CLARIFYING THE CONSTRUCT OF FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISORY BEHAVIORS (FSSB): A MULTILEVEL PERSPECTIVE☆

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ABSTRACT

The goal of this chapter is to present new ways of conceptualizing family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB), and to present a multilevel model reviewing variables that are linked to this construct. We begin the chapter with an overview of the U.S. labor market's rising work–family demands, followed by our multilevel conceptual model of the pathways between FSSB and health, safety, work, and family outcomes for employees. A detailed discussion of the critical role of FSSB is then provided, followed by a discussion of the outcome relationships for employees. We then present our work on the conceptual development of FSSB, drawing from the literature and from focus group data. We end the chapter with a discussion of the practical implications related to our

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model and conceptual development of FSSB, as well as a discussion of implications for future research.

U.S. LABOR MARKET'S RISING WORK–FAMILY DEMANDS

Over recent decades, employee workplace and family relationships have become transformed. For example, in 1950, for every 100 working adults there were 57 adults providing back-up domestic services (child care and elder care, household, daily meal preparation, etc.) (Bianchi & Raley, 2005; Toosi, 2002). Today that number is reduced to 28 per 100 adults, which means more family demands have shifted onto workers and more workers lack strong domestic supports. Similarly, the U.S. Census Bureau shows that in 2000, 78% of mothers with children under 18 were employed, up from 45% in 1965 (Bianchi & Raley, 2005), and the percentage of employees who report having elder care responsibilities within the previous year increased from 25% in 1997 (Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1998) to 35% in 2002 (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2003) based on the Families and Work Institute's National Study of the Changing Workforce (NSCW). These workforce shifts have dramatically altered the nature of the employee population that has dependents. For example, one-fifth of all workers with children under 18 are single parents (approximately 5% male, 16% female), and 40% of households comprise dual-earner parents (Bianchi & Raley, 2005). Similar statistics are reported by other studies. The NSCW reports that in 2002, 78% of working couples were dual earner; 22% single earner, compared with 66% and 34%, respectively, in 1997 (Bond et al., 2003). Finally, a national study by Neal and Hammer (2007) found that between 9% and 13% of American households with one or more persons aged 30–60 comprised dual-earner couples caring for both children and aging parents. The implications of these labor market demographic shifts are that there is a rise in the need for employees to simultaneously manage the demands of both work and family.

Not only has the nature of the workforce changed but job demands have also risen. The NSCW shows that over the past 25 years between 1977 and 2002, the total work hours of all dual-earner couples with children under 18 years old at home increased an average of an additional 10 hours per week – from 81 to 91 hours (Bond et al., 2003). Companies are cutting pensions and increasing healthcare burdens on employees, heightening the need for

employees to work later in life as well as becoming more fearful of being downsized and being unable to provide economically for the family. These work pressures and fears of job loss have further contributed to conflicts between managing work and family (Jansen, Kant, Kristenson, & Nijhuis, 2003; Sahibzada, 2006). Furthermore, with recent shifts to a service-based economy, more people are working nonstandard hours around the clock requiring them to structure family events and responsibilities around these atypical hours of work. And finally, the NCSW reports that two-thirds (67%) of employed parents believe they do not have enough time with their children, and over half of all employees indicate that they do not have enough time for their spouses (63%) or themselves (55%) (Galinsky, Bond & Hill, 2004).

With these changes in the demographics of the workforce and the actual nature of work, we have seen a trend for U.S. employers to make a concerted effort to adopt policies and practices that directly support working families (e.g., Lobel & Kossek, 1996). Unfortunately, however, U.S. public policy has not kept pace with the rest of the industrialized world when it comes to providing support for working families. For example, despite the fact that the U.S. Women's Bureau began campaigning for paid maternity leave in the 1940s (Boris & Lewis, 2006), we are the only industrialized country to not provide such national support today. Furthermore, because the support at the national level in the U.S. pales in comparison to other industrialized nations, families rely on family-supportive workplaces to enable them to manage the dual responsibilities of work and family (e.g., Boris & Lewis, 2006; Hammer, Cullen, & Shafiro, 2006; Kelly, 2006). Still today, over 80% of U.S. corporations have less than 100 employees (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2001), and thus may be less likely to provide formal family-friendly supports (e.g., dependent care resource and referrals, alternative work arrangements), as size of company is positively related to provision of such supports (Hammer et al., 2006).

OVERVIEW OF CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISOR BEHAVIORS

We present a multilevel conceptual model that links organizational policies, practices, and culture with supervisory behaviors and with employee perceptions of support and experiences of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment (see Fig. 1). Work–family conflict is defined as a type of interrole conflict where work and family roles are incompatible (Greenhaus

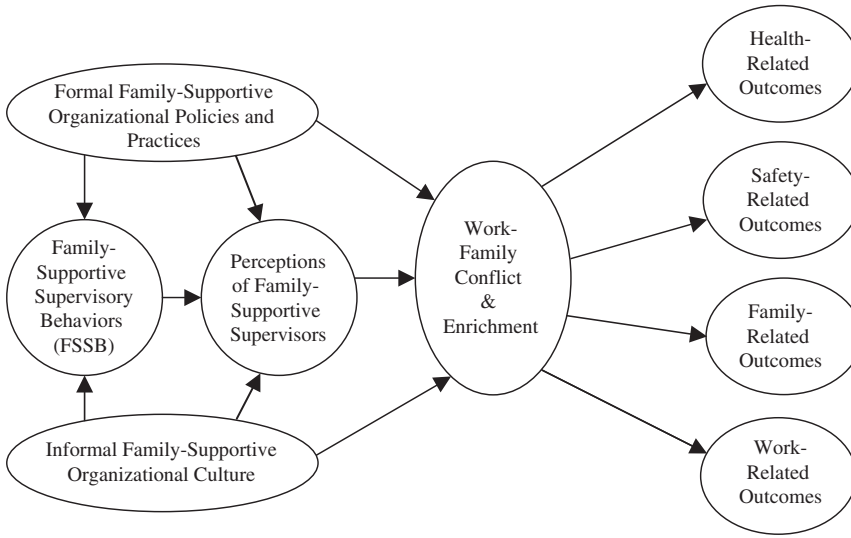

Fig. 1. A Multilevel Conceptual Model of Pathways Between Family-Supportive Supervisory Behaviors, Perceptions of Supervisory Support, and Health, Safety, Family and Work.

& Beutell, 1985), while work–family enrichment refers to the beneficial relationship between work and family roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Work–family conflict and work–family enrichment are further related to individual level, family level, and organizational level safety, health, family, and work outcomes. We employ a systems view by taking the organizational context into consideration when attempting to understand factors that contribute to family-supportive supervisory behaviors. Further expanding on the systems concept, we suggest that the organizational context impacts not only family-supportive supervisory behaviors, but also employee responses to such support from supervisors. Specifically, we expect that managers, who exhibit higher levels of behaviors that are supportive of work and family, will be perceived by employees as being more supportive than managers who do not exhibit such behaviors, and that employee perceptions of, and reactions to, family-supportive supervisors will be influenced by the family-supportive organizational context. Workers who are supervised by these managers will in turn, experience lower levels of work–family conflict and higher levels of work–family enrichment that will ultimately impact individual, family, and organizational well-being.

CRITICAL ROLE OF FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISORY BEHAVIORS

While there has been a trend toward greater organizational adoption of formal family-supportive policies, reviews suggest that the existence of such policies is a necessary but insufficient condition to alleviate workers' rising work and family demands and needs for greater flexibility (Allen, 2001; Kossek, 2005). Reviews also suggest there is much to be learned regarding how to make these supports work well and to increase their usability (Eaton, 2003; Kossek & Lambert, 2005). This is because workplace climates and cultures are often slow to adapt to support new ways of working (Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001; Thompson, Beauvis, & Lyness, 1999). Furthermore, most workplaces offer supports related to work hours, scheduling, and flexibility based on formalized discretion of supervisors. Supervisors generally are given wide latitude over whether to approve employee use of available policies or informal practices related to working time and their decisions are influenced by organizational-level factors such as the work–family culture and climate. Given the key role of supervisors in enacting formal organizational policy implementation and informal practice, the study of supervisor support for work and family is critical to the understanding of how to effectively implement work and family policies in employing organizations (Hopkins, 2005).

We see the supervisor as the linking pin between the availability of formal family-supportive organizational policies and practices, such as (dependent care supports, healthcare, alternative work arrangements, adequate compensation) and informal family-supportive organizational culture and climate defined as: "the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives" (Thompson, Beauvis, & Lyness, 1999, p. 394). It is expected that both sets of these organizational level factors (i.e., formal and informal organizational support for family) influence the way that supervisors interpret and enact policies and practices within the organization, resulting in family-supportive supervisory behaviors (FSSB). Thus, the enacted FSSB are a function of these organizational-level factors. Differing supervisor–organizational level dynamics exist at the intersection of formal policy adoption and supervisor policy interpretation and implementation.

We believe then that employees' perceptions of supervisor support for family are influenced directly by three factors: (1) the availability of formal

policies and practices related to organizational support for family, (2) informal family-supportive organizational climate and culture, and (3) FSSB. The first two factors have been supported by previous research, and the third factor is newly presented here. Our model advances the field by integrating these three factors, which previously generally have been examined in isolation. While the actual direction of these relationships is still inconclusive due to a lack of longitudinal studies, the relationship between availability of formal policies and practices and employee perceptions of supervisor support, as well as the relationship between informal family-supportive organizational culture and employee perceptions of supervisor support for family has been found (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). We propose that employee perceptions of supervisor support for family are also influenced by FSSB.

This model presents a multilevel analysis of the relationships in that the family-supportive *organizational level* factors (climate–culture and policies–practices) are expected to impact family-supportive *supervisory level* factors (i.e., FSSB). In turn, supervisory level FSSB is expected to influence *employee level* perceptions of supervisor support for family and employee reports of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment. Ultimately, employee experiences of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment are expected to impact *individual*, *family*, and *organizational level* outcomes.

SUPPORT FOR WORK AND FAMILY: ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL AND SUPERVISORY LEVEL FACTORS

Family-supportive organizational policies are designed to provide assistance to employees coping with competing demands of work and family. Examples of family-supportive organizational policies include dependent care, flextime, and telecommuting (e.g., Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005b; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), while family-supportive practices include the conditions of work such as pay and benefits that support working families. Family-supportive organizational policies and practices have been designed to reduce the negative effects of work–family stress and conflict on employee health and well-being.

Despite increased employer interest in work and family, reviews suggest work and family policies have not been highly effective in reducing work–family conflict and improving worker health and well-being (Kossek, 2005).

Even when available, family-supportive policies such as dependent care assistance are underutilized (Kossek, 2005), have low-baseline utilization rates, and use can be associated with higher, rather than lower, work and family conflict, specifically family-to-work conflict (Hammer et al., 2005b). Employees may be worried about negative supervisory repercussions as result of use (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999) or they may simply not be aware that such policies and supports even exist in their organization (Neal & Hammer, 2007). We do know that when managers provide an example and make visible to others that flexible work arrangements are practical options, employees are more likely to use such schedules themselves (Kossek, Barber, & Winters, 1999).

Furthermore, it has been found that these types of organizational policies, which are initiated to help employees meet family responsibilities, have not always had the desired impact of reducing levels of work–family conflict (Hammer et al., 2005b; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). In fact, employees often perceive that employers encourage workers to devote themselves to their work at the expense of other life domains (Lobel & Kossek, 1996). This is a critical point, as the implementation of family-friendly benefits may not have the effect intended if employees do not perceive the environment of the organization hospitable to their efforts to seek balance between their work and nonwork lives (Allen, 2001). A large part of perceiving that an organization values this balance is to have a supervisor who employees feel is supportive of these organizational policies and understanding of the issues related to work-life balance. Thus, employees who perceive the organization and their supervisor as family-supportive should feel more comfortable utilizing available benefits (Allen, 2001).

Moreover, higher levels of perceived organizational support for family has beneficial effects on employee attitudes and behaviors and these effects seem to occur over and above the effects of use of supports (e.g., Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). Specifically, reviews suggest perceptions of whether one's workplace is family-supportive has a stronger correlation with work and family well-being than objective measures of work–family support such as the availability of policies (e.g., Allen, 2001). Similarly, perceptions of a positive work–family culture are significantly and positively related to affective commitment, and utilization of work–family benefits is negatively related to intentions to quit and work–family conflict (Thompson et al., 1999).

We believe that there is a need for greater conceptual clarity related to three types of supports (i.e., formal and informal organizational supports for family and supervisory support for family). While it appears that

formal organizational family supports may be beneficial for employees (e.g., Thomas & Ganster, 1995), there is also a need for an informal supportive work–family culture (e.g., Thompson et al., 1999). However, at times this construct of a supportive work–family culture gets intertwined with the concept of supervisor support. In fact, the measure (Thompson et al., 1999) of work–family culture includes a dimension of perceived managerial support for family. This is a level of analysis issue, as we expect there to be a significant relationship between the informal support for family and supervisor support for family, but we see them as separate constructs; one an organizational level construct the other a supervisor level construct. Specifically, a family-supportive organizational culture will influence a supervisor to behave in supportive ways. In addition, it is up to the supervisor to decide if he or she will take on and embrace the organizational work–family culture. Thus, we see a need for researchers to tease these two constructs apart in the hopes of better understanding the practical implications of being a supportive supervisor versus having a supportive organizational culture. This will enable better practical applications leading to potential training and instruction of supervisors related to ways they can be more supportive of their employees' work and family management strategies.

Evidence exists suggesting that when the work–family culture is not supportive, use of formal supports does not have as strong of an impact on an employee's work–family conflict and other health and work outcomes, compared to when the culture is supportive (Allen, 2001; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 1999). As clearly stated by O'Driscoll et al. (2003, p. 340) in response to their findings of significant effects for work and family culture over that of availability of formal policies:

> Hence, although many organizations may introduce these initiatives as mechanisms for reducing strain among their employees, the policies by themselves may be insufficient to generate significant stress reduction in this area (Thompson et al., 1999). Rather, development of an organizational culture that is perceived to be supportive of work and family balance may be a necessary condition for the alleviation of work and family conflict and related negative effects.

While certainly formal organizational supports for family are important to adopt, supervisory support for family is extremely important when considering workers' ability to manage work and family. The supportive supervisor is one who empathizes with the employee's desire to seek balance between work and family responsibilities (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). This support might include accommodating an employee's flexible schedule, being tolerant of short personal phone calls after school, granting a time trade

so that new elder-care arrangements can be monitored, allowing one to bring a child to work on a snow day, or even offering a kind word when the babysitter quits (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Although some studies find the implementation of workplace supports to be associated with positive outcomes, research also demonstrates that an unsupportive organizational culture may undermine the effectiveness of such programs (Thompson, Thomas, & Maier, 1992). Thus, evidence exists suggesting the moderating effects of work–family culture (in which supervisor support is a critical component) on the relationship between use of supports and beneficial employee outcomes. More specifically, when the work–family culture is not supportive, use of formal supports does not have as significant of an impact on employee's work–family conflict, and other health and work outcomes, as when the culture is supportive (Allen, 2001; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 1999). As Kossek (2005) asserts, even if supportive benefits or policies exist, unsupportive supervisors have the ability to offset the intended effects of these benefits and policies. On the other hand, supervisors can provide a social resource for utilization of work–family policies, and even assist in inoculating employees against some of the negative effects, such as effects on advancement in the company, that prevent policy use (Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2002).

Below we review the literature in a manner that is organized by the different pathways presented in Fig. 1. Additionally, because FSSB is a new integrative construct, we provide four initial propositions about its relationships with three constructs in our model.

Proposition 1. We expect a positive relationship between the availability of formal family-supportive organizational policies and practices and level of FSSB.

Proposition 2. We expect a positive relationship between the degree to which the organizational culture is supportive of family and the level of FSSB.

Proposition 3. We expect a positive relationship between the level of FSSB and employee perceptions of supervisor support for family.

Proposition 4. We expect that formal and informal family-supportive organizational culture, as well as FSSB, will be positively related to employee perceptions of supervisor support for family.

It is further expected that employee perceptions of supervisor support would lead to decreased work–family conflict (e.g., Carlson & Perrewe,

1999) and increased work–family enrichment. Ultimately, we expect that this increased work–family enrichment and decreased work and family conflict will lead to a host of health-related, safety-related, family-related, and work-related outcomes as described below in more detail.

WORK–FAMILY CONFLICT AND WORK–FAMILY ENRICHMENT

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) proposed three sources of work–family conflict: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict. Time-based conflict arises when time pressures in one role restrict the amount of time that can be devoted to the other role. According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), antecedents of time-based conflict include number of hours worked per week, inflexibility with one's work schedule, and the number and age of dependent children at home. Strain-based conflict arises when strain in one role (e.g., family) affects successful performance of role responsibilities in another (e.g., work). Examples of strain-based conflict include role ambiguity, poor supervisory support, family disagreement about gender roles, and absence of familial or spousal support. Behavior-based conflict, the most infrequently studied form of conflict, arises when patterns of behavior in one role are incompatible with behaviors in another. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggest that these pressures will be experienced as stressful only to the degree that the individual experiences negative consequences for not meeting role demands.

Meta-analyses show that work–family conflict is significantly correlated with higher work stress, family stress, turnover intentions, substance abuse, and lower satisfaction (i.e., family, marital, job, and life), organizational commitment, and performance (e.g., Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Research also suggests that unpredictability in work routines promotes work–family conflict, given that work variability and working weekends or rotating shifts both relate to higher conflict (Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Shamir, 1983). In addition, conflict is higher among individuals who work a greater number of hours or longer days (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999).

Research in the work–family domain has also emphasized the importance of distinguishing between the two directions of work–family conflict in which work interferes with family (work-to-family conflict) as well as

family interferences with work (family-to-work conflict) (e.g., Greenhaus, Allen, & Spector, in press). Literature suggests that work interference with family may have different antecedents and outcomes than family interference with work, with work-related demands being most often associated with work-to-family conflict and family-related demands being most often associated with family-to-work conflict (e.g., Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Finally, recent research has also linked family-to-work conflict to self reports of safety compliance and safety participation, demonstrating that higher levels of conflict are related to lower levels of safety (Cullen & Hammer, in press).

While work–family research in the industrial–organizational and organizational behavior literature has typically focused on work–family conflict and the difficulties associated with combining the two roles (e.g., Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005), there is a growing awareness, however, that work and family roles may have beneficial and reciprocal effects on one another and that focusing heavily on work–family conflict has left a gap in our understanding of the work–family interface (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002; Rothbard, 2001; Voydanoff, 2004). These ideas about the benefits of combining multiple roles originated in the earlier work of Sieber (1974) and others (e.g., Marks, 1977; Thoits, 1983). More recently, constructs such as work–family positive spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hanson, Hammer, & Colton, 2006), work–family facilitation (Grzywacz, 2000a), and work–family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) have been introduced to describe the theoretical relationships and associated mechanisms that enable work and family to benefit one another. We use the term work–family enrichment to represent those beneficial relationships between work and family, consistent with Greenhaus and Powell (2006).

To date, very little research has examined the outcomes of work–family enrichment. The research that does exist has linked positive spillover to health and role satisfaction (Crouter, 1984; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Pavalko & Smith, 1999; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2004). For example, research by Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, and Shafiro (2005a) has demonstrated significant longitudinal crossover relationships between work and family positive spillover experienced by a spouse and an individual's experience of depressive symptoms one year later. We would argue that social support from one's supervisor is likely to improve positive spillover between work and family as it provides an additional resource to workers that enhances the relationship between work and family.

WORK–FAMILY CONFLICT/ENRICHMENT AND HEALTH OUTCOMES

As for the effects on health, we expect that decreased work–family conflict and the potential associated increased work–family enrichment will be associated with decreased depressive symptoms (Frone, 2000; Hammer et al., 2005a), and improved physical health (Allen & Armstrong, 2006; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997; Greenhaus et al., in press). We would expect that over time, the effects of work–family conflict to be consistent with other types of chronic stressors and result in such negative outcomes as cardiovascular disease, and most notably high blood pressure (e.g., Landsbergis, Schnall, Belkic, Baker, Schwartz, & Pickering, 2002).

It has been shown that work-to-family conflict predicted greater depression, physical health complaints, and hypertension whereas family-to-work conflict predicted greater alcohol consumption (Frone et al., 1997). Frone (2000) found both family-to-work conflict and work-to-family conflict to be positively related to anxiety disorders, mood disorders, and substance abuse disorders. Specifically, Frone (2000) found that individuals experiencing work-to-family conflict were 3.13 times more likely to have a mood disorder, 2.46 more likely to have an anxiety disorder, and 1.99 times more likely to experience a substance disorder than were individuals who were not experiencing this type of conflict. Individuals experiencing family-to-work conflict were 29.66 times more likely to have a mood disorder, 9.49 times more likely to have an anxiety disorder, and 11.36 times more likely to have a substance dependence than individuals not experiencing this type of stress. These results show the critical impact of the work–family interface on employee well-being.

Several other studies have found links between work–family conflict and mental health outcomes. For example, Burke and Greenglass (1999) found that work–family conflict was related to greater psychological distress. A number of studies examined relationships between work–family conflict and depression with most, but not all, of these studies assessing depressive mood or symptoms rather than a clinical depressive disorder (Greenhaus et al., in press). Studies provide evidence that employees who experience high work–family conflict also experience elevated levels of depression and both directions of the work family interface are associated with this depression (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1991; Hammer et al., 2005a; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

In addition to the psychological health outcomes that are associated with work-family conflict are the physical outcomes individuals experience as a result of role interference. Some research has studied physical health in the context of conditions such as blood pressure, hypertension, cholesterol level,

and coritsol levels. Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that both directional measures of work–family conflict were positively related to diastolic blood pressure level, whereas Frone et al. (1997) found that family-to-work conflict but not work-to-family conflict, was associated with hypertension. Thomas and Ganster (1995) also reported higher levels of cholesterol for individuals experiencing extensive work-to-family conflict. These findings suggest a link between physical health and work–family responsibility.

Stress-related outcomes are also important health outcomes associated with work–family conflict. Both physical and psychological stressors within work and nonwork domains have been examined. For example, increased work–family conflict is related to increased job burnout (Greenglass & Burke, 1988; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996), quality of work life (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991), and increased job and family distress (Frone et al., 1997).

Grzywacz (2000b) found that there are different forms of positive spillover between work and family that are associated with better physical health and psychological well-being among midlife adults. Specifically, it was found that positive spillover between work and family may be particularly important for mental and psychological well-being, whereas negative spillover between work and family may be particularly detrimental to physical health. Work–family positive spillover was shown to be more strongly related to depression than work–family conflict (Hammer et al., 2005a). In addition, it has been shown that there are significant crossover effects of spouses' positive spillover on decreasing depression (Hammer et al., 2005a).

Research examining the relationship between work–family conflict and general health outcomes has grown out of several general models of job stress. Studies show that job distress is predictive of both affective and physiological symptoms of ill-health (Frone et al., 1992; Greenglass, Burke, & Ondrack, 1990). The inability to cope with distress is seeded in symptoms of psychological withdrawal and shutting down of physiological functions. Affective and physiological symptoms have also been linked to the quality of the marital role, the degree of marital satisfaction, and the extent of marital distress (Frone et al, 1992).

WORK–FAMILY CONFLICT/ENRICHMENT AND SAFETY OUTCOMES

An understudied but exciting new area ripe for future research that we identify in our model is linkages between work–family conflict and work–family enrichment and safety outcomes. Drawing from models of job

insecurity and safety motivation (e.g., Probst & Brubaker, 2001), we expect that if we decrease stress of workers as result of increasing managers' support for work and family, not only will work–family conflict decrease, but we will also see increases in safety motivation and safety knowledge. The theoretical reasoning for this relationship is that workers who are experiencing high levels of work–family conflict are more stressed, and in turn are not able to concentrate on doing their jobs as effectively because of limited resources (e.g., Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, we would expect that higher levels of work and family conflict are associated with lower levels of safety compliance motivation and safety knowledge. This in turn would be related to higher levels of accidents and injuries on-the-job. By decreasing work–family conflict through managerial behavioral training, we expect that over time workers will report higher levels of safety motivation and knowledge.

Cullen and Hammer (in press) found that family interference with work was related to both safety participation and safety compliance. Specifically, the more family-to-work conflict healthcare workers report, the less likely they are to partake in safety-related activities. Family-to-work conflict reduces employees' compliance to safety rules and their devotion of discretionary time and energy toward safety activities primarily by reducing their safety. Other studies have also demonstrated the ways in which occupational stressors can impact workplace safety. For example, Probst (2002) demonstrated how threats of job layoffs result in more safety violations at work, and Hemingway and Smith (1999) documented how role ambiguity among nurses is associated with injuries at work. Both of these studies highlight the importance of considering specific work-related stressors, rather than just overall job stress, when examining workplace safety behaviors.

In addition, in some preliminary research using a construction-worker population, Chen, Rosecrance and Hammer (2006) further demonstrated a link between work-to-family conflict and the frequencies of injuries noted by construction workers. We know of no research that has linked work–family enrichment and safety outcomes.

WORK–FAMILY CONFLICT/ENRICHMENT AND FAMILY OUTCOMES

It is well known that stress produced within the work role may have dysfunctional consequences for one's nonwork life (Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988). In general, research has shown that greater levels of work–family

conflict are associated with lower levels of reported life satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 1996; O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992). It has been suggested that as people have come to expect more balance, they may experience more dissatisfaction with their life when that sense of balance is violated (Allen et al., 2000).

The relation between work–family conflict and marital satisfaction has shown somewhat mixed results (Aryee, 1992; Duxbury et al., 1996; Parasuraman et al., 1989), however, most of the support suggests that work–family conflict is related to higher levels of marital discord or lower levels of marital satisfaction (e.g., Neal & Hammer, 2007). Research has also examined the relationship between work–family conflict and family satisfaction, demonstrating a general negative relationship (Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999). Only one known study, that of Brockwood (2002), found that increased work-to-family positive spillover was associated with higher family satisfaction after accounting for family role quality and negative affectivity.

Additionally, research on crossover effects has shown that both work–family conflict and work–family enrichment impact spouses' well-being (Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997; Hammer et al., 2005a). We believe that expanding the outcomes of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment to the broader family context provides for a more complete understanding of the work–family interface.

WORK–FAMILY CONFLICT/ENRICHMENT AND WORK OUTCOMES

In addition to the family-related consequences associated with work–family conflict and work–family enrichment are the work outcomes resulting in various consequences for individuals and organizations (see Eby et al., 2005 for a review). Job satisfaction is the individual outcome variable that has attracted the most research attention. Although the results have been mixed, the majority of studies have found that as work–family conflict increases, job satisfaction decreases (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Allen et al., 2000).

Organizational commitment is another work-related variable that has been studied in association with work–family conflict, demonstrating a negative relationship (Ayree, 1992; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Lyness and Thompson (1997) examined three different types of commitment and found that work–family conflict was negatively related to

affective commitment, positively related to continuance commitment, and not related to normative commitment.

Work–family conflict is also related to greater turnover intentions (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001; Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Netemeyer et al., 1996) as well as lower career satisfaction (Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002). In fact, Allen et al. (2000) revealed that intention to turnover was the work-related variable most highly related to work–family conflict, which suggests that a common response to a high degree of work–family conflict may be a desire to flee the situation and thus, employees may choose to seek alternative employment with organizations that offer environments that are more supportive of work–nonwork balance.

There has been some inconsistency in regards to the relationship between work–family conflict and absenteeism. Using a study of healthcare workers, Thomas and Ganster (1995) did not find a relationship between work–family conflict and self-reported absenteeism. On the other hand, Goff, Mount, and Jamison (1990) found that work–family conflict was significantly related to absenteeism after the implementation of onsite childcare. Kossek and Nichol (1992) also found mixed effects of use of on-site child care and absenteeism, surmising that if a child is sick, they cannot go to on-site day care which forces parents to be absent to care for them. Other research has examined at the bidirectional nature of work-family conflict and found that there was a significant relationship between family-to-work conflict and absenteeism but not between work-to-family conflict and absenteeism (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999). Finally, Hammer, Bauer, and Grandey (2003) found not only a relationship between one's own work–family conflict and self-reported absenteeism, but also crossover effects between spouses' work–family conflict and absenteeism. The relationship between work–family conflict and performance outcomes has mixed results, as well (Frone et al., 1997; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Frone et al. (1997) found a significant relationship using a multiple-item self-related measure of in-role job performance. Aryee (1992) used a four-item self-report measure of work quality and found that it was related to job-parent conflict but not to job-spouse or job-homemaker conflict. Netemeyer et al. (1996) used a multiple-item self-rated measure of sales performance and found null results. The magnitude of this relationship may depend on whether the type of work–family conflict being measured is bidirectional or unidirectional, as well as the operationalization of performance (Perrewe et al, 2003).

Given that work–family positive spillover has not been studied extensively, we are only aware of a few studies that specifically link work–family

positive spillover and work outcomes. Specifically, Brockwood (2002) and Crouter (1984) found that increased family-to-work positive spillover was associated with higher job satisfaction. In sum, our model integrates supervisor support for family as a critical resource for managing work–family conflict, and for enhancing work–family enrichment, leading to improved health, safety, family, and work outcomes. We argue that greater clarity is needed in the work–family literature on what it means to provide supervisor support for family. The next section of the paper focuses on developing and refining the concept of FSSB.

DEVELOPING THE CONSTRUCT OF FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISORY BEHAVIORS (FSSB)

We have argued that the linking pin between the formal and informal supports for family at the organizational level is the supervisor who has the ability to either enact and support, or not enact, the formal policies and practices. We believe that part of this decision regarding the degree to implement these policies and practices will depend on the informal family-supportive organizational culture and climate. However, little research exists on how managers actually go about the enactment of the formal and informal family support in organizations. It is our goal to develop and refine ideas around what it means to be a family-supportive manager who interprets, uses, and defines family-supportive organizational formal and informal supports. We believe that the manager has a large amount of discretion when it comes to being supportive of workers' work and family needs and that understanding the manager's role is necessary (Lirio, Lee, Williams, Haugen, & Kossek (2004)).

We believe it is important to discuss and differentiate these three main types of support in our model (i.e., formal organizational, informal organizational, and supervisor), as the way that many studies conceptualize them is unclear and they are not always presented as being conceptually distinct, as we believe they are. If we are going to truly influence the degree to which employers increase supervisor support for family, we need to understand the context of supervisor support and better delineate how it is measured and conceptualized. Toward this end, we discuss the dimensions of this construct and consider ways to improve its measurement. In order to understand the FSSB construct, we integrate the research on types of employer supports for family reviewed above: formal policies and practices, informal cultural support, with what we know about the conceptualization of supervisor support.

We define FSSB as being those enacted behaviors exhibited by supervisors that are supportive of families. In other words, we see FSSB as a form of instrumental support that leads to employee perceptions of emotional support from their supervisors, consistent with the similar distinction made by Perrewe, Treadway, and Hall (2003). While measures of supervisory support typically focus on emotional support, we see instrumental support as being more closely aligned with FSSB. In addition, we believe that FSSB is also related to managers recognizing the dual agenda of working families housed within organizations. Finally, parts of the behaviors that make up FSSB are related to supervisors modeling how to appropriately manage work and family roles. The research that does exist is focused specifically on emotional supervisory support and measures of such perceptions of supervisory support have been significantly related to work–family conflict in numerous studies (e.g., Baltes & Heydens-Gahir, 2000; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 2004; Fu & Shaffer 2000; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), and to work–family enrichment by Voydanoff (2004).

Our model suggests that supervisor support for family should be seen as a critical resource for managing work and family stress (cf. Hobfoll, 1989). We argue that greater clarity is needed in the work–family field about what it means to provide supervisor support for family both emotionally and behaviorally.

While we argue that the study of supervisor support for families is important, previous research has typically only measured employee self-report of general supervisor support for work and family, and to our knowledge only one measure of actual behavioral supervisor support for family exists (Shinn, Wong, Simko, & Ortiz-Torres, 1989), which only assesses one dimension of this multidimensional construct. In order to advance the field, we need theoretical models such as ours that clarify the construct of FSSB and lead to measures that more specifically operationalize what supervisors need to do to help employees manage work and family.

While most measures of family-supportive supervision (see Table 1), and more general supervisor support (see Table 2), have been based primarily on emotional support dimensions, we believe that it is important to more clearly conceptualize family-supportive supervision by identifying specific behaviors that supervisors enact. More specifically, we conducted a review of the literature to better understand how the constructs of general supervisor support and family-supportive supervision are operationalized.

Based on our review, we identified six commonly used measures of family-supportive supervision (Clark, 2001; Fernandez, 1986; Galinksy, Hughes, & Shinn, 1986; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Shinn et al., 1989) (see Table 1). In

addition, the managerial support dimension of the measure of work–family culture (Thompson, Beauvis, & Lyness, 1999) has also been used as a measure of supervisor support and is an example of how the operationalization of the two constructs (work–family culture and family-supportive supervision) have been confounded with one another. We note several characteristics of these scales that we think needs to be addressed in future conceptualizations of the construct. First, all measures are unidimensional, failing to capture what we see as the multidimensional nature of supervisor support. Second, most of the measures are more clearly characterized as representative of the emotional support dimension of supervisor support. An exception is the Shinn et al. (1989) measure which asks about the frequency of specific supervisory behaviors. To our knowledge this is the only measure of FSSB in the literature and appears to be the most commonly used of the measures, as it appears to be used in its entirety in the Thomas and Ganster (1995) study and in Allen (2001). In addition, several of the items were used in the study by Frye and Breaugh (2004). It should be noted that all of these measures are taken from the perspective of the employee, are unidimensional, and do not appear to be systematically developed. We attempt to overcome these deficiencies by clarifying the multidimensional nature of the construct and discuss the need to understand the construct from a multilevel perspective.

While many authors appear to develop idiosyncratic measures of general supervisor support specific to their own studies, we highlight the ones that appear to be the most commonly used in Table 2. Until now, research has generally included only employee self-report measures of supervisor support for work and family and has not measured actual supportive behaviors. Self-report questions have addressed supervisory support through items related to the way the supervisor cares for employees (e.g., Kinnunen & Natti, 1994) and perceptions that the supervisor values the employee's contribution (e.g., Ostroff, Kinicky, & Clark, 2002). Supervisor support has been measured by how accommodating and understanding the supervisor is (e.g., House, 1981); and other measures include the degree of career support employees receive from their immediate supervisor (e.g., Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990).

The four dimensions that we think necessary to be included in the concept of FSSB are: emotional support, instrumental support, role model behaviors, and those related to the dual agenda of how the work is structured and managing upward in the workplace. As stated earlier and as can be seen in Tables 1 and 2, the most common measures of supervisor support in general and family-supportive supervision are ones that contain emotional

Table 1. Commonly Used Family-Supportive Supervision Scales.

Clark (2001)	Scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly agree) 1. My supervisor understands my family demands. 2. My supervisor listens when I talk about my family. 3. My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member.
Fernandez (1986)	Choose between: to a great extent; to some extent; to a small extent; not at all 1. To what extent does your supervisor support you and your childcare needs? Choose between: very free; free; not very free; not at all free. 2. How free do you feel to discuss your childcare needs with your immediate supervisors?
Galinksy, Hughes, & Shinn (1986)	Scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 4 (strongly disagree) 1. My supervisor or manager is fair and doesn't show favoritism in responding to employees' personal or family needs. 2. My supervisor or manager accommodates me when I have family or personal business to take care of – e.g., medical appointments, meeting with child's teacher, etc. 3. My supervisor or manager is understanding when I talk about personal or family issues that affect my work. 4. I feel comfortable bringing up personal or family issues with my supervisor or manager.
Kossek & Nichol (1992)	Scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) 1. My supervisor makes it easy for me to deal with scheduling problems during work hours. 2. My supervisor is supportive of my need to juggle work and family responsibilities. 3. I feel free to discuss scheduling issues with my supervisor 4. My supervisor is supportive when I experience stress on the job due to work/family conflicts. 5. My supervisor is supportive when I experience stress at home due to work/family conflicts.
Shinn, Wong, Simko, & Ortiz-Torres (1989)	Scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (often). According to Thomas and Ganster (1995) respondents were asked to rate how often in the past two months one's supervisor engaged in specific supportive behaviors:

	1. Switched schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate my family responsibilities. 2. Listened to my problems. 3. Was critical of my efforts to combine work and family. (R) 4. Juggled tasks or duties to accommodate my family responsibilities. 5. Shared ideas or advice. 6. Held my family responsibilities against me. (R) 7. Helped me to figure out how to solve a problem. 8. Was understanding or sympathetic. 9. Showed resentment of my needs as a working parent. (R)
Thompson, Beauvis, & Lyness, (1999)	Scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) 1. In general, managers in this organization are quite accommodating of family-related needs. 2. Higher management in this organization encourages supervisors to be sensitive to employees' family and personal concerns. 3. Middle managers and executives in this organization are sympathetic toward employees' child care responsibilities. 4. In the event of a conflict, managers are understanding when employees have to put their family first. 5. In this organization employees are encouraged to strike a balance between their work and family lives. 6. Middle managers and executives in this organization are sympathetic toward employees' elder care responsibilities. 7. This organization is supportive of employees who want to switch to less demanding jobs for family reasons. 8. In this organization it is generally okay to talk about one's family at work. 9. In this organization employees can easily balance their work and family lives. 10. This organization encourages employees to set limits on where work stops and home life begins. 11. In this organization it is very hard to leave during the workday to take care of personal or family matters. (R)

Table 2. Commonly Used General Supportive Supervision Scales.

Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, & Pinneau (1975)	Scale ranged from 1 (not at all) to 4 (very much) 1. How much does each of these people go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you? a) Your immediate supervisor (boss). 2. How easy is it to talk with each of the following people? a) Your immediate supervisor (boss). 3. How much can each of these people be relied on when things get tough at work? a) Your immediate supervisor (boss). 4. How much is each of the following people willing to listen to your personal problems? a) Your immediate supervisor (boss).
Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley (1990)	Scale ranged from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree) 1. My supervisor takes the time to learn about my career goals and aspirations. 2. My supervisor cares about whether or not I achieve my career goals. 3. My supervisor keeps me informed about different career opportunities for me in the organization. 4. My supervisor makes sure I get the credit when I accomplish something substantial on the job. 5. My supervisor gives me helpful feedback about my performance. 6. My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it. 7. My supervisor supports my attempts to acquire additional training or education to further my career. 8. My supervisor provides assignments that give me opportunity to develop and strengthen new skills. 9. My supervisor assigns me special projects that increase my visibility in the organization.
House (1981)	Scale ranged from 0 (not at all) to 3 (very much) 1. How much can each of these people be relied on when things get tough at work: a) Your immediate supervisor (boss). 2. How much is each of the following people willing to listen to your work-related problems: a) Your immediate supervisor (boss). 3. How much is each of the following people helpful to you in getting your job done: a) Your immediate supervisor (boss).

	Please indicate how true each of the following statements is of your immediate supervisor: Scale ranged from 0 (not true at all) to 3 (very true) 1. My supervisor is competent in doing (his/her) job. 2. My supervisor is very concerned about the welfare of those under him. 3. My supervisor goes out of his way to praise good work.
Kinnunen & Natti, (1994)	Scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) 1. My supervisor supports and encourages me. 2. My supervisor rewards good efforts. 3. My supervisor is inspiring. 4. My supervisor discusses with us a lot. 5. My supervisor tells us openly all that is going on in the workplace. 6. My supervisor trusts the workers. 7. There is a lot of disagreement between me and my supervisor. (R) 8. My supervisor put the emphasis on contentment of the workers. 9. My supervisor is unconcerned about workers' feelings. (R) 10. My supervisor encourages workers to study and develop in their work. 11. My supervisor knows my tasks well.
Ostroff, Kinicky, & Clark (2002)	Scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) 1. My supervisor has the technical skills to help me do my job well. 2. My supervisor listens to me. 3. My supervisor treats me with respect. 4. The supervisor and employees work together as a team in my department. 5. My supervisor plays favorites. (R) 6. My supervisor provides me with the coaching and guidance I need to improve performance. 7. My supervisor relates to employees in a warm and sincere manner. 8. My supervisor asks for our opinions and encourages us to make suggestions that will improve performance.
Yoon & Lim (1999)	Scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) 1. My supervisor can be relied upon when things get tough on my job. 2. My supervisor is willing to listen to my job-related problems. 3. My supervisor really does not care about my well-being. (R)

support items. Emotional support generally is focused on perceptions that an individual is being cared for, that their feelings are being considered, and that they feel comfortable communicating with the source of support when needed.

Instrumental support, on the other hand, is related to more behavioral types of support for work and family in the form of scheduling and flexibility and use of policies and practices, assisting with tasks, and making changes in the time, place, and way that work is done to be accommodating to employees' work–family responsibilities. While we see this dimension of FSSB as critical, there is very little in the literature that helps in better defining this dimension. See Table 1, measure by Shinn et al. (1989) for example of the types of behaviors that would be considered part of instrumental support. Recent work by Greenhaus and Singh (in press) discusses mentoring behaviors through a "work–family lens." This novel thinking about behaviors that supervisors could and should enact to assist their employees with work–family conflicts is notable, and provides an example of the types of behaviors that should be considered when clarifying the concept of FSSB. For example, Greenhaus and Singh (in press) offer an example of a "coaching" mentoring function with an example behavior "Discuss with the protégé the work–family implications of different career strategies."

Another different type of supervisor behavior involves taking actions indicative of what work-life scholars have referred to as the "dual agenda." This is the ability to consider the implementation and redesign of work to support family demands in a manner that is win–win for both employees and employers (Rapoport, Bailyn, Fletcher, & Pruitt, 2002). In many firms, particularly those that are just beginning to experiment with the implementation of work–family policies, their use is often seen in a win–lose manner. They are seen as hurting productivity and benefiting workers more than the company or supervisor. A supervisor with a dual-agenda perspective would think about how work can be redesigned to reduce work–family conflict at the same time as productivity is increased. For example, a supervisor may support cross-training of a job to enable someone to be able to leave work every Friday afternoon to volunteer at their child's school. This not only benefits the workers who has time off on Fridays for his family, but also the company because now the company has more than one worker that can do a job and back up systems are enhanced. Kossek, Laustch, and Eaton (2006) have found that if supervisors manage teleworkers in a way that supports a dual agenda, then employees experience lower work–family conflict. We also surmised that dual-agenda behaviors may involve an ability to manage workers

in a manner that considers the larger organizational system and involves some managing upward behaviors to bring senior managers on board.

Supervisors also can exhibit role model behaviors, which we see as a fourth type of support. If they themselves do not respond to emails over the weekends or send them out at 4 a.m., then their subordinates are less likely to feel pressured to do so. Similarly, if supervisors leave work sometimes early to support family demands such as a sick child or to take care of their own health needs by exercising this sets up a role model for workers to emulate. To our knowledge, little or no research has been conducted on the effects of supervisors exhibiting role model behaviors supportive of their own families as resulting in lower work–family conflict for employees. As our empirical data from the focus groups reported below will also show, if supervisors are experiencing work-family stress, they are less likely to have the personal resources to be able to be supportive of their subordinates' work–family conflicts.

FURTHER CLARIFYING THE CONSTRUCT OF FSSB: EXPLORING EMPIRICAL FOCUS GROUP DATA

As part of the process of clarifying the construct of FSSB, we conducted four focus groups with grocery workers as well as four interviews with their district managers (DM). The four focus groups consisted of the following groups of workers: store managers (SM), department heads (DH), part-time associates (PT), and full-time associates (FT) (see Appendix A for focus group and interview questions). The first and second authors of this chapter conducted the focus groups and interviews in different northeastern cities on the same day during Fall 2005. All participants were employees of a major grocery chain consisting of non-union (SM and DM) and union employees (DH, PT, and FT). The group size ranged from 5 to 8 participants per group with a total of 28 participants in 4 focus groups. The age range was 17–73 years of age and there were 21 males and 7 females present. Demographics by group include the following.

The Part-Time group included 5 attendees with a mean age of 48.5: 2 males (40%) and 3 females (60%). Three of the five participants were married, one single and the other widowed. Two participants had children, and none of the respondents indicated providing care to aging relatives. These participants reported working on average 24.1 hours per week, and none reported having a second job.

The Department Heads' group included 8 attendees with a mean age of 36.5: 5 males (63%) and 3 females (38%). Five of the eight participants were married, one divorced. Five participants had children and two participants reported caring for aging relatives (25%). These participants reported working on average 41.63 hours per week, and none reported having a second job.

The Store Managers' group included 7 attendees, with a mean age of 48. All participants were males, and all were married. Five of the participants had children, and two participants were providing care to aging relatives (29%). These participants reported working on average 58.21 hours per week, and one reported having a second job.

The Full-Time Associates' group included 8 attendees with a mean age of 51; 4 males (50%) and 4 females (50%). Three of the eight participants were married, and one was divorced. Four of the participants had children, and two participants were providing care to aging relatives (25%). These participants reported working on average 44.13 hours per week, and one reported having a second job.

Sampling was accomplished by random selection of names from employee lists provided by the grocery chain. These employees were provided with letters of invitations to participate in focus groups on work and family and were asked to call the researchers directly so as to avoid any feelings of coercion by the employer. In addition, fliers were posted in employee break rooms inviting any workers who were interested to participate. Potential participants were then asked to call the Center for Work–Family Stress, Safety, and Health's toll-free number to confirm their attendance at the focus group. At that time we verified that they were attending the correct group based on their position in the company. Four district managers were referred to the researchers by the regional director of human resources within two regions of the company. When contacted, all four agreed to participate.

To examine family-supportive and family-unsupportive supervisor behaviors, we conducted analysis of the data using an "open-coding" approach (Strauss & Corwin, 1990) to identify the broadest possible range of focus group responses. This involved coding for supervisors' supportive and unsupportive behaviors from the perspective of each level of employee represented in the study. We extracted a total of 130 quoted behaviors that represented either family-supportive or family-unsupportive supervisor behaviors. Four independent coders coded for themes, while three coders coded specifically for quotes of behaviors.

A coding sheet was developed from a reflective memo template, which included dimensions of behavior as well as perspectives of overall company support, work-life philosophy, schedule, flexibility, work norms, business climate, human resource strategies effect, and issues of exploitation. For the purposes of this chapter, the focus will remain on the behaviors of supervisors.

Coders reviewed the analyses to determine the degree of convergence or divergence and realized a high degree of inter-rater reliability among coders of all themes (approximately 95% across raters). A reflective summary memo was then created for each group (SM, DH, PT, FT, and division manager) and then further summarized into a final rollup report. Finally, an executive summary was created which included broad highlights of the data.

Of the 130 quoted behaviors, 66 were identified as supportive and 64 as unsupportive. The following information represents the FSSB themes that were derived from the quotes, along with the number of quotes associated with each theme in parentheses.

The themes developed for FSSB include: Commuting Support (7), Being Sensitive to Employees' Work–Family Needs (22), Scheduling Flexibility (26), and Respect Toward Employees (11).

Each theme has descriptors attached based on the 130 quoted behaviors. The supportive descriptors are as follows. *Commuting support* was identified by FT, DH, and DM totaling 7 quotes (i.e., FT (3 quotes), DH (1 quote), and DM (3 quotes)) and is described as helping an employee to transfer to a store closer to their home for personal reasons. An FT stated:

> I got transferred to a store, it was a little distance from my house, and I told him my mom and dad are here and they are taking turns in and out of the hospital and any possibility of me getting closer to my house … hospital was just up the road so on my lunch hour I can run to the hospital. And they live … just down the street. So, I am within ten minutes of either location, their house or their hospital. It really helped me out.

Being sensitive to employees' work–family needs was identified by all levels of participants totaling 22 quotes (i.e., DM (9), SM (4), DH (1), FT (5), & PT (3)) and is described as understanding employees' home life situations, showing concern and offering assistance in times of need – illness, accidents, death, etc., open-door policy for communicating needs, communicating in a way that shows a caring attitude toward employees, only calling home for emergency help, respecting employees' personal time, listening and offering assistance and/or advice, helping alongside employees when the store is

busy, offering assistance during personal crisis, and a sympathetic attitude toward family issues. A DM stated:

> We had a couple of store managers pass away and they worked on getting scholarships for their children so they could get college taken care of through donations and fund-raisers. I had someone, one of my managers died at 32. The company helped me do a spaghetti dinner … to raise money so their kids could go to college …

Scheduling flexibility was identified by all levels of participants totaling 26 quotes (DM (16), SM (1), DH (2), FT (3), & PT (4)) and is described as: making changes to an employees' schedule to accommodate emergency needs, trying to give the same days off each week, scheduling around work–family issues such as family events, giving time off to avoid burnout, scheduling around holidays in advance, trying to change schedules when requested, and discussing schedules in advance and offering flexibility as able. An FTstated:

> My mom was in the hospital for a couple of weeks and I said how about knocking off the nights for a while. So, he let me write the schedule and he didn't change it. Whatever I need, he let me write it for what I needed.

Respect toward employees was identified by all levels of participants with the exception of DH totaling 11 quotes (DM (4), SM (3), FT (3), & PT (1)) and is described as: encouragement of an employee through attitude and praise, creating a comfortable environment, coaching, helping, defending, and listening to employee, protecting employee by not taking stress out on them, and offering employees' assistance on the front line. An FT stated:

> Some will chip in and come if you are really busy. They'll put on an apron and they will come and help you.

Unsupportive themes identified include: Culture of Work First (11), Some Managers Are Unapproachable (4), Scheduling Issues (20), Understaffing (13), and Disrespectful Attitudes Toward Some Employees (16).

Each theme has descriptors attached based on the 130 quoted behaviors. The unsupportive descriptors are as follows. *Culture of work first* was identified by FT, SM, and DH totaling 11 quotes (FT (2), SM (7), & DH (2)) and is described as: lack of concern about employees' personal lives/family and great concern about profitability, necessity to attend meetings outside the scheduled work day, and putting in extra time at work and feeling like they cannot easily take time off without repercussions. An SM stated:

> Taking care of your family is almost looked on as a weakness …

Some managers are unapproachable was identified by all participants with the exception of Part-Time Associates totaling 4 quotes (FT (1), DH (1),

DM (1), & SM (1)) and is described as: a lack of communication with employees and unwillingness to deal with issues. An FT stated:

> There are some stores where you don't talk to the manager unless he says something to you. There are some managers you don't even want to address.

Scheduling issues was identified by all levels of participants totaling 20 quotes (DM (3), SM (2), DH (3), FT (6), & PT (6)) and is described as: depending on the manager, scheduling flexibility is variable, new hires are given better schedules than long-time employees, different employees receive different amounts of hours, it is difficult to have an entire weekend off or two days off in a row, schedule requests are not always given much consideration, inconsistent scheduling on a regular basis, more money but also less hours or not giving enough hours, inconsistency between managers on allowing or not allowing flexibility, and difficulty managing work–family due to a lack of flexibility in scheduling. An FT stated:

> What we are finding now is a lot of people that are being promoted to full time are coming in with the schedule that they want. In other words, we were hired, we had to have an anytime availability. You had to be willing to work nights, which is only fair. We could never be hired with, "I only work six to two" or "I can only work seven to four" and the people coming in now, get that. That's kind of unfair.

Understaffing was identified by all levels of participants with the exception of District Managers, totaling 13 quotes (SM (6), DH (5), FT (1), & PT (1)) and is described as: try to hire employees that are willing to stay for more than six months which excludes extra-seasonal help (i.e., college students), understaffing at all levels makes flexibility very challenging, and budgeting cuts increases pressure and stress because it causes a decrease in staffing and increased inability to cross-train and have flexibility.

An FT stated:

> I have had two bad knees that are going to be replaced. I gave up therapy because of the fact that I couldn't work 7:30 to 4 and make it five o'clock. I was told point blank that's not possible. So, I worked around it which is fine. I don't go to therapy at all.

Disrespectful attitude toward some employees was identified by all levels of participants with the exception of District Managers totaling 16 quotes (FT (3), PT (6), SM (2), & DH (5)) and is described as: Taking out frustrations on employees by yelling, hollering, and embarrassing an employee in front of customers, fear-based management, more negative feedback than positive feedback, lack of clear instruction and communication. A PT stated:

> … this store manager embarrassed … had a habit of doing that if they saw the employee on the floor like in the aisle or whatever doing something that they weren't supposed to

> be doing, would call you on it right then and there. I guess, and one example is going from their department to the other end of the store, coming back and delaying looking at a display, thinking of buying it, you know, when you get off of work. "You're not supposed to be shopping while you work." And did it front of the customer, so … I thought that was kind of …." Not treating employee with respect, demeaning … I think that's a real no-no, to be honest with you. Um, actually, I have say when I was sent down in the floral department last fall there was a manager there before (employee name) was. And this was this person's management technique, which I said, I could …. Um, coming in this … likes decorating, made a big mess with all these plants. And there's dirt all over the place. And after finish doing all that, turned around and looked at me and said, "Yeah," "Get a broom." That's exactly what that person said to me. I felt like saying, "No." But I did.

The themes created from this analysis represent individual coding and group discussion and evaluation, which were determined to be fairly consistent across raters in approach and outcome of themes. These focus groups were helpful by giving specific examples of what employees in a grocery store-context perceived as being family-supportive and not so supportive. It was noted in our group discussions that there are no formal work–family policies in place in this grocery store chain and that assistance was given in extreme circumstances but not for the general day-to-day work–family needs of employees. Thus, it appears that there was sole reliance on informal, rather than any formal, system of support for work and family, and more specifically, reliance on supervisor support.

It should be noted that a limitation of this study is the inclusion of four one-hour interviews of district managers which were treated similar to the data collected from the four one-hour focus groups conducted with the district managers' subordinates (SM, FT, PT, and DH). Because the district managers are not actually in the grocery stores on a daily basis, their perception was interpreted differently. Additionally, there are more quotes represented by district managers, which could present a slightly biased perspective toward supportive behaviors if viewed only from the number of quotes. In addition, we did analyze the information by individuals; thus, it is possible that one individual could have contributed several behavioral examples to one theme, or a theme could have been based on input from numerous participants.

FUTURE RESEARCH AND PRACTICE IMPLICATIONS OF THE CONCEPT OF FSSB

Our model offers a mechanism for research and practice as it depicts clear pathways between organization-level factors, supervisor-level factors, and

individual and organizational outcomes related to FSSB. More specifically, we suggest that taking a multilevel approach to understanding not only the concept of FSSB, but also the outcomes of such behaviors will provide a more clear understanding of the importance of FSSB for both researchers and managerial practitioners.

These findings based on our literature review and our focus groups specifically point to the need for the development of psychometrically sound measures of behavioral supervisory support for family. While measures of employee self-report of general emotional supervisor support for work and family exist, to our knowledge, only one measure of actual behavioral, or instrumental, supervisory support exists (Shinn et al., 1989), and it appears to be an unidimensional measure. It is clear from the results of our focus groups and from our review of the literature that there is a need for a multidimensional measure of FSSB. In order to advance the field, we argue that it is important to develop a measure that more specifically operationalizes what behaviors supervisors need to be engaging in to help employees manage work and family. The measure should incorporate four positive dimensions: emotional/social support, instrumental support, support for a dual agenda, and supervisory family-supportive role model behaviors that are supportive of work and family.

In addition to the propositions presented in this chapter and the noted areas for needed research, we suggest that another area for future research is to better understand what factors contribute to FSSB, in addition to the formal and informal family-supportive organizational culture. For example, using data from the families and work institute, the 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce, a recent study by Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, and Weer (2006) found that supervisors are more likely to provide family-supportive supervision to employees who were similar in either gender or race compared to employees who were dissimilar. As they noted, few studies have examined factors that contribute to family-supportive supervision (Foley et al., 2006). Furthermore, Foley et al. (2006) suggest that with increasing diversity of our workforce, these findings point to an even greater need for diversity training and training managers on how to be responsive and sensitive to employees' work-life issues.

We suggest that managers should be trained on how to exhibit the four dimensions that we have identified, which make up FSSB: emotional/social, instrumental, dual agenda, and role-supportive behaviors. We also think they should be trained on counterproductive behaviors – that is, behaviors that employees are likely to interpret as being barriers to support and visible indicators of unsupportiveness. This can be achieved through a combination

of training on general sensitivity to work–family employee issues, as well as more technical training specific to the characteristics of the job, that involve structurally changing the place, organization, and scheduling of a job to be adaptable to the work–family needs of workers. Ultimately, we suggest that FSSB should be linked to supervisor feedback and training interventions in order to enhance managerial competencies in managing work and family. Likewise, Shanock and Eisenberger (2006) recently found that supervisors who feel supported by their organizations are, in turn, more likely to provide support to their employees resulting in more positive employee outcomes. This research suggests that more multilevel studies that fully depict factors that impact FSSB and the resultant effects on employees are needed.

We encourage future research to develop training interventions in this area. Hammer and Kossek (2005) have begun designing such an intervention which will be linked directly to the FSSB construct. They will conduct a quasi-experimental design to evaluate the effectiveness of such interventions. This research is part of a national work, family health, and well-being network being led by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), with collaborative funding from the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) and the National Institute on Aging (NIA). Hammer and Kossek's (2005) study is one example of where the future research in the field of work and family should evolve. We must move researchers from not only defining constructs in general, such as the notion of supervisor support, but also clarify the actual behaviors that must be exhibited (such as FSSB). Researchers must also begin to link work–family conflict to intervention and formal and informal systems that are implemented across organizational levels – namely from the formal policy level, to the informal supervisory practice level where the employee's job demands are carried out in the context of their daily work and family lives.

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APPENDIX A: FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS

Focus Group Questions: Part-Time and Full-Time Associates

1. What are the (company name) attitudes toward managing work and family here, for example, what is valued and not valued by the company?
2. What do you see as the role of Department Heads in managing work and family? Without mentioning names, can you give me examples you have seen or heard about that are particularly helpful or NOT helpful?
3. How about the role of Store Managers in managing work and family? Any examples that are helpful or NOT helpful?
4. Have you witnessed a Department Head or Store Manager being what you would call supportive when it comes to work and family responsibilities? If so, please describe what you observed.
5. What would you most like to see changed about how work and family is managed at (company name)? Why?
6. Are there any other comments regarding work and family at (company name) that you would like to make that would help us better understand how work and family is being managed here?

Focus Group Questions: Department Heads and Store Managers

1. What are the (company name) attitudes toward managing work and family here, for example, what is valued and not valued by the company?

2. What do you see as YOUR role in managing work and family? Without mentioning names, can you give me examples you have seen or heard about how other Department Heads (Store Managers) are assisting employees in managing work and family that are particularly helpful? How about examples you have seen or heard about that were NOT helpful?
3. What are the differences, if any, between Store Managers and Department Heads in assisting employees in managing work and family at (company name)?
4. What do you see as the role of District Managers in managing work and family?
5. What would you most like to see changed about how work and family is managed at (company name)? Why?
6. Are there any other comments regarding work and family at (company name) that you would like to make that would help us better understand how work and family is being managed here?

Interview Questions: District Managers

1. When you hear the term managing "work and family" at (company name), what first comes to your mind?
2. What are the company's attitudes toward managing work and family here? What is valued by the company? What is not valued?
3. What do you see as the role of District Managers in managing work and family? Without mentioning names, can you give me examples you have seen or heard about that are particularly helpful? How about examples you have seen or heard about that were NOT helpful?
4. What do you see as the role of Store Managers in managing work and family? Without mentioning names, can you give me examples you have seen or heard about that are particularly helpful? How about examples of those supervisor actions you have seen or heard about that were NOT helpful?
5. What do you see as the role of Department Heads in managing work and family? Without mentioning names, can you give me examples you have seen or heard about that are particularly helpful? How about examples you have seen or heard about that were NOT helpful?
6. What would you most like to see changed about how work and family is managed at (company name)? Why?

Are there any other comments regarding work and family at (company name) that you would like to make that would help us better understand how work and family is being managed here?