender	**-.10****	**-.08***
Age	**.07***	-.04
Marital status	.03	.01
Parental responsibility	-.02	.02
Employment type	**.07***	**.09****
Permanent employment	.01	.00
Tenure	.01	.00
Job level	**-.10****	-.02
Ideal worker identity	-.01	.02
Family identity	**.15****	**.16****
Caregiver identity	**.13****	**.13****
Ideal worker identity x Family identity	-.03	-.04
R^2	**.07****	**.08****

**p < .01, *p < .05, N = 1,047.

H8a proposed that caregiver identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases. As outlined in Table 24, there was a statistically significant interaction associated with the co-activation of ideal worker identity and caregiver identity, and attitudes towards flextime (β = .06, p = .02, R^2 = .08).

Table 24

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis Testing of H8a and H8b

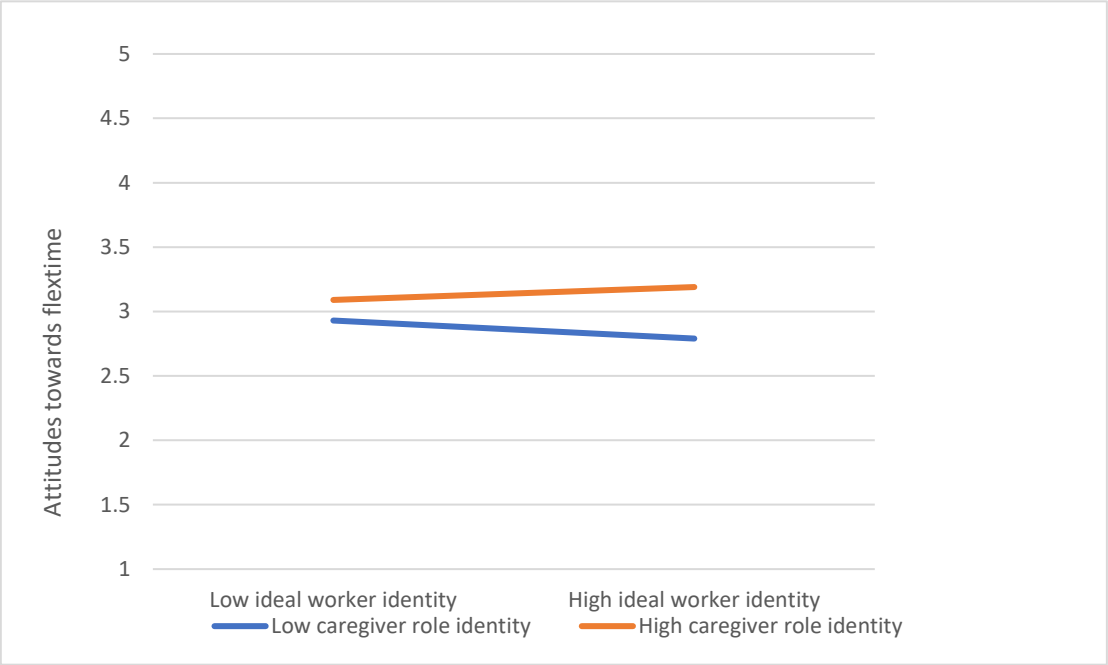
Variables	Attitude to flextime	Attitude to flexplace
Gender	**-.11****	**-.08***
Age	**.08***	-.04
Marital status	.03	.01
Parental responsibility	-.02	.02
Employment type	**.07***	**.09****
Permanent employment	.02	.00
Tenure	.01	.01
Job level	**-.11****	-.03
Ideal worker identity	-.01	.02
Family identity	**.16****	**.16****
Caregiver identity	**.14****	**.12****
Ideal worker identity x Caregiver identity	**.06***	.01
R^2	**.08****	**.07****

**$p < .01$, *$p < .05$, $N = 1{,}047$.

The interaction was plotted (Aiken & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014; Dawson & Richter, 2006) with the simple slopes of the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, with one standard deviation below the mean as low caregiver role identity and one standard deviation above the mean as high caregiver role identity. As shown in Figure 13, the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime was weakened when caregiver identity was higher, as expected.

Figure 13

Plot of Simple Slopes (Attitudes Towards Flextime and Ideal Worker Identity)



This interaction effect is consistent with Gardner et al.'s (2017, p. 613) description that weakening interaction effects 'occur when the conditional X–Y relationship dissipates as Z increases'. In terms of my study, a weakening mitigating effect describes the H8a interaction effects because the signs of the beta coefficients (ideal worker identity and caregiver identity) were opposite to each other (i.e. one is negative the other is positive), and as caregiver identity increased in value, the strength of the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime weakened. Therefore, H8a was supported because caregiver identity moderated the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flextime, such that—as expected—the relationship weakened as caregiver identity increased.

Next I provide commentary on statistically significant relationships between attitudes towards flextime, and attitudes towards flextime, pertaining to moderated regression testing of H9a, followed by a summary of the H9a results (see Table 25).

H9a proposed that caregiver identity moderates the positive relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases. As shown in Table 25, there was no statistically significant relationship associated with the co-activation of family identity and caregiver identity (β = .04, p = .13). Hence, H9a was not supported.

The next section provides an outline of the results pertaining to H7b–H9b. It then summarises the moderated regression analyses for H7b–H9b, showing control variables and co-activation of independent variables (ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity), as predictors of attitudes towards flexplace (see Tables 24–26).

4.6.5 Co-activation of Ideal Worker Identity, Family Identity and Caregiver Identity and their Influence on Employee Attitudes Towards Utilisation of Flexplace

I tested co-activation in H7b, H8b and H9b in separate regression models (see Tables 24–26). This section provides commentary on statistically significant relationships between control variables and attitudes towards flexplace pertaining to moderated regression testing H7b, followed by a summary of the H7b results (see Table 23).

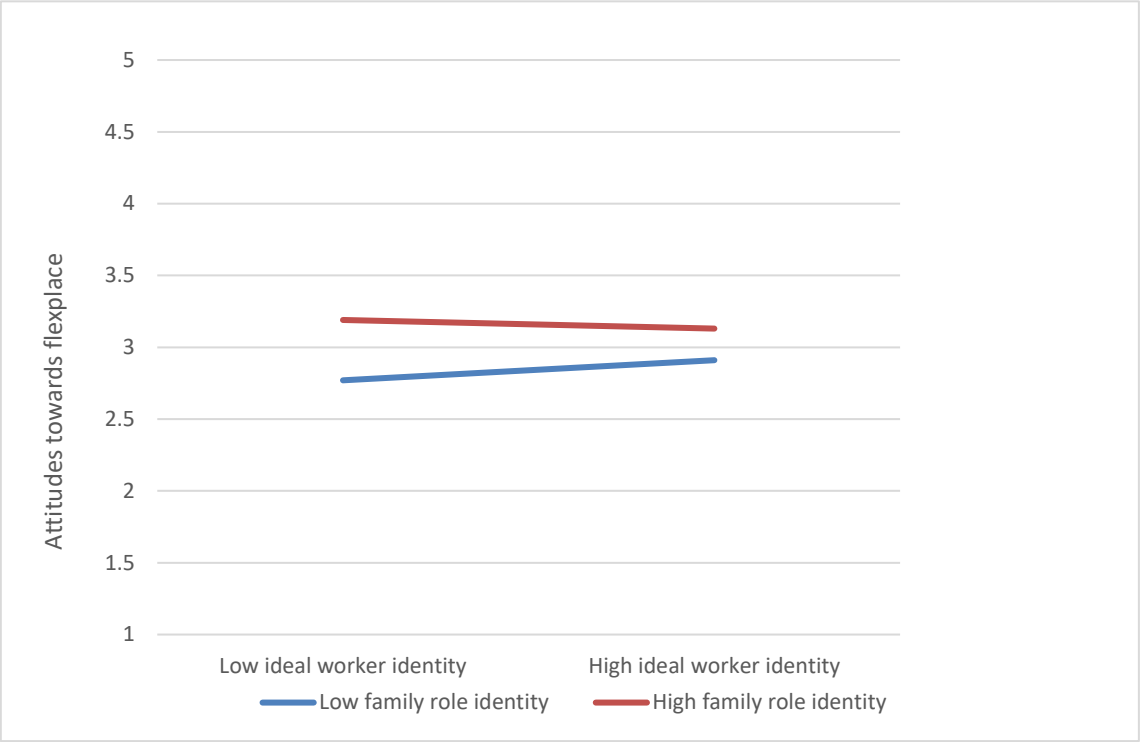
H7b proposed that family identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases. As per Table 23, there is a borderline statistically significant negative relationship associated with the co-activation of ideal worker identity and family identity, and attitudes towards flexplace (β = –.04, p = .08).

To further investigate this result, the interaction was plotted (Aiken & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014; Dawson & Richter, 2006) with the simple slopes between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, with one standard deviation below the mean as low family role identity and one standard deviation above the mean as high family role identity As shown in Figure 14, the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace was weaker when family identity was higher, as expected.

Additionally, the plot of simple slopes suggested that when ideal worker identity and family identity were both higher, the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace remained relatively invariant. Accordingly, H7b was partially supported, as family identity moderated the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flexplace, such that the relationship weakened as family identity increased. An exception was when family identity was low, in which case the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace remained relatively invariant and non-significant.

Figure 14

Plot of Simple Slopes (Attitudes Towards Flexplace and Ideal Worker Identity)



This following provides commentary on statistically significant relationships between attitudes towards flexplace pertaining to moderated regression testing H8b, followed by a summary of the H8b results (see Table 24).

H8b proposed that caregiver identity moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases. As outlined in Table 24, there was no statistically significant relationship associated with the co-activation of ideal worker identity and caregiver identity, and attitudes towards flexplace (β = .01, p = .67). Therefore, H8b was not supported.

I now provide commentary on statistically significant relationships between attitudes towards flexplace pertaining to moderated regression testing H9b, followed by a summary of the H9b results (see Table 25).

H9b proposed that caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases. As shown in Table 25, there was a borderline statistically significant relationship associated with the co-activation of family identity and caregiver identity, and favourable attitudes towards flexplace (β = .05, p = .06).

Table 25

Results of Moderated Regression Analysis Testing of H9a and H9b

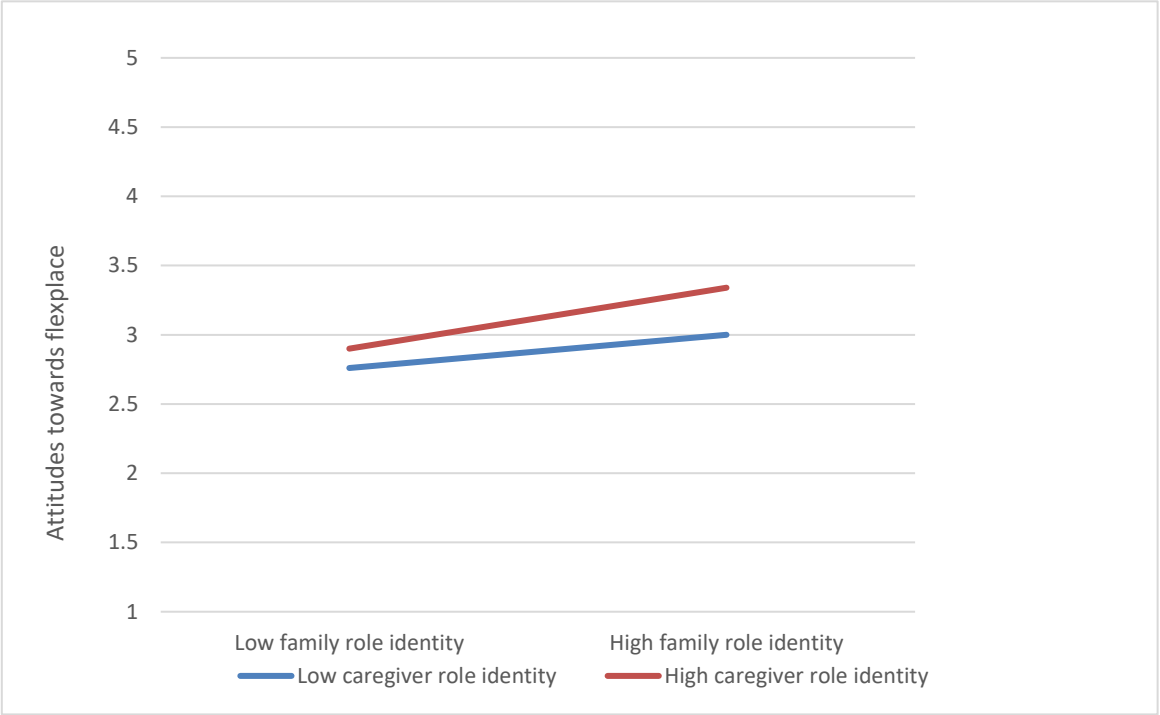
Variables	Attitude to flextime	Attitude to flexplace
Gender	**-.10****	**-.08***
Age	**.07***	-.04
Marital status	.03	.01
Parental responsibility	-.02	.02
Employment type	**.07***	**.09****
Permanent employment	.01	.00
Tenure	.01	.01
Job level	**-.11****	-.04
Ideal worker identity	-.01	.02
Family identity	**.17****	**.17****
Caregiver identity	**.13****	**.12****
Caregiver identity x Family identity	.04	.05
R^2	**.07****	**.08****

**p < .01, *p < .05, N = 1,047.

To further investigate this result, the interaction was plotted (Aiken & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014; Dawson & Richter, 2006) with the simple slopes between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace. Figure 15 shows that the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace was stronger when caregiver identity was higher. Thus, H9b was supported, noting a borderline (p = .06) statistically significant relationship.

Figure 15

Plot of Simple Slopes (Attitudes Towards Flexplace and Family Role Identity)



4.7 Summary of Study 1 Results

Overall, the results of Study 1 provide evidence for positive relationships between family identity and attitudes towards flextime (H2a); family identity and attitudes towards flexplace (H2b); caregiver identity and attitudes towards flextime (H3a); and caregiver identity and attitudes towards flexplace (H3b). There was no support for gender moderation of these relationships.

In terms of co-activation, the results of Study 1 suggest that caregiver identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases (H8a). Furthermore, family identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases (H7b). Finally, the results of Study 1 suggest that caregiver identity

moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases (H9b).

The findings of Study 1 are summarised in Table 26. The next chapter presents the Study 2 results.

Table 26

Findings of Study 1

	Hypothesis	Finding
H1a	There is an inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes toward flextime.	X
H1b	There is an inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes toward flexplace.	X
H2a	There is a positive relationship between family identity and attitudes toward flextime.	✓
H2b	There is a positive relationship between family identity and attitudes toward flexplace.	✓
H3a	There is a positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes toward flextime.	✓
H3b	There is a positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes toward flexplace.	✓
H4a	Gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes toward flextime, such that the negative relationship will be stronger for males than females.	X
H4b	Gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes toward flexplace, such that the negative relationship will be stronger for males than females.	X
H5a	Gender moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes toward flextime, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.	X
H5b	Gender moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes toward flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.	X
H6a	Gender moderates the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes toward flextime, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.	X
H6b	Gender moderates the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes toward flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females than males.	X
H7a	Family identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases.	X
H7b	Family identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases.	✓ Partially
H8a	Caregiver identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases.	✓
H8b	Caregiver identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases.	X

	Hypothesis	Finding
H9a	Caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases.	X
H9b	Caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases.	✓

Chapter 5: Results (Study 2)

5.1 Chapter Objectives

Chapter 4 reported on the relationships examined in Study 1 between ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity, and attitudes towards flextime and flexplace, respectively; the boundary condition of gender identity on these relationships; and the co-activation of ideal worker identity, family identity and caregiver identity on attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

This chapter reports on Study 2, which had two purposes: first, to examine and test the relationships between attitudes towards and use of flextime, and attitudes towards and use of flexplace (H10a and H10b); and second, to examine and test the moderating influence of flexibility stigma on attitudes towards and use of flextime, and the moderating influence of flexibility stigma on attitudes towards and use of flexplace (H11a and H11b).

As outlined in Chapter 3, a prospective longitudinal research design was adopted for Study 2 (N = 269), with data collected at two time points three months apart: December 2019 (T1) and late February–early March 2020 (T2). This approach was consistent with the research design literature (Creswell, 2003; Menard, 2002; Tharenou et al., 2007) that highlights the importance of obtaining behavioural measures and predicting these prospectively from attitudes, mirroring temporal change—particularly when exclusively using self-report measures (Cooper et al., 2020).

This chapter provides a description and summary of the Study 2 preliminary data analyses, EFAs, construct validity, descriptive statistics, and outline of the results for H10a, H10b, H11a and H11b. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key results relating to the Study 2 hypotheses tested in the analyses, which form the basis for discussion in Chapter 6.

The next section outlines the Study 2 preliminary analyses pertaining to attitudes towards flextime (T1), attitudes towards flexplace (T1) and flexibility stigma (T2) and the behavioural measures, flextime use and flexplace use (T2).

5.2 Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary analyses involved calculation of descriptive statistics, including the frequency of categorical variables and means, standard deviations and ranges of scores. In addition, I checked that the data analyses performed for this study conformed with the underlying statistical assumptions for logistic regression, as outlined by Tabachnick and Fidell (2019). The next section outlines the analyses used to ensure my study's measures were fit for purpose. Data analyses were undertaken in several stages. The first stage involved examination of the validity and reliability of the study's measures, which involved EFA to assess construct validity of the measures employed in this study.

5.2.1 Principal Component Analysis

SPSS 26 was utilised to conduct PCA to determine whether each scale was factorable and to identify the smallest number of factors that could be used to represent the interrelationships among the set of variables. This process involved two steps: assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis and factor extraction. Rotation of the factors to improve interpretation was not required because of the single factor solution for each scale (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Pallant, 2011). The scales analysed were attitudes towards flextime, attitudes towards flexplace and flexibility stigma.

5.2.1.1 Assessment of the Suitability of the Data for Factor Analysis

The assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis involved three steps: assessment of sample size, the strength of the relationships between the items and factorability of the data. First, the assessment of sample size confirmed that the Study 2 sample size was sufficient (N = 269), being above the recommended minimum sample size of

150, and within the recommended 10:1 ratio of participants to items. Second, review of the correlation matrix confirmed that most of the correlation coefficients were .3 or greater, confirming adequate strength of the intercorrelations among the items for each measure. Third, the factorability of the data was assessed by calculating Bartlett's test of sphericity and the KMO measure of sampling for each continuous variable. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .05$) and the KMO was >.6 (see Table 27) for each scale, confirming the factorability of the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The results of parallel analysis (see Table 28) supported this.

Table 27

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) Measure

Variable	Bartlett's test**	KMO
Attitude to flextime (T1)	$p < .00$	.87
Attitude to flexplace (T1)	$p < .00$	.87
Flexibility stigma (T2)	$p < .00$	.63

** Bartlett's test of sphericity significant ($p < .05$); KMO >.6

Table 28

Comparison of Eigenvalues From Principal Component Analysis and Criterion Values From Parallel Analysis

Variable	Component Number	Actual eigenvalue from PCA	Criterion value from parallel analysis	Decision
Attitudes to Flextime	1	3.434	1.185	Accept
Attitudes to Flexplace	1	3.619	1.185	Accept
Flexibility Stigma	1	1.982	1.185	Accept

5.2.1.2 Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale

The four items of the Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale were subjected to PCA. This revealed the presence of a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding 1.0, explaining 85.9% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the first component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain a single component. Furthermore, this was supported by the results of the parallel analysis, which showed a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding the corresponding criterion value for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (4 variables × 269 respondents). The results of this analysis supported the use of the Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale with a single factor solution (see Table 29).

Table 29

Results of Factor Analysis of the Attitudes Towards Flextime Scale

Attitudes towards flextime item	Factor loading
3. Flextime is favourable	**.94**
4. Flextime is desirable	**.93**
2. Flextime is pleasant	**.93**
1. Flextime is good	**.91**

Note. $N = 269$. The extraction method was principal axis factoring with an oblique (Promax with Kaiser normalisation) rotation. Factor loadings >.30 are in bold.

5.2.1.3 Attitudes Towards Flexplace Scale

The four items of the Attitudes Towards Flexplace Scale were subjected to PCA, revealing the presence of a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding 1.0, explaining 90.5% of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the first component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain a single component. This was supported by the results of the parallel analysis, which showed a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding the corresponding criterion value for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (4 variables × 269 respondents). The results of this analysis support the use of the Attitudes Towards Flexplace Scale, with a single factor solution (see Table 30).

Table 30

Results of Factor Analysis of the Attitudes Towards Flexplace Scale

Attitudes towards flexplace item	Factor loading
3. Flexplace is favourable	**.95**
1. Flexplace is good	**.95**
4. Flexplace is desirable	**.94**
2. Flexplace is pleasant	**.90**

Note. $N = 269$. The extraction method was principal axis factoring with an oblique (Promax with Kaiser normalisation) rotation. Factor loadings >.30 are in bold.

5.2.1.4 Flexibility Stigma

The three items of the Flexibility Stigma Scale were subjected to PCA. This identified the presence of a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding 1.0, explaining 66.1 % of the variance. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the first component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain one component. This decision was supported by the results of the parallel analysis, which showed a single component with an eigenvalue exceeding the corresponding criterion value for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (3 variables × 269 respondents). The results of this analysis supported the use of the Flexibility Stigma Scale with a single factor solution (see Table 31).

Table 31

Results of Factor Analysis of the Flexibility Stigma Scale

Flexibility Stigma	Factor loading
I am extremely devoted to my work	**.88**
I think of myself as a worker who can devote all my energy and attention primarily to my work role	**.85**
I would feel at a loss if I were forced to reduce up my work devotion due to external commitments	**.70**

Note. N = 269. The extraction method was principal axis factoring with an Oblimin Kaiser normalisation rotation. Factor loadings >.30 are in bold.

The next section summarises the results of the item and reliability procedures undertaken prior to hypotheses testing but first a factor solution summary of Study 2 measures is presented (see Table 32), showing the number of items with factor loadings above .40, and Cronbach's alpha for each variable. All reliabilities exceeded the .70 criterion suggested by Nunnally (1978) and were considered acceptable.

Table 32

Factor Solution Summary of Study 2 Measures

Variable	Items (>.40)	No. items (>.40)	Cronbach's alpha
Attitudes towards flextime	aft3, aft3, aft4, aft1	4	.95
Attitudes towards flexplace	afp3, afp1, afp4, afp2	4	.97
Flexibility stigma	flst2, flst1, flst3	**3**	.74

5.2.2 Descriptive Statistics

This section provides commentary regarding the statistically significant relationships between the demographic and employment-related control variables, and the independent and dependent variables.

Regarding the relationships between the demographic-related control variables and the Study 2 independent variables, as shown in Table 33, there was a weak negative but

significant correlation between age and flexibility stigma ($r = –.15$, $p < .05$), with older knowledge workers associated with less flexibility stigma.

Regarding the employment-related control variables and the Study 2 independent variables, there was a weak significant positive correlation between tenure and attitudes towards flextime ($r = .13$, $p < .05$), with knowledge workers with longer tenure associated with more favourable attitudes towards flextime. Interestingly, job level was positively associated with flexibility stigma ($r = .17$, $p < .01$), with knowledge workers holding higher-level roles associated with more flexibility stigma.

For demographic-related control variables and the Study 2 dependent variables, being married or partnered was positively associated with flexplace use ($r = .17$, $p < .01$). In regard to employment-related control variables and the Study 2 dependent variables, job level was positively related to flexplace use ($r = .16$, $p < .01$), with knowledge workers holding higher level roles associated with flexplace use.

I now draw attention to the statistically significant relationships between Study 2 independent variables, which were also investigated via Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. First, there was a significant negative correlation between attitudes towards flextime and flexibility stigma ($r = –.13$, $p < .05$), with more favourable attitudes towards flextime associated with lower levels of flexibility stigma. Second, there was a strongly significant positive correlation between attitudes towards flextime and flexplace ($r = .65$, $p < .01$), with more favourable attitudes towards flextime associated with higher levels of favourable attitudes towards flexplace.

Finally, I draw attention to the significant relationships between the Study 2 independent variables and dependent variables. First, there was a weak but significant positive correlation between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use ($r = .14$, $p < .05$), with more favourable attitudes towards flextime associated with flextime use. Finally, there

was a significant positive correlation between attitudes towards flexplace and flexplace use ($r = .17$, $p < .01$), with more favourable attitudes towards flexplace associated with flexplace use.

It is interesting to note that that approximately one third of respondents utilised flextime (see Table 33, Flextime use Mean), which is consistent with Australian labour force flextime utilisation rates, prior to the mandated public health lockdowns, where 32.7% of people had an agreement to work flexible hours (ABS, 2021). By contrast, approximately one third of respondents utilised flexplace (see Table 33, Flexplace use Mean), which is significantly higher than the 14.9% of the Australian labour force who worked from home, prior to the mandated public health lockdowns (ABS, 2021).

By way of summary, Table 33 displays the means, standard deviations, and correlations among all the Study 2 variables.

Table 33

Means, Standard Deviations, Alpha Coefficients and Correlations Among Study 2 Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Gender	.57	.50													
2 Age	3.84	1.19	**.19****												
3 Marital status	.68	.47	**.27****	.03											
4 Parental Responsibility	.65	.48	**.13****	**.19****	**.50****										
5 Employment Type	.90	.30	.06	-.09	.01	-.01									
6 Permanent Employment	.87	.34	.02	.00	.05	.02	**.28****								
7 Tenure	3.90	1.19	.08	**.34****	-.05	.02	.04	**.34****							
8 Job Level	2.43	1.24	**.15***	-.06	**.22****	**.14****	**.23****	**.17****	.12						
9 Attitudes to Flextime	5.96	1.22	-.05	.04	-.05	-.02	-.06	.03	**.13***	.00					
10 Attitudes to Flexplace	5.54	1.47	-.07	-.09	.01	.02	.03	.03	.05	.02	**.65****				
11 Flexibility Stigma (T2)	2.43	.91	-.08	**-.15***	.03	-.04	.06	.00	-.06	**.17****	**-.13***	-.08			
12 Flextime use (T2)	.36	.48	.11	-.09	.07	.04	.04	-.06	-.06	-.01	**.14***	.11	.07		
13 Flexplace use (T2)	.37	.48	.02	-.11	**.17****	.07	.00	.09	-.10	**.16****	.00	**.17****	-.08	.09	

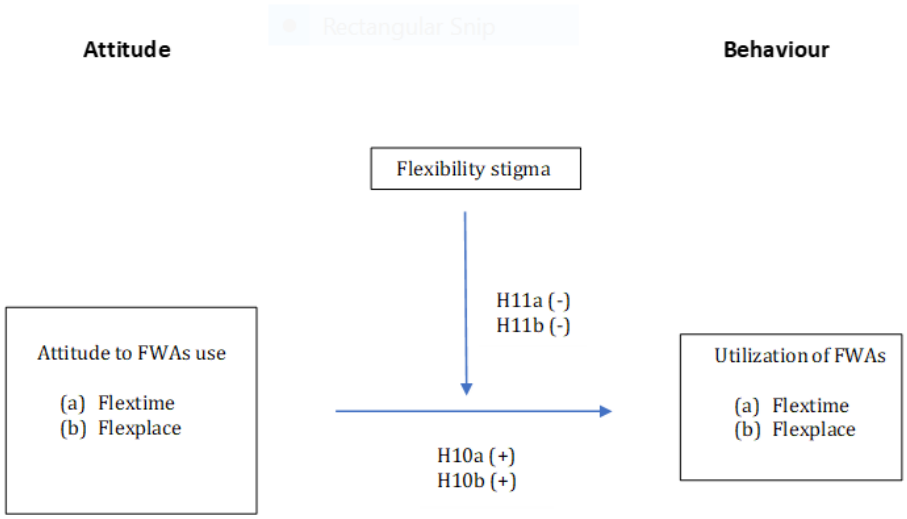
Note. $N = 269$. Cronbach's alphas are on the diagonal. Boldfaced values denote statistically significant correlations. Gender coded 0 = female, 1 = male; age (years) coded 1 = <25, 2 = 26–35, 3 = 36–45, 4 = 46–55, 5 = 56–65, 6 = 66+; marital status coded 0 = single, 1 = married or partnered; parental responsibility coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; employment type coded 0 = part time, 1 = full time; permanent employment coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; tenure (years) coded 1 = <1, 2 = 1–2, 3 = 2–5, 4 = 5–10, 5 = 10+; job level coded 1 = non-managerial, 2 = team leader, 3 = manager, 4 = senior manager, 5 = executive management; attitudes towards flextime and flexplace were assessed at T1; flexibility stigma and flextime and flexplace use were assessed at T2; flextime/flexplace use coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

5.3 Hypothesis Testing

Binary logistic regression analysis was applied to test the Study 2 hypotheses because my theoretical model (see Figure 16) included dichotomous dependent variables: flextime use and flexplace use (coded 0 = no, yes = 1). My model included a combination of control variables (gender, coded = 0 female, 1 = male; age in years, coded 1 = <25, 2 = 26–35, 3 = 36–45, 4 = 46–55, 5 = 56–65, 6 = 66+ years; marital status, coded 0 = single, 1 = married or partnered; parental responsibility, coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; employment type, coded 0 = part time, 1 = full time; permanent employment, coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; tenure (years) coded 1 = <1, 2 = 1–2, 3 = 2–5, 4 = 5–10, 5 = 10+; job level, coded 1 = non-managerial, 2 = team leader, 3 = manager, 4 = senior manager, 5 = executive management), and continuous independent variables: attitudes towards flextime, attitudes towards flexplace and flexibility stigma.

Figure 16

Attitudes Towards and Utlisiation of FWAs (With Flexibility Stigma Moderator)



To minimise issues pertaining to multicollinearity in the moderation analysis, I standardised all scores prior to analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). As outlined in the following section, logistic regression assumptions of linearity, normality, homoscedasticity and the absence of multicollinearity were deemed satisfactory.

5.4 Assumptions of Logistic Regression

Prior to undertaking statistical analyses to test this study's hypotheses, preliminary analyses were undertaken to ensure robustness of the results. The following sections outline the data screening process, sample size statistical power calculations and identification of outliers. Testing for violation of the assumption of linearity and testing for the absence of multicollinearity underlying data analysis and CMV are then outlined. These tests were undertaken as the accuracy of statistical results relies on these assumptions being met for that data to be analysed (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019; Tharenou et al., 2007).

5.4.1 Sample Size

The sample of 269 had acceptable power. To ensure this sample size was sufficient to detect the minimum size of hypothesised effects, post hoc power analysis for multiple regression was conducted. Statistical power calculations were conducted for multiple regression using Cohen's (1988, 1992) power analysis tables and formulae. These calculations were based on several considerations. First, an anticipated effect size of .265, was applied as per Green's (1991) medium partial correlation rule (Maxwell, 2000; Tharenou et al., 2007). Second, to ensure that Study 2 had sufficient statistical power to test my hypotheses, the long-term probability of rejecting the null hypothesis needed be equal to or greater than .80 (Cohen, 1992; Maxwell, 2000; Tharenou et al., 2007). Third, the desired probability level, the *p* value, alpha level or Type 1 error rate value should be less than or equal to .05 to claim statistical significance (Cohen, 1988, 1992). The *p* value was set to .05 in the post hoc sample size calculations to represent the .05 level of statistical significance.

Finally, the number of predictors in the model was set at 11 to capture the three predictors (attitudes towards flextime, attitudes towards flexplace, flexibility stigma); and the eight control variables (gender, age, marital status, parental responsibility, tenure, employment status, employment type, job level). My power analysis indicated that a sample of 114 would have adequate power to detect a moderate effect.

5.4.2 Outliers

The presence of outliers on the continuous independent variables were checked in two ways: first, by inspection of the boxplot graphs; and second, by inspection of the casewise list produced by logistic regression as recommended by Pallant (2011).

As is common in large samples, cases ($N = 2$) were found with outlying residuals. There were no outliers for the direct logistic regression performed to assess the relationship between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use. However, two outliers were found for the direct logistic regression performed to assess the relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and flexplace use. Given the low number of cases and the likelihood that these outliers represented variations on theoretically expected responses, rather than errors in data (Bandalos, 2018), they were not removed from the analysis.

5.4.3 Linearity

To check for violations of linearity, inspection of the normal P–P plots of the regression standardised residuals was undertaken, confirming that the assumption of linearity was not violated, as the scatterplots of scores comparing each independent and dependent variable were approximately in a straight line (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

5.4.4 Multicollinearity

Logistic regression does not directly test for absence of multicollinearity because the dependent variables, flextime use and flexplace use, are dichotomous dependent variables (coded 0 = no, yes = 1). Following the recommendation by Belsley et al. (1980), I tested for

collinearity among predictors using linear regression. As outlined in Table 34, tolerance, and VIF were calculated for each independent variable to confirm the absence of multicollinearity between the predictor variables. Tolerance values were not below 0.1, and VIF values were not above 10, suggesting no issues of multicollinearity (Pallant, 2011).

Table 34

Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) Values

Variable	Flextime use		Flexplace use	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Gender	.87	1.15	.87	1.15
Age	.77	1.29	.77	1.29
Marital status	.68	1.46	.68	1.46
Parental responsibility	.72	1.40	.72	1.40
Employment type	.87	1.15	.87	1.15
Permanent employment	.80	1.25	.80	1.25
Tenure	.74	1.35	.74	1.35
Job level	.85	1.18	.85	1.18
Attitudes towards flextime	.55	1.83	.55	1.83
Attitudes towards flexplace	.55	1.81	.55	1.81
Flexibility stigma	.93	1.08	.93	1.08

I followed Belsley et al.'s (1980) two-step procedure for identifying the number of dimensions containing 'near dependencies' among the predictors and identifying the predictors that may be contributing to those dependencies. First, inspection of the coefficient table and collinearity diagnostics table confirmed that collinearity was not evident among Study 2 predictors (Belsley et al., 1980; Hair et al., 2014); that is, condition indexes were well below 30 (range 1–3), which suggested weak dependencies among predictors. Second, inspection of the variance proportions confirmed that only attitudes towards flextime and attitudes towards flexplace had high variance proportions (>.50). Given low condition indices (2.11 and 2.17 respectively), it was deemed that redundancy between these two variables was not a concern (Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In summary, the above tests confirmed the absence of multicollinearity between the predictor variables.

Furthermore, inspection of the correlation matrix (see Table 33), confirmed that independent variable correlations did not exceed the .70 level (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013); accordingly, the absence of multicollinearity (i.e. two or more variables being highly correlated) was confirmed. Finally, prior to undertaking statistical analyses to test this study's hypotheses, assessment of CMV was undertaken to ensure robustness of the results, as outlined in the next section.

5.5 Common Method Variance

As outlined in Chapter 3, Harman's (1976) single-factor tests were performed to detect potential CMV in my study. Based on my analysis, no single factor emerged or accounted for the majority of the covariance. There was no problem with common method bias in this data because the total variance extracted by one factor was 33.4%—less than the recommended threshold of 50%. Therefore, it was decided that CMV was not an issue for this study (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Tharenou et al., 2007).

Hypothesis testing was conducted using logistical regression to test Study 2 hypotheses H10a and H10b. The next section provides an outline of the results pertaining to H10a and H10b. It then summarises the logistic regression analyses for H10a and H10b, showing control variables and independent variables (attitudes towards flextime, attitudes towards flexplace), as predictors of flextime use and flexplace use.

5.6 Attitudes Towards Utilisation of Flexible Work Arrangements

H10a proposed a positive relationship between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use. Direct logistic regression was performed to assess this relationship. The model contained nine independent variables (gender, age, marital status, parental responsibility, employment type, permanent employment status, tenure, job level, attitudes towards flextime). The full model containing all predictors was significant, $\chi^2(9, N = 269) = 17.14$, $p < .05$; that is, the model was able to distinguish between participants who reported and did

not report flextime use. The model as a whole explained between 6.2% (Cox and Snell R^2) (Cox & Snell, 1970, 1989) and 8.5% (Nagelkerke R^2) (Nagelkerke, 1991) of the variance in flextime use, and correctly classified 65.1% of cases.

As shown in Table 35, only two of the predictors made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model (gender and attitudes towards flextime). The strongest predictor of flextime use was attitudes towards flextime, recording an odds ratio of 1.50. This indicated that respondents who had more favourable attitudes towards flextime were 1.5 times more likely to use flextime than those who did not hold favourable attitudes towards flextime. Hence, H10a was supported.

Table 35

Results of Testing H10a: Logistic Regression Analyses Showing Control Variables and Independent Variables as Predictors of Flextime Use

Variable	*B*	S.E.	Wald	df	*p*	Odds Ratio	95.0% C.I for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Gender	.30	.14	4.50	1	.03	1.36	1.02	1.80
Age	-.27	.15	3.08	1	.08	.77	.57	1.03
Marital staus	.10	.16	.34	1	.56	1.10	.80	1.51
Parental Responsibility	.08	.16	.24	1	.63	1.08	.79	1.48
Employment Type	.16	.16	.97	1	.33	1.17	.86	1.60
Permanent Employment	-.16	.16	1.07	1	.30	.85	.63	1.16
Tenure	-.05	.16	.11	1	.75	.95	.69	1.30
Job Level	-.10	.15	.44	1	.51	.91	.68	1.21
Attitudes to flextime	.41	.16	6.63	1	.01	1.50	1.10	2.04
Constant	-.59	.15	16.80	1	.00	.55		

H10b proposed a positive relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and flexplace use. Direct logistic regression was performed to assess this relationship. The model contained nine independent variables (gender, age, marital status, parental responsibility, employment type, permanent employment status, tenure, job level, attitude to flexplace). The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi^2(9, N = 269) = 30.47$, $p < .01$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between participants who reported and did not report flexplace use. The model as a whole explained between 10.7% (Cox and Snell

R^2) and 14.6% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in flexplace use, and correctly classified 66.2% of cases.

As shown in Table 36, four of the predictors made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model (marital status, permanent employment, tenure, attitudes towards flexplace). The strongest predictor of flexplace use was attitudes towards flexplace, recording an odds ratio of 1.51. This indicated that respondents who had more favourable attitudes towards flexplace were 1.51 times more likely to use flexplace than those who did not hold favourable attitudes towards flexplace. Hence, H10b was supported.

Table 36

Results of Testing H10b: Logistic Regression Analyses Showing Control Variables and Independent Variables as Predictors of Flexplace Use

Variable	*B*	S.E.	Wald	df	*p*	Odds Ratio	95.0% C.I for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Gender	.10	.14	.01	1	.95	1.01	.76	1.34
Age	-.11	.15	.48	1	.49	.90	.66	1.22
Marital staus	.34	.16	4.42	1	.04	1.41	1.02	1.95
Parental Responsibility	-.04	.16	.06	1	.81	.96	.70	1.32
Employment Type	-.16	.16	1.05	1	.31	.85	.63	1.16
Permanent Employment	.33	.17	3.80	1	.05	1.39	1.00	1.94
Tenure	-.37	.16	5.21	1	.02	.69	.51	.95
Job Level	.30	.15	3.80	1	.05	1.34	1.00	1.81
Attitudes to flextime	.42	.15	7.76	1	.01	1.51	1.13	2.03
Constant	-.44	.15	9.29	1	.00	.64		

To test moderation hypotheses H11a and H11b, the conditional process modelling (with model 1 PROCESS) macro (Hayes, 2017) was utilised. Specifically, direct binary logistic regression was performed in PROCESS to assess the relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and flexplace use. To minimise issues pertaining to multicollinearity, I standardised all scores prior to analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The next section provides an outline of the results pertaining to H11a and H11b. It then presents the results of analyses of the H11a and H11b (Table 37).

5.6.1 Flexibility Stigma and Flextime Use

Binary logistic regression was performed to assess the relationship between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use. The model testing moderation contained eight control variables (gender, age, marital status, parental responsibility, employment type, permanent employment status, tenure, job level), one independent variable (attitudes towards flextime) and one moderator variable: flexibility stigma. In terms of the prediction of flextime use from the control variables and the independent variable (attitudes towards flextime), and moderator (flexibility stigma), the model as a whole explained 10% of the variance in flextime use.

H11a proposed that flexibility stigma moderates the relationship between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use, such that the relationship will be weaker when flexibility stigma is higher. As shown in Table 37, only two of the predictors made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model: gender ($B = .34$, $p < .05$) and attitudes towards flextime ($B = .45$, $p < .01$). In terms of the interactive effect of flexibility stigma on flextime use, results in Table 37 show that the interaction term was not statistically significant between attitudes towards flextime and flexibility stigma ($\chi^2 = .46$, $p = .50$). Thus, flexibility stigma did not moderate the relationship between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use, and thus H11a was not supported.

5.6.2 Flexibility Stigma and Flexplace Use

Binary logistic regression was performed to assess the relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and flexplace use. The model testing moderation contained eight control variables (gender, age, marital status, parental responsibility, employment type, permanent employment status, tenure, job level), one independent variable (attitudes towards flexplace) and the moderator: flexibility stigma. In terms of the prediction of flexplace use from control variables, and independent variable (attitudes towards flexplace) and moderator (flexibility stigma), the overall regression model (see Table 37) predicted 17% of variance in flexplace use.

H11b proposed that flexibility stigma moderates the relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and flexplace use, such that the relationship will be weaker when flexibility stigma is higher. As shown in Table 37, five of the predictors made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model: marital status (B = .38, p < .05), tenure (B = –.37, p < .05), job level (B = .35, p < .05), flexibility stigma (B = –.27, p = .05) and attitudes towards flexplace (B = .43, p < .01). In terms of the interactive effect of flexibility stigma on flexplace use, results in Table 37 show that the interaction term was not statistically significant between attitudes towards flexplace and flexibility stigma (χ^2 =1.21, p = .27). Accordingly, flexibility stigma did not moderate the relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and flexplace use. Hence H11b was not supported.

I found no support for a main effect of flexibility stigma on flextime utilisation. However, there was a negative effect (B = –.27, p < .05) of flexibility stigma on flexplace utilisation (Refer Table 37).

Table 37

Results of Moderated Logistic Regression Analysis Testing H11a and H11b

Variables	Flextime Use	Flexplace Use
Gender	.34*	-.03
Age	-.24	-.14
Marital status	.07	.38*
Parental Responsibility	.10	-.08
Employment Type	.15	-.15
Permanent Employment	-.15	.32
Tenure	-.05	-.37*
Job Level	-.13	.35*
Attitudes to Flextime	.45**	
Attitudes to Flexplace		.43**
Flexibility Stigma	.21	-.27*
Attitudes to Flextime x Flexibility Stigma	-.11	
Attitudes to Flexplace x Flexibility Stigma		.16
Cox and Snell R square	.07*	.12**
Nagelkerke R squared	.10*	.17**

**$p < .01$, *$p < .05$, $N = 269$. Gender coded 0 = female, 1 = male; age (years) coded 1 = <25, 2 = 26–35, 3 = 36–45, 4 = 46–55, 5 = 56–65, 6 = 66+; marital status coded 0 = single, 1 = married or partnered; parental responsibility coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; employment type coded 0 = part time, 1 = full time; permanent employment coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; tenure (years) coded 1 = l<1, 2 = 1–2, 3 = 2–5, 4 = 5–10, 5 = 10+ years; job level coded 1 = non-managerial, 2 = team leader, 3 = manager, 4 = senior manager, 5 = executive management; attitudes towards flextime and flexplace were assessed at T1; flexibility stigma and flextime and flexplace use were assessed at T2; flextime/flexplace use coded 0 = no, 1 = yes; *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$

5.7 Summary of Study 2 Results

Overall, the results of Study 2 provide evidence of positive relationships between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use (H10a); and attitudes towards flexplace and flexplace use (H10b). The findings of Study 2 are summarised in Table 38. The next chapter discusses both the theoretical and practical implications of these results.

Table 38

Findings of Study 2

	Hypothesis	Finding
H10a	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use.	✓
H10b	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and flexplace use.	✓
H11a	Flexibility stigma moderates the relationship between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use, such that the relationship will be weaker when flexibility stigma is higher.	X
H11b	Flexibility stigma moderates the relationship between attitudes towards flextime and flextime use, such that the relationship will be weaker when flexibility stigma is higher.	X

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the relevance, significance and contribution of my research. Chapter 2 then provided an overview of FWAs, specifically flextime and flexplace, and critically examined antecedents of attitudes towards and utilisation of FWAs, including role identity and co-activation of multiple identities. Multiple identity and boundary theory were then incorporated to capture the independent and co-activation of multiple role identities in terms of their effect on attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. This was followed by an examination of the influence of the boundary conditions of gender on those relationships. Chapter 2 then reviewed the attitudes–behaviour literature, specifically the principle of compatibility, with underpinned the theoretical framework examining employee attitudes as an antecedent of utilisation of both flextime and flexplace. The chapter concluded with an examination of flexibility stigma, and how it may moderate the attitude–FWA use relationship.

Chapter 3 outlined the rationale for the research design, which incorporated two types of quantitative research design: a cross-sectional design (Study 1) and a two-wave prospective longitudinal design (Study 2). This was followed by a detailed description of the Study 1 and Study 2 sampling approaches, procedures, selection of measures and methods of analysis.

Chapter 4 provided a detailed review of the results of Study 1, including descriptive statistics, intercorrelations, EFA and reliabilities for the study variables. Linear regression analysis was then applied to test all the Study 1 hypotheses. Specifically, Study 1 tested the relationships between role identity and attitudes towards each of flextime and flexplace. This was followed by an examination of the influence of the boundary conditions of gender on those relationships. Multiple identity and boundary theory were then incorporated to test the

independent activation and co-activation of multiple role identities in terms of their effect on attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

Chapter 5 provided a description and summary of the Study 2 preliminary data analyses, EFA, item and reliability analysis, construct validity and descriptive statistics. Logistic regression analysis was applied to test all hypotheses in Study 2, as my theoretical model was comprised of categorical dichotomous dependent variables: flextime use and flexplace use. The chapter concluded with a summary of the key results relating to the Study 2 hypotheses, which tested the attitude–behaviour relationship between attitudes towards and use of flextime and flexplace, and the moderating influence of flexibility stigma on these relationships.

The next section reaffirms the aim of my study, the thesis research question and hypotheses, prior to highlighting key findings to assist with interpretation of the results of my research in relation to theoretical and empirical literature.

6.2 Study 1

6.2.1 Research Question and Hypotheses

The main aim of my research was to examine how role identity influences employee attitudes towards utilisation of flextime and flexplace, the two most utilised types of FWA in the Australian workforce (ABS, 2019). To explore this important contemporary workplace issue, my Study 1 research question was:

How do role identities influence employee attitudes towards utilisation of flexible work arrangements?

Few studies have investigated the role that individuals themselves play in determining use of FWA policies (Shockley & Allen, 2012). Traditionally studies examining antecedents of FWA use have focused predominately on demographic variables such as gender, age, and family responsibility (e.g. Allen et al., 2013; Billings & Sharpe, 1999; Galinsky et al., 2004;

Sharpe et al., 2002; Shockley & Allen, 2010). While work family scholars have focused on the cultural beliefs that underlie flexibility stigma (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Williams, 2010; Williams et al., 2013), identity has not received the same level of theoretical attention in terms of understanding its effect on attitudes towards FWAs utilisation (Williams et al., 2016). Accordingly, the main aim of Study 1 was to make a theoretical and empirical contribution through the examination of identity, a critical antecedent to utilisation of both flextime and flexplace that has not been extensively examined in FWA research. A secondary aim of Study 1 was to make a theoretical contribution through the examination of gender as a moderator of the relationship between multiple role identities, and attitudes towards both flextime and flexplace. A further aim of Study 1 was to make a theoretical contribution through the examination of the relationship between the co-activation of role identities and attitudes towards both flextime and flexplace. The following section highlights key Study 1 findings, which are unpacked in more detail in the subsequent section.

6.2.2 Summary of Key Findings

In general, findings of Study 1 support the proposed independent activation 'main effects' conceptual model (see Chapter 2, Figure 9) in that the analyses identified that:

- higher family identity is associated with more positive attitudes towards flextime (H2a)
- higher family identity is associated with more positive attitudes towards flexplace (H2b)
- higher caregiver identity is associated with more positive attitudes towards flextime (H3a)
- higher caregiver identity is associated with more positive attitudes towards flexplace (H3b)

However, there was:

- no statistically significant relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime (H1a).
- no statistically significant relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace (H1b).

As an aside, respondents had in the main positive attitudes to both flextime and flexplace. Family role identity was slightly stronger for male participants, and caregiver role identity was slightly stronger for female participants. However, the magnitude of the effects found when testing H2a and H2b, and H3a and H3b were relatively small, consistent with some previous study findings employing comparable family identity (e.g. Fox & Bruce, 2001) and non-work identity constructs (e.g. Dumas & Stanko, 2017).

The findings of Study 1 partially support the proposed multiplicative co-activation interaction conceptual model (see *C*hapter 2, Figure 11) in that the analyses suggested that:

- family identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases (H7b), except when family identity is low, in which case the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace remains relatively invariant and non-significant.
- caregiver identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases (H8a).
- caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases (H9b).

Key findings in relation to the independent activation 'main effects' conceptual model (H1–H6) and the multiplicative co-activation interaction conceptual model (H7–H9) are discussed in the following section.

6.2.3 Discussion of Key Findings

This section discusses Study 1 key findings, including an evaluation and interpretation of how my findings compare with those in the literature. The first three hypotheses directly addressed the main research question: 'How do role identities influence employee attitudes towards utilisation of flexible work arrangements?'

6.2.3.1 The Main Effects of Role Identities

The first three hypotheses concerned the main effects of the three role identities. H1 proposed an inverse relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace. H1a and H1b were not supported as there were no significant effects. These non-significant results are surprising considering that the ideal worker literature suggests that employees with higher levels of ideal worker identity may have less favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs (Howell et al., 2017). For example, Blair-Loy (2003) suggested that employees with high ideal worker identity, based on the norm of work devotion, may have high role identity in the working setting, given their role may often involve making significant personal sacrifices to ensure work primacy. Moreover, Reid (2015) contended that the ideal worker is supposed to work long hours and ensure family matters do not intrude on one's commitment to the job. In summary, my hypotheses that a person with higher ideal worker identity is likely to experience less favourable attitudes towards utilisation of flextime and flexplace—arising from a combination of notions surrounding family commitments and traditional organisational expectations—were not supported.

Although not expected theoretically, the lack of support for H1a and H1b may be explained by factors identified in other empirical studies and literature reviews. For example, Kossek and Lautsch (2018) contended that control over scheduling (flextime) arrangements—provided that individuals can separate from work when desired—benefits upper- and middle-level employees. Given knowledge workers (managers and professionals) generally occupy middle to high job levels, this may explain why H1a and H1b were not supported in my study. This may also be explained by Shockley and Allen's (2012) finding that university academics (professionals) were more driven by work- than by life management motives (e.g. family responsibilities) to use FWAs. Accordingly, professionals may view the utilisation of flextime or flexplace as an opportunity to undertake additional work-related activity beyond traditional work hours or outside the workplace, thereby reinforcing work primacy.

H2 proposed a positive relationship between family identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace. H2a and H2b were both supported. These findings are consistent with the work–family literature that contends that having a family is generally associated with greater psychological importance being placed on the non-work domain, and greater attention devoted to the family role, often because of increased time spent on domestic responsibilities (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). For example, being a parent may result in spending more time on family responsibilities and attending to the needs of children (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Grady & McCarthy, 2008; Mayrhofer et al., 2008). Drawing on boundary theory, this study posited that the stronger an individual's role identity, the greater the reluctance to exit that role, whereby individuals with a high role identity may prefer to avoid extra-role boundary permeation (Ashforth et al., 2000). Therefore, I contended that employees with higher levels of family identity are more likely to be dedicated to their family and choose to prioritise their family identity ahead of other role

identities. Put another way, individuals with higher family identity are likely to prevent work from interrupting their family time and thereby hold more favourable attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs. The findings support these propositions.

The findings of this study are also consistent with Allen et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis finding that employees with high levels of family responsibility, such as those who are married/partnered and/or who are parents, stand to benefit more from FWAs than those with less family responsibility. Moreover, Shockley and Allen (2012) found that those with greater family responsibility were more likely to endorse life management motives for both FWAs. Thus, my findings are consistent with the work–family literature.

H3 proposed a positive relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace. H3a and H3b were both supported. These findings are congruent with the literature examining identities separately. First, Shockley and Allen's (2012) research found that those with greater caregiving responsibility were more likely to endorse life management motives for both flextime and flexplace. Second, my findings are consistent with those of Allen et al. (2013), who posited that employees with high levels of family responsibility, such as caring responsibilities, stand to benefit more from FWAs than do those with less caring responsibility.

Importantly, while most studies examining antecedents of FWAs have focused predominately on demographic variables such as family and caregiving responsibility (e.g. Allen et al., 2013; Shockley & Allen, 2010, 2012), my study focused on role identity, an enduring concept to apply when examining behaviour across various contexts (Hogg et al., 1995, Owens et al., 2010; Stryker, 1980).

In contrast to my research, which was theoretically underpinned by role identity theory, Lambert et al. (2008) utilised human ecology theory as a framework to examine how individual and organisational factors may influence employee utilisation of FWAs. Lambert

et al. predicted that individuals with greater care responsibility would have a greater need to adapt, to achieve integrity of functioning. Lambert's hypothesis that employees with high levels of primary care responsibility would be more likely to use FWAs than employees with low levels of primary care responsibility was not supported. Conversely, my findings, which focus directly on identity rather than a demographic proxy suggest that care identity is positively associated with attitudes towards utilisation of FWAs.

The next part of Study 1 examined the moderating effect of gender.

6.2.3.2 The Moderating Effects of Gender

H4 proposed that gender moderates the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the inverse relationship will be stronger for males. H4a and H4b were not supported. Gender did not moderate the relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace; thus, the inverse relationship was not stronger for males than females. The lack of support for H4a and H4b may be attributable to several causes.

First, as Munsch et al. (2014, p. 44) contended that 'the ideal worker identity is based on a traditional, gendered division of labour' (Acker, 1990; Williams, 2000). However, with rising workforce diversity (Davis-Blake & Broschak, 2009; Deal et al., 2010) such as increasing female participation in the Australian labour force (ABS, 2021), this traditional view requires reconsideration. Second, professional women, who are highly competent, work long hours and are dedicated to their work are likely to adopt the ideal worker identity (Berdahl & Moon, 2013; Cuddy et al., 2004), explaining this lack of support for H4a and H4b.

H5 proposed that gender moderates the relationship between family role identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for females. H5a and H5b were not supported: gender did not moderate the

relationship between family role identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace. This may be for a variety of reasons.

First, changing trends in family societal expectations require men to participate more actively in the upbringing of their children (Munsch & O'Connor, 2018). The significant trend towards higher numbers of women in the labour market, including increasing female participation in the Australian labour force (ABS, 2021) coupled with the growth of single-parent families, means that fewer families conform to the traditional breadwinner–homemaker model (Williams, 2010).

Second, in response to the rising popularity of intensive, child-first parenting styles, contemporary parents, both males and females, spend more time with their children than do members of previous generations (Aumann et al., 2011; Galinsky et al., 2009; Munsch & O'Connor, 2018). Moreover, an increasing number of families with young children now have employed mothers, and in a significant (and increasing) proportion of these families, women earn more than their male partners (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). Consequently, fathers are more involved in the childcare and housework traditionally done by women in the home. The literature contends that having a family is generally associated with greater psychological importance being placed on the non-work domain and greater attention devoted to the family role—often because of increased time spent on domestic responsibilities (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). This may explain the lack of moderation observed in my study and thus the lack of support of H5a and H5b.

H6 proposed that gender moderates the relationship between caregiver identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace, such that the relationship will be stronger for individuals for females. Neither H6a nor H6b were supported, which may be for a variety of reasons.

First, the changing demographics of the Australian workforce, including a more diversified and ageing workforce (Calvano, 2013; Eifert et al., 2015) increases the likelihood that employees find themselves in the 'sandwich generation', juggling the care of both children, and ageing or infirm relatives (Aumann et al., 2011; Munsch & O'Connor, 2018). The changing trends in family societal expectations requiring men to participate more actively in caregiving (Munsch & O'Connor, 2018); the upward trend towards larger numbers of women in the labour market, including increasing female participation in the Australian labour force (ABS, 2021); and the growth of single-parent families also means that fewer families conform to the traditional breadwinner–homemaker model (Williams, 2010). As a result of these changes, both male and female contemporary workers may prefer employment that provides flexibility and balance to enable them to attend to their caregiving responsibilities (Pedulla & Thébaud, 2015; Reid, 2015; Vandello et al., 2013). This may explain the lack of support for H6a and H6b.

In summary, these findings suggest that a common feature of knowledge workers, regardless of gender or perhaps the diminution of traditional stereotypes more broadly, may explain the lack of support for the moderating effects of gender on the relationship between ideal worker, family and caregiver identity, and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace.

6.2.3.3 Interactive Effects of Ideal Worker and Family Identity

H7a proposed that family identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases. H7a was not supported, which may be for the following reasons. First, boundary theory, specifically the protection effect, posits that the stronger an individual's role identity, the greater the reluctance to exit that role (Ashforth et al., 2000); consequently individuals in a highly important role may prefer to avoid extra-role boundary

permeation. For example, several studies reported an association between work role identity and work–home boundary protection (Kossek et al., 2012; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006; Winkel & Clayton, 2010). Therefore, the lack of support for H7a may be explained by employees with high ideal worker identity enacting boundary protection, which prevents non-work role identities from permeating their ideal worker identity.

H7b proposed that family identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases. My findings are mixed. First, there was a borderline statistically significant negative interaction associated with the co-activation of ideal worker identity and family identity, and attitudes towards flexplace ($\beta = -.05$, $p = .08$). That is, the co-activation of ideal worker identity and family identity weakens the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards utilisation of flexplace, when family identity is higher.

Second, I found that when family identity and ideal worker identity are both high, the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace remains constant. Accordingly, H7b was partially supported. This may be explained by the changing attitudes of parents towards higher levels of family participation. An employee with a high ideal worker identity and high family identity may hold ambivalent attitudes towards flexplace use because the opportunity to undertake either work- or family-related activity, away from the office, in traditional work hours, involves enacting roles of similar importance.

6.2.3.4 Interactive Effects of Ideal Worker and Caregiver Identity

H8a, that caregiver identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases, was supported. This finding is consistent with boundary theory, which posits that when an individual prefers to enact a highly important role in other life roles, individuals with high role identity may prefer extra-role boundary permeation

(Ashforth et al., 2000). Thus, an enactment effect is activated, and ideal worker identity is permeated by a weak boundary around that role (Capitano et al., 2017; Hecht & Allen, 2009). Specifically, individuals with high ideal worker identity may be motivated to enact their caregiver identity, thus allow caregiving responsibilities to take place during traditional work hours.

Second, in terms of co-activation of multiple identities, Rothbard and Ramarajan (2009) contended that the co-activation of work and non-work identities occurs when identities are integrated and the boundaries between the identities are permeable. The key point is that co-activation—be it compatible or conflicting—requires integration. Put another way, co-activation involves engaging in another identity, while the other identity remains activated.

H8b proposed that caregiver identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases. H8b was not supported. The lack of support for H8b may be explained from several theoretical perspectives; boundary theory—specifically the protection effect—and the work–family role identity literature.

In terms of work–home boundary research, several studies have found an association between work role identity and work–home boundary protection (Kossek et al., 2012; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006; Winkel & Clayton, 2010). Therefore, the lack of support for H8b in my study may be explained by knowledge workers with high ideal worker identity enacting boundary protection, which prevents non-work role identities from permeating their ideal worker identity, thereby engendering non-favourable attitudes towards utilisation of flexplace.

6.2.3.5 Interactive Effects of Family Identity and Caregiver Identity

H9a proposed that caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases. H9a was not supported, which may be explained by consideration of the changing attitudes of parents towards family participation (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). Parents' primary focus may be family-related activities, such as caring for their children or undertaking domestic-related tasks (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Grady & McCarthy, 2008; Mayrhofer et al., 2008) during traditional work hours, rather than caregiving activity (e.g. caring for parents or siblings). This idea is contemplated in the family responsibility literature, which suggests that the overall desire to achieve work–life balance is a major motive for FWA use (Frone & Yardley, 1996; McDonald et al., 2005), with parental commitment considered the principal motivator (Sullivan & Lewis, 2001). In this way, family identity and caregiver identity may not operate synergistically, as attitudes towards flextime are not enhanced by the co-activation of family identity and caregiver identity.

H9b proposed that caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases. H9b was supported, consistent with boundary theory, which posits that when individuals prefer to enact a highly important role in other life roles, those with high role identity may prefer extra-role boundary permeation (Ashforth et al., 2000). Thus, an enactment effect is activated and family role identity is permeated by a weak boundary around that role (Capitano et al., 2017; Hecht & Allen, 2009). Specifically, individuals with higher caregiver identity may be motivated to enact their family identity, thus allow caregiving responsibilities to take place during traditional work hours, away from the office.

Second, the support for H9b may be explained by consideration of the changing attitudes of parents towards greater family participation (Berdahl & Moon, 2013). Thus, family identity and caregiver identity will operate synergistically such that more favourable attitudes towards flexplace are enhanced by the co-activation of family identity and caregiver identity, as employees favourably view the opportunity to undertake both family-related and caregiving activity during traditional work hours, away from the workplace.

6.3 Study 2

This section restates the Study 2 research question and hypotheses, prior to providing a summary of the key findings of Study 2, followed by a detailed discussion of the results in relation to each of the hypotheses and the theoretical and empirical literature.

6.3.1 Overview

Study 2 was designed for the purpose of testing the attitude–FWA relationship and whether it is moderated by flexibility stigma. As outlined in Chapter 3, a prospective longitudinal research design was adopted for Study 2 (N = 269), with data collected at two time points three months apart: December 2019 (T1) and February 2020 (T2). This approach was consistent with the research design literature (Creswell, 2003; Menard, 2002; Tharenou et al., 2007) that highlights the importance of obtaining behavioural measures and predicting these prospectively from attitudes by mirroring temporal change, particularly when exclusively using self-report measures (Cooper et al., 2020).

6.3.2 Research Question and Hypotheses

Study 2 first examined the relationships between employee attitudes towards and use of flextime, and attitudes towards and use of flexplace (H10a and H10b respectively). Second, Study 2 examined and tested the moderating influence of flexibility stigma on attitudes towards and use of flextime, and the moderating influence of flexibility stigma on

attitudes towards and use of flexplace (H11a and H11b respectively). The next section highlights key Study 2 findings, which are discussed in more detail in the subsequent section.

6.3.3 Discussion of Key Findings

H10 proposed a positive relationship between attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace. Both H10a and H10b were supported. This is consistent with the attitudes–behaviour literature (Azjen & Fishbein, 2006; Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Glasman & Albarracın, 2006), which contends that attitudes are good predictors of behaviour. Specifically, the theory of compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) states that it is possible to obtain compatibility for a single behaviour by assessing attitudes towards the behaviour in question, and the theory of planned behaviour contends that attitudes are key predictors of behaviour. I now discuss my findings in terms of the attitudes–behaviour literature.

First, leading attitude researchers (e.g. Allport, 1935; Azjen & Fishbein, 2006; Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Glasman & Albarracın, 2006; Kraus, 1995; Smith & Hogg, 2008) have noted the utility and predictive validity of the attitude construct for over four decades. The viewpoint that attitudes guide information processing and influence behaviour has driven extensive attitude research in social psychology (Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Glasman & Albarracın, 2006), as well as significantly influencing attitude–behaviour research (Stock & Hoyer, 2005). In support of this conceptual framework, a wealth of studies has established that attitudes are important determinants of behaviour. For example, Kraus's (1995) meta-analysis of 88 attitude–behaviour studies confirmed that attitudes significantly and substantially predict future behaviour (Kraus, 1995). Put simply, it is now generally accepted that there is a positive relationship between attitudes towards a particular behaviour and subsequently enacting that behaviour (Kraus, 1995; Smith & Hogg, 2008).

The principle of compatibility requires 'that measures of attitude and behaviour involve exactly the same action, target, context and time elements' (Ajzen et al., 2019, p. 208). These four elements were explicitly specified in this study, which examined knowledge worker attitudes towards utilisation (action) of FWAs (target) available at their organisation (context) in a defined period (time). Accordingly, the principle of compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) was selected as the framework with which to examine employee attitudes towards flextime and flexplace, as antecedents of utilisation of each of flextime and flexplace.

I now examine the moderating effect of flexibility stigma on flextime and flexplace use. H11a and H11b were not supported; that is, employee flextime or flexplace utilisation was not statistically significantly influenced by flexibility stigma. This contrasts with literature suggesting that employees may be concerned career penalties and negative career repercussions (e.g. Brescoll et al., 2013; Gordon, 2014; Hochschild, 1997; Lewis et al., 2009). These important findings may be explained by the contention in previous research (Williams et al., 2013) that workers in high-status jobs typically are given much more control over their hours of work: they are seen as 'trusted workers' who are felt not to need close supervision (Kossek et al., 2006). Accordingly, professionals and managers are more likely to have access to FWAs than are other employees (Gordon, 2014; Jacobs & Gerson, 2004; Zeytinoglu et al., 2009), and can choose when, where and for how long they work even if the availability of flexible options is constrained (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; A. R. Hochschild, 1997; Jacobs & Gerson, 2004; Lewis et al., 2009). Accordingly, knowledge workers may not perceive stigma when considering utilising FWAs.

6.4 Theoretical and Empirical Contributions

My research focused on professionals and managers (knowledge workers), the two most significant and growing occupation groups in the Australian labour market (ABS,

2019). Furthermore, the selection of the role identities for study (ideal worker identity, family identity, caregiver identity) was based on their ubiquitous nature and increasing importance in the work–family literature. Conceptualisation and operationalisation of these role identities provided the theoretical and empirical framework with which to examine how role identity may influence employee attitudes towards flextime and flexplace. This thesis adds to the limited empirical research on the relationship between identity and attitudinal constructs. Most importantly, my research responds to Kossek et al.'s (2017) request for more work identity research to improve our understanding of the importance of self-identity in an organisational context.

Study 1 examined how role identity is related to attitudes towards FWAs and showed that higher family role identity and caregiver role identity were associated with more favourable attitudes towards flextime and flexplace. Of the three role identities, family identity was the strongest predictor of attitudes towards FWAs. An important contribution of Study 1 is its examination of the relationship between the co-activation of multiple role identities, and attitudes towards each of flextime and flexplace. Although there were mixed findings, the examination of work identity (ideal worker identity) and non-work identities (family identity and caregiver identity) builds on the literature. Surprisingly, Study 1 found no evidence that these relationships are moderated by gender.

Study 2 examined how employee attitudes are related to utilisation of flextime and flexplace. The findings indicated that respondents who had more favourable attitudes towards flextime and flexplace were 1.5 times more likely to use flextime and flexplace. Surprisingly, Study 2 found no evidence that these relationships were moderated by flexibility stigma. These findings highlight how employee attitudes influence utilisation of flextime and flexplace. The next section provides a summary of the theoretical and empirical contributions in terms of the independent activation of multiple identities.

6.4.1 Independent Activation of Multiple Identities

To the best of my knowledge, my contributions are unique, as this is the first research to examine the simultaneous influence of multiple role identities on attitudes towards and subsequent utilisation of FWAs. My empirical findings provide evidence for an influence of independent activation of non-work identities (family identity and caregiver identity) on employee attitudes towards utilisation of flextime and flexplace arrangements. There was no evidence that ideal worker identity was activated. This is an important finding in light of the pre-eminence given to ideal worker identity in the literature. Though it was surprising that gender did not moderate these effects, it is noteworthy that females were more likely than males to have positive attitudes towards FWAs. This finding is in line with empirical studies in which females had higher support for FWAs than did male respondents (e.g. Almer et al., 2003; Johnson et al., 2012). Although these findings build on the boundary management literature (e.g. Kossek et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2010), further research is required regarding gender and attitudes towards FWAs (Sweet et al., 2017).

This thesis makes three important contributions to the understanding of the relationship between identity and attitudes, and to the body of knowledge in work–family research, through the use of role identity theory (Stryker, 1980), boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000) and multiple identity theory (Burke, 1991; Burke & Stets, 2009) to examine the relationship between role identities and attitudes towards flextime and flexplace.

The first contribution of this study extends on the limited research that has investigated the role played by the individual in determining their own use of these practices (Shockley & Allen, 2012). As discussed in Chapter 1, studies that have examined antecedents of FWAs utilisation have focused predominately on demographic variables such as gender, age and family responsibility (e.g. Allen et al., 2013; Billings & Sharpe, 1999; Galinsky et al., 2004; Sharpe et al., 2002; Shockley & Allen, 2010) and cultural beliefs that underlie

flexibility stigma (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2004; Cohen & Single, 2001; Williams, 2010; Williams et al., 2013). However, identity has not received the same level of theoretical attention in terms of understanding its effects on attitudes towards FWA utilisation (Williams et al., 2016). Accordingly, my study makes a theoretical contribution through the examination of identity, a previously unexamined antecedent of attitudes towards utilisation of flextime and flexplace. Specifically, my study contributes to the literature by providing empirical support for the hypotheses that there is a positive relationship between family role identity and attitudes towards utilisation of each of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace.

My study's finding of a positive relationship between family role identity and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace builds on the literature (e.g. Kossek et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2010) that states 'that a significant challenge facing organisations is how employees manage the boundaries around their work and non-work roles in a way that promotes positive outcomes at work and in other parts of their lives' (Capitano et al., 2017, p. 99). Furthermore, my study begins to address an increasingly important issue articulated by boundary management researchers (e.g. Capitano et al., 2017; Kossek et al., 2012) in regard to the need to better understand the effect of work and family roles.

The second contribution the study makes is to the caregiving literature, by examining how caregiver identity influences attitudes towards each of flextime and flexplace, thereby introducing an identity theoretical perspective consideration to the increasingly important social phenomenon of ageing populations. Longer life expectancies mean a higher possibility of illness and incapacitation (Crimmins & Beltrán-Sánchez, 2010), and by extension an increased requirement for caregiving. Consequently, the necessity for caregiving, defined as informal, uncompensated care provided by family and friends (P. Smith, 2004), will continue to rise. This caregiving responsibility often falls on spouses and/or adult children. In terms of

identity, these caregivers cease to be just husband/wife/partner or son/daughter, but take on the identity of caregiver (Calvano, 2013). Caregiving, beyond parental responsibility, may extend to caring for siblings and partners, although most caregiving beyond direct parental responsibility relates to caring for parents (Calvano, 2013).

My study's finding of a synergistic effect for family role identity and caregiver role identity, and attitudes towards utilisation of (a) flextime and (b) flexplace builds on the literature (e.g. Kossek et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2010) that states 'that a significant challenge facing organisations is how employees manage the boundaries around their work and non-work roles in a way that promotes positive outcomes at work and in other parts of their lives' (Capitano et al., 2017, p. 99). The next subsection provides a summary of the theoretical and empirical contributions in terms of the co-activation of role identities.

6.4.2 Co-activation of Role Identities

An important contribution of this study is its examination of the relationship between the co-activation of multiple role identities and attitudes towards each of flextime and flexplace. Although findings were mixed, the examination of work identity (ideal worker identity) and non-work identities (family identity and caregiver identity) builds on the literature (e.g. Kossek et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2010) that states 'that a significant challenge facing organisations is how employees manage the boundaries around their work and non-work roles in a way that promotes positive outcomes at work and in other parts of their lives' (Capitano et al., 2017, p. 99).

My examination of the co-activation of multiple role identities and their influence on attitudes towards FWA begins to address the issue articulated by boundary management researchers (e.g. Capitano et al., 2017; Kossek et al., 2012) that the combined effect of work and non-work roles, has increased the significance and importance of better understanding how organisations may better manage boundaries around employee work and non-work roles.

This perspective is consistent with that of Kossek et al. (2018) who contended that one limitation of their meta-review was that they examined trends for most of the workers based on their review across occupational groups. Although they believed the trends they reported existed for the majority and are evidence based, to avoid stereotyping, one should consider how these work demands intersect with non-work identities for specific occupational groups. My study responds to this call.

6.4.3 Attitudes Towards Flextime and Flexplace

Researchers (e.g. Kossek & Michel, 2011) have contended that distinguishing between flextime and flexplace is important because the two forms of flexibility may not be interchangeable and aggregating them into a single construct may mask differential effects. For example, individuals may have flexibility in scheduling but be required to complete all work onsite. Likewise, individuals may be able to complete all work from home but be required to follow a rigid schedule. The extent to which flextime has been distinguished from flexplace in previous meta-analyses is not completely clear (Allen et al., 2013); therefore, the discrete operationalisation of flextime and flexplace measures has merit. Thus, my contribution of the discrete operationalisation of attitudes towards flextime and flexplace is consistent with the views of Allen et al. (2013).

6.4.4 Knowledge Workers

In relation to knowledge workers, research (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Deitch & Huffman, 2001; Lambert & Waxman, 2005) has acknowledged that flexible work arrangement utilisation may vary across organisations, because higher-status employees (professionals and managers) with high income and better benefits are more likely to have access to work–family benefits and thus may hold favourable attitudes towards flextime and flexplace. My findings show that knowledge workers have positive attitudes towards flextime, in line with the few studies examining employee attitudes towards flextime (e.g.

Gerstel & Clawson, 2014; Swanberg et al., 2005). Although studies have examined general attitudes towards FWAs (e.g. Albion, 2004) and supervisor attitudes towards professionals' and managers' use of FWAs (e.g. Johnson et al., 2008) to the best of my knowledge, no study has examined employee attitudes towards flexplace.

6.4.5 Attitudes Towards, and Subsequent Utilisation of Flexible Work Arrangements

The principle of compatibility requires that measures of attitude and behaviour involve the same action, target, context and time elements (Ajzen, 1988, 2005). These four elements were explicitly specified within this study, to examine employee attitudes towards utilisation (action) of FWAs (target) available at their organisation (context) within a defined period (time). Accordingly, the principle of compatibility (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) was selected to aid the examination of employee attitudes as an antecedent of utilisation of FWAs.

In summary, consistent with the attitude–behaviour literature, which indicates that specific attitudes are good predictors of specific behaviour, my study's results provide empirical support for a positive relationship between attitudes towards flextime and utilisation of flextime; and a positive relationship between attitudes towards flexplace and utilisation of flexplace.

6.4.6 Influence of Stigma Weakening the Attitude–Behaviour Relationship

In contrast to literature positing that when employees use FWAs this often comes with a stigma (Leslie et al., 2012) because it may conflict with the image of the ideal worker (Dumas & Sanchez-Burks, 2015), who is always available (Spreitzer et al., 2017), I found no evidence of a moderator effect for flexibility stigma between attitudes towards and subsequent utilisation of either flextime or flexplace. Although managers and professionals are more likely to have long work weeks than are workers in other occupations (Jacobs & Gerson, 2004), one potential reason for the lack of support for an effect of flexibility stigma

is that knowledge workers have control over their schedule. Several studies have shown that 'workers who do have access to flexible work arrangements can be considered to be a more, so-called, privileged group of employees' (Swanberg et al., 2005, p. 870). It has been suggested that a key challenge for workers in the upper 20% of those who use flexibility is having their career stalled and not being able to rise to the most senior leadership levels, because of stigma associated with working flexibly, and not being able to cut back or access reduced load to be able to care for their families (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018; Kossek et al., 2017). Although leading researchers in the work–family field contend that flexibility stigma in many workplaces affects professionals who take leave or adopt FWAs (Blair-Loy et al., 2015; Ferdous et al., 2022; Williams et al., 2013), I found no support for a main effect of flexibility stigma on flextime utilisation. However, there was a main effect of flexibility stigma on flexplace utilisation. This may be explained by employees having "concerns around the potential negative organizational consequences associated with flexplace, as utilisation of flexplace involves less physical presence in the office than flextime and is generally considered to be a riskier or potentially more career-damaging policy" (Shockley & Allen, 2012, p.227).

6.5 Practical Implications

My research highlights the consideration of employee attitudes rather than internalised norms, such as flexibility stigma, on FWA utilisation. In terms of practical implications, the findings of this research may be used by HR professionals to target attitude change to optimise utilisation of flexible work practices. Moreover, an understanding of employee attitudes towards and utilisation of FWAs has the potential to inform work and family theory and influence workplace practices. From an Australian labour market perspective, greater understanding of the antecedents of FWA use may provide organisations with insight into how to adapt as they seek to attract and retain key employees beyond the

COVID-19 pandemic (Caligiuri, De Cieri, Minbaeva, Verbeke, & Zimmermann, 2020; Maddox-Daines, 2021; Mas & Pallais, 2020; Ortiz-Bonnin, Blahopoulou, García-Buades, & Montañez-Juan, 2022). My research was conducted pre-lockdown for COVID-19, at a time when employees had control/choice over when and where work is done. Thus, the findings can be utilised to inform HR practices in relation to providing organisations with insight on how to adapt, as they seek to attract and retain key employees beyond the COVID-19 pandemic, when control and choice will become increasingly important to employees. Specifically, HR professionals, on the basis of my findings, should focus on employee caregiving and family identity when designing and deploying FWAs and work–life balance initiatives.

Additionally, my research has several practical implications with respect to recruitment and retention of knowledge workers—the largest and fastest growing occupation group in an increasingly ageing and more diverse Australian workforce. The changing demographics of the Australian workforce, including a more diversified workforce with greater female participation and an ageing workforce (ABS, 2019), increases the importance of an enhanced understanding of the antecedents of employee attitudes towards FWAs. The finding that Australian knowledge workers generally have favourable attitudes towards flextime and flexplace utilisation provides organisations with valuable insight into the knowledge worker mindset. Organisations can leverage this finding by designing recruitment strategies and remuneration packages that include flextime and flexplace arrangements, to increase the likelihood of successful recruitment and retention of knowledge workers. This practical implication is consistent with Sweet et al.'s (2016) viewpoint, which highlights the significance of attitude towards utilisation of FWAs, and potential for workplace practices such as FWAs to address varying requirements of a diverse workforce, including recruitment and retention.

The selection of knowledge workers for this study provided the opportunity for examination of an under-researched group. Moreover, the AWALI, a national study designed to measure the extent to which work has a negative effect on other areas of life, found that certain groups are more affected than others by an imbalance in work and personal time; this includes knowledge workers (Skinner & Pocock, 2014). Therefore, my study's finding that employee family identity and caregiver identity are positively related to attitudes towards flextime and flexplace provides organisations with the theoretical basis to design and communicate workplace policies that are aligned with family and caregiving attitudes.

6.6 Limitations

The theoretical and practical contributions of this study should be viewed with consideration of several limitations. First, the sample was recruited based on their suitability (i.e. employed knowledge workers) to participate in the study (i.e. a convenience sample). As such, generalising the findings beyond the sample should be done with caution. However, given the infeasibility of reaching all knowledge workers in the Australian workforce, it was necessary to sample the population. While the use of a non-probability convenience sample does not control for potential bias in selection and makes it difficult to calculate sampling error, such a sample in some respects is more representative of the target population than is a sample drawn from a single organisation or occupational group (e.g. Allen & Armstrong, 2006). The OPD for my research was collected by Qualtrics, which recruited my research OP through a combination of database acquisition and social media channels. Despite issues raised in the literature (e.g. Landers & Behrend, 2015; Paolacci et al., 2010) regarding the utilisation of OPD; participant experience; representativeness of OP participants; and appropriateness of OPD in management scholarship, my decision to conduct OPD-based research was made on balance after review of recent scholarly literature (Porter et al., 2019; Walter et al., 2019), and consideration of the concerns and benefits of utilising OPD.

The second limitation of my study concerns the use of self-report data, which can result in several biases. CMV—where variance in a dependent variable is caused by the measurement method rather than the actual constructs—is one such bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Spector, 2006). A potential limitation of my research relates to the use of data collected from a single source; that is, self-report questionnaires. When a study exclusively uses self-report measures to examine relationships between measures, biases such as CMV may occur (Antonakis et al., 2010, 2014; Cooper et al., 2020; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012; Spector, 2006). Although CMV has received attention in recent methodological literature (Antonakis et al., 2010, 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012; Spector, 2006) because of its potential to contribute to biases that could affect the validity of studies (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Schwarz, 1999), my research design included procedural and statistical remedies to mitigate CMV. In Study 1, which was a cross-sectional design, I adopted a range of procedural remedies as recommended by Cooper et al. (2020) to address concerns over CMV. First, I ensured participants' responses were anonymous, to minimise social desirability. Second, randomised survey question order ensured that the questions were presented to participants in different orders. Third, I used different response formats including Likert scales and semantic differential scales. Finally, having received feedback from pilot survey participants, I modified the wording of scale items to reduce ambiguity in the survey questions. In addition, Harman's single-factor tests were performed to detect potential CMV in my research. This technique involved loading all the items of each study variable into an EFA and examining the un-rotated factor solution to determine if a single dominant factor emerged. In summary, CMV is not likely to have influenced interaction effects tested in my studies given adoption of the abovementioned procedural and statistical remedies. Study 2 also incorporated temporal separation to minimise the effects of CMV. Finally, CMV is not likely to be an issue with interaction effects (Cooper et al, 2020).

The third limitation of Study 1 concerns my research design. It is acknowledged that cross-sectional design is limited in its capacity to infer causality, as collection of data from each respondent at a single point in time places restrictions on the ability to establish temporal precedence of a hypothesised cause in relation to its effects (Bowen & Wiersema, 1999; Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). It is therefore acknowledged that this is a limitation of the current research and findings related to causality should be interpreted with caution, although the results are generally supportive of the theoretical predictions. However, a strength of Study 2 was the use of a prospective longitudinal design that allowed me to examine the relationship between attitudes towards FWAs and their utilisation, thereby mirroring the temporal ordering of the variables.

Another potential limitation of the current research is the unique sample investigated. Moreover, de Menezes and Kelliher (2011) contended that previous studies investigating a single occupation—for example, students (Rogier & Padgett, 2004) or police officers (Burke, 1988)—generally used data from only one organisation or workplace (e.g. Dalton & Mesch, 1990; Mahajan & Foggin, 2006). Consequently, their findings may not generalise to wider populations of workers.

Finally, it is useful to reflect on the conceptual and operational measurement limitations of this study. This was the first study to my knowledge to operationalise ideal worker identity. Similarly, although caregiver role identity theory is somewhat limited in that it does not offer precise, easily measurable definitions of the concept and thus has not been frequently operationalised for research (Siebert & Siebert, 2005), the findings of the present study are quite promising and warrant further research in psychometric testing and validation.

6.7 Future Research

Given that professionals and managers (knowledge workers) are not representative of all occupations or classes, future research could study a broader range of occupations because

role identity and attitudes towards flextime and flexplace may vary according to socioeconomic status or occupational group (Aneshensel & Pearlin, 1987; Cinamon & Rich, 2002). Cinamon and Rich (2002) contended that it is possible that differences among workers in exploiting organisation provisions stems from their varying attributions of importance to work and family roles, which may differ across occupational groups.

Demographic trends across the Australian labour market—including an ageing population, increasing workforce and higher female participation (ABS, 2019, 2021)—coupled with people marrying later in life and postponing having children, the rise of dual-career households and households led by single parents, and labour force mobility (Koerin et al., 2008; Kossek et al., 2010; Shoptaugh et al., 2004), provides several avenues for future research. First, given increasing tension between caregiving and work, and the limited research on the topic, an opportunity exists for management scholars to contribute to understanding these phenomena from an identity perspective. Second, although most caregivers still are female, eldercare responsibilities are on the rise for men (Barrah et al., 2004; Calvano, 2013; Robinson et al., 2003), which provides the opportunity for policy makers to consider how gender identity may influence employee caregiver role identity and therefore inform policy. Third, examining the effects of role identities provides new avenues of research regarding FWA utilisation by examining the influence of employee role identities (work and non-work) and gender identity in shaping attitudes towards other types of FWA, such as compressed work weeks, job sharing and extended leave arrangements. Fourth, as the main effects were relatively small (7% - 8 % explained variance), suggesting that other variables could potentially be examined in future research. This could include the consideration of the influence of deeply held values and social norms which, in turn, may influence attitudes and behaviours.

6.8 Conclusion

Consistent with the work–family literature (Allen et al., 2013; Kossek et al., 2018), given the increasing attention placed on the implementation of FWAs within organisations, a better understanding of employee flexibility is critical to the advancement of HR practice. Researchers, practitioners and public policy advocates may benefit from a deeper understanding of how identity influences attitudes towards FWAs, to help employees manage their work, family and caregiver roles. Among various organisational practices, flextime and flexplace have been promoted as key to helping employees manage work and non-work responsibilities. Given the significance and increasing number of knowledge workers in the Australian labour market, my study has increased understanding of how identity is related to attitudes towards FWAs. A greater understanding of the antecedents of attitudes may enhance the likelihood of beneficial outcomes for employees, organisations and the broader community.

In summary, my research sought to examine two antecedents to utilisation of FWAs that have not previously been studied: role identities and attitudes towards these flexible work practices. The overarching research objective was to examine how ideal worker role identity, family role identity and caregiver role identity are related to employee attitudes towards, and subsequent utilisation, of FWAs.

Study 1 found that higher family role identity and caregiver role identity were associated with more favourable attitudes towards flextime and flexplace, with family identity as the strongest predictor of attitudes towards FWAs. Additionally, Study 1 found no evidence that these relationships were moderated by gender.

An important contribution of Study 1 was the examination of the relationship between the co-activation of multiple role identities and attitudes towards FWAs. There were mixed findings regarding the co-activation of multiple role identities and attitudes towards flextime

and flexplace. First, family identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes weaker as family identity increases. Second, caregiver identity moderates the negative relationship between ideal worker identity and attitudes towards flextime, such that the relationship becomes weaker as caregiver identity increases. Third, caregiver identity moderates the relationship between family identity and attitudes towards flexplace, such that the relationship becomes stronger as caregiver identity increases. These findings highlight how co-activation of role identities may influence attitudes towards utilisation of flextime and flexplace.

Study 2 examined how employee attitudes are related to utilisation of flextime and flexplace. Study 2 findings indicated that respondents with more favourable attitudes towards flextime and flexplace were 1.5 times more likely to use flextime and flexplace. Additionally, Study 2 found no evidence that these relationships were moderated by flexibility stigma. These findings highlight how employee attitudes influence utilisation of flextime and flexplace.

In summary, my thesis has contributed to our understanding of how role identities and attitudes influence the utilisation of FWAs. In terms of practical implications, the findings of this research may assist HR professionals to target attitude change to optimise utilisation of flexible work practices.

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Appendices

Appendix A

T1 survey Dec 2019

The aim of this research is to investigate how employee identity may impact utilization of flexible work arrangements. The questionnaire should take about 10 minutes to complete and is completely confidential.

Directions: Please indicate your response by selecting the most appropriate option. To move to the next page simply click on the "->", which can be found at the bottom right of each screen.

You do not need to complete this in one sitting you can log out and your answers will be saved until you visit the survey again on the same computer, tablet or smartphone.

NOTE: If you are using a Smartphone to complete this survey we recommend you use landscape (i.e. sideways) view.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Firstly, as your identity is anonymous, please tell us a bit about yourself and your work situation.

How long have you been employed by your current employer (if you have more than one job, please consider the one in which you work the most hours)?

- ○ less than 1 year (1)
- ○ 1-2 years (2)
- ○ 2-5 years (3)
- ○ 5-10 years (4)
- ○ 10+ years (5)

Which of the following best describes your current employment status?

- ○ Permanent/ongoing employment (1)
- ○ Temporary or fixed term employment (paid leave entitlements) (2)
- ○ Casual or temporary employment (no paid leave entitlements) (3)
- ○ Contracted to work here, employed by an agency (4)
- ○ Contracted to work here, self employed (5)

Which of the following best describes your hours of work?

- ○ Full Time (35 + hours per week) (1)
- ○ Part Time (less than 35 hours per week) (2)

Which of the following best describes your occupation?

- ○ Professional (1)
- ○ Manager (2)
- ○ Other (please specify) (3) _____

Which of the following best describes your job level?

- ○ Executive Management (1)
- ○ Senior Manager (2)
- ○ Manager (3)
- ○ Team Leader (4)
- ○ Individual Contributor (5)

What is your gender

- ○ Male (1)
- ○ Female (2)
- ○ Other (3)

What is your age?

- ○ less than 25 years (1)
- ○ 26 -35 (2)
- ○ 36 -45 (3)
- ○ 46 - 55 (4)
- ○ 56 - 65 (5)
- ○ 66+ years (6)

Which of the following best describes you?

- ○ single (no children) (1)
- ○ single (with children) (2)
- ○ partnered, married, civil union or living with a partner (no children) (3)
- ○ partnered, married, civil union or living with a partner (with children) (4)

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (4)	Somewhat Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
I would feel at a loss if I were forced to reduce up my work devotion due to external commitments (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am totally committed to my work (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am the type of person who is fully committed to and always available for my work (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am always available for my work (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think of myself as a worker who can devote my energy and attention primarily to my work role (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am extremely devoted to my work (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (4)	Somewhat Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
The most important things that happen in life involve family (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Family is something people should get involved in most of the time (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Family should be only a small part of one's life (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Family should be considered central to life (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be family-oriented (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in family (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

This section seeks to gather your views about your attitudes towards and utilization of flexible work arrangements. If you have more than one job please consider the one in which you work the most hours.

Flextime is when you determine the days/times that you work, on a schedule that differs from the organisation's normal work hours. Please indicate your feelings about flextime below.

Flextime is:

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Bad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Good
Unpleasant	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Pleasant
Unfavourable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Favourable
Undesirable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Desirable

Flexplace is where you work from a location that differs from the organisation's designated office, or from home. Please indicate your feeling about flexplace below.

Flexplace is:

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Bad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Good
Unpleasant	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Pleasant
Unfavourable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Favourable
Undesirable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Desirable

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Somewhat Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Somewhat Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I characterize myself as a rescuer (1)	○	○	○	○	○
It is difficult to tell friend or family I cannot help (2)	○	○	○	○	○
I find it easier to care for others than myself (3)	○	○	○	○	○
It is my responsibility to be helpful to family and friends (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Friends frequently turn to me when they have problems (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Colleagues generally turn to me when they have problems (6)	○	○	○	○	○
I have heard from others that I’m a natural caregiver (7)	○	○	○	○	○
I regularly help family members with problems (8)	○	○	○	○	○

Appendix B

MONASH University

Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee

Approval Certificate

This is to certify that the project below was considered by the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Committee was satisfied that the proposal meets the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* and has granted approval.

Project ID: 17926
Project Title: How does Role Identity Impact Employee Attitudes to Utilisation of Flexible Work Arrangements
Chief Investigator: Assoc Professor Ross Donohue
Approval Date: 14/05/2019
Expiry Date: 14/05/2024

Terms of approval - failure to comply with the terms below is in breach of your approval and the *Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research*.

1. The Chief Investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation.
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must include your project number.
6. Amendments to approved projects including changes to personnel must not commence without written approval from MUHREC.
7. Annual Report - continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report.
8. Final Report - should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected completion date.
9. Monitoring - project may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
10. Retention and storage of data - The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of the original data pertaining to the project for a minimum period of five years.

Kind Regards,

Professor Nip Thomson

Chair, MUHREC

CC: Mr Frank Bentley, Assoc Professor Brian Cooper

List of approved documents:

Document Type	File Name	Date	Version
Explanatory Statement	explanatory-statement-Frank Bentley 110519	11/05/2019	final
Questionnaires / Surveys	Draft questionnaire 110519	11/05/2019	Final
Supporting Documentation	Panels Quote - knowledge workers - Frank Bentley	11/05/2019	Final

Appendix C

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

Project title: How does role identity impact employee attitudes towards utilisation of flexible work arrangements

My name is Frank Bentley and I am conducting a research project as part of my PhD studies under the supervision of Associate Professor Ross Donohue and Associate Professor Brian Cooper from the Department of Management at Monash University. You are invited to take part in a study examining how role identity relates to employee attitudes towards utilisation of flexible work arrangements. This research is significant and topical, given current workplace trends and warrants examination given its prevalence and relevance to identity, family and workplace research.

This study involves completing a two-stage anonymous online survey. The first survey will require approximately 15 minutes of your time, while the follow-up survey will be sent 3 months post-completion of the first and will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Participation in both surveys is voluntary, but it will not be possible to withdraw from each stage once the survey has been submitted. Please be assured that all information will be treated with strictest confidentiality. Data collected will be securely stored in accordance with Monash University regulations and destroyed five years following completion of the project**.** If you would like to be informed of the aggregate research findings, please contact Frank Bentley via the following email address: fwben1@student.monash.edu

Sincerely,

Frank Bentley
Ph.D. Candidate
Monash University Australia

If you would like to contact the researchers about any aspect of this study, please contact the Chief Investigator	If you have a complaint concerning the manner in which this research is being conducted, please contact Dr. Souheir Houssami
Associate Professor Ross Donohue (Supervisor) Room 14, Caulfield Building N7, Level 7, Department of Management Monash University Australia 900 Dandenong Rd, Caulfield East, VIC 3145 Telephone (office): +61 3 990 31548 Email: ross.donohue@monash.edu	**Dr. Souheir HOUSSAMI (**Executive Officer) Room 111, Chancellery Building E, Level 1, 24 Sports Walk, Monash Research Office, Clayton Campus, Monash University, VIC 3800 Telephone (office): +61 3 990 52052 Email: souheir.houssami@monash.edu

Appendix D

T2 survey Feb 2020

The aim of this research is to investigate how employee identity may impact utilization of flexible work arrangements. The questionnaire should take about 5 minutes to complete and is completely confidential.

Directions: Please indicate your response by selecting the most appropriate option. To move to the next page simply click on the '→', and for moving to the previous page click the '←' at the bottom of each screen.

You do not need to complete this in one sitting you can log out and your answers will be saved until you visit the survey again on the same computer, tablet or smartphone.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

If you would like to be informed of the research findings, please contact fwben1@student.monash.edu

This section contains a few preliminary questions.

Does your organisation have more than 100 employees?

- ○ Yes (1)
- ○ No (2)

Which of the following best describes your occupation?

- ○ Professional (1)
- ○ Manager (2)
- ○ Other (3)

This section seeks to gather your views about your attitudes towards and utilization of flexible work arrangements. If you have more than one job please consider the one in which you work the most hours.

Flextime is when you determine the days/times that you work, on a schedule that differs from the organisation's normal work hours. Please indicate your feelings about flextime below.

Flextime is:

	1 1 (1)	2 2 (2)	3 3 (3)	4 4 (4)	5 5 (5)	6 6 (6)	7 7 (7)	
Bad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Good
Unpleasant	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Pleasant
Unfavourable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Favourable
Undesirable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Desirable

Flexplace is where you work from a location that differs from the organisation's designated office, or from home. Please indicate your feeling about flexplace below.

Flexplace is:

	1 1 (1)	2 2 (2)	3 3 (3)	4 4 (4)	5 5 (5)	6 6 (6)	7 7 (7)	
Bad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Good
Unpleasant	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Pleasant
Unfavourable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Favourable
Undesirable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Desirable

Have you previously or are you currently using any of the following forms of flexible work arrangements in your job? (you can select more than one option if appropriate)

- [ ] Flexplace (where you work from a location that differs from the organisation's designated office, or from home) (1)
- [ ] Flextime (wherein you determine the days/times that you work, on a schedule that differs from the organisation's normal work hours (2)
- [ ] Job Sharing (3)
- [ ] Part Time (less than 35 hours per week) (4)
- [ ] Other (pleased specify) (5) _____

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Somewhat Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Somewhat Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Female colleagues who have young or school-aged children are considered to be less committed to their careers than colleagues who are not mothers. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Male colleagues who have young or school-aged children are considered to be less committed to their careers than colleagues who are not fathers. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
My colleagues who choose to use formal or informal arrangements for work–life balance, the use of such arrangements often has negative consequences for their careers. (3)	○	○	○	○	○

Have you previously or are you currently using any of the following forms of flexible work arrangements? (you can select more than one option if appropriate)

- [ ] Flexplace (where you work from a location that differs from the organisation's designated office, or from home) (1)
- [ ] Flextime (where you determine the days/times that you work, on a schedule that differs from the organisation's normal work hours (2)
- [ ] Job Sharing (3)
- [ ] Part Time (less than 35 hours per week) (4)
- [ ] Other (pleased specify) (5) _____

How long have you been employed by your current employer (if you have more than one job, please consider the one in which you work the most hours)?

- ○ less than 1 year (1)
- ○ 1-2 years (2)
- ○ 2-5 years (3)
- ○ 5-10 years (4)
- ○ 10+ years (5)

Which of the following best describes your current employment status?

- ○ Permanent position (1)
- ○ Fixed term position (2)
- ○ Casual position (3)
- ○ Other (please specify) (4) _____

Which of the following best describes your hours of work?

- ○ Full Time (35 + hours per week) (1)
- ○ Part Time (less than 35 hours per week) (2)

Which of the following best describes your job level?

- ○ Executive Management (1)
- ○ Senior Manager (2)
- ○ Manager (3)
- ○ Team Leader (4)
- ○ Non-managerial employee (5)

What is your age?

- ○ Less than 25 years (1)
- ○ 26 -35 (2)
- ○ 36 -45 (3)
- ○ 46 - 55 (4)
- ○ 56 - 65 (5)
- ○ 66+ years (6)

What is your gender?

- ○ Male (1)
- ○ Female (2)
- ○ Other (3)

Which of the following best describes you?

- ○ Single (no children) (1)
- ○ Single (with children) (2)
- ○ Partnered or married with no children (3)
- ○ Partnered or married with with children (4)

Appendix E

Sample Factor Analysis Output (ideal worker identity)

Correlation Matrix

		idi1	idi2	idi3	idi4	idi5
Correlation	idi1	1.000	.448	.425	.392	.463
	idi2	.448	1.000	.632	.626	.721
	idi3	.425	.632	1.000	.712	.658
	idi4	.392	.626	.712	1.000	.725
	idi5	.463	.721	.658	.725	1.000

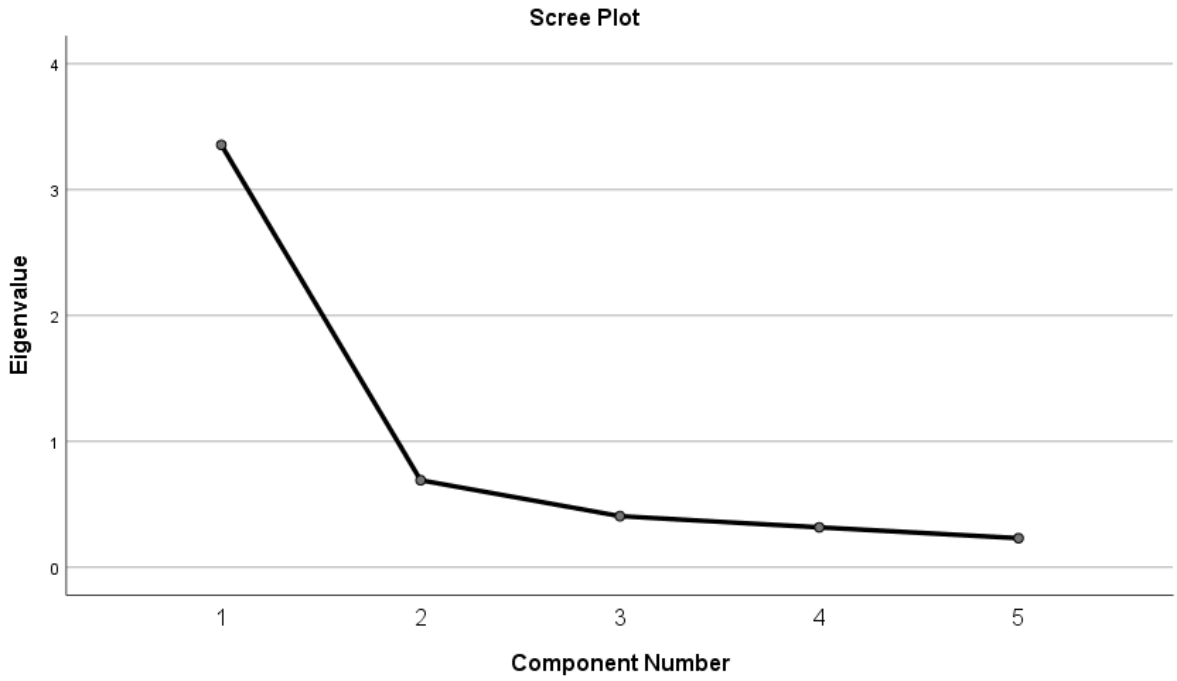
KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.851
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2791.055
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.355	67.098	67.098	3.355	67.098	67.098
2	.691	13.823	80.921			
3	.406	8.119	89.040			
4	.317	6.340	95.380			
5	.231	4.620	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



Component Matrix[a]

	Component 1
idi5	.885
idi4	.859
idi3	.848
idi2	.847
idi1	.631

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.