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**EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE  
AND USAGE OF FAMILY-LEAVE POLICIES**

A Thesis in

Psychology

By

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## ABSTRACT

Many organizations offer family policies to help employees balance their work and family roles. Supervisor support has been found to be an important predictor of employee leave utilization. However, previous researchers have focused on supervisor support for family rather than supervisor support for work, and these studies tend to be atheoretical. Furthermore, no known research investigates reasons why employees decide to use or not use leave policies. Leader-member exchange theory offers a useful model for examining the impact of the employee-supervisor relationship on usage of family policies. Drawing on this theory, the present study proposed that LMX would be related to both past use of and future intentions to use family leave; however, this relationship could be either positive or negative and for different reasons. Three mediators were suggested to explain the proposed relationships: fear of career consequences, informal support, and indebtedness. The effects of gender and occupational status on the hypothesized relationships were also investigated. Data gathered from 368 employees at four manufacturing facilities indicated that LMX did affect employee intentions to use personal leave and this relationship was curvilinear. Employees with both higher and lower quality relationships with their supervisors were *less* likely to intend to use personal leave than those with medium quality relationships. Results also indicated that indebtedness mediated the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave for those with high levels of LMX. Exploratory analyses found that gender moderated the relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave such that high and low LMX females were less likely to intend to use parental leave than those with medium levels of LMX and there was no relationship between LMX and leave intentions for men. In addition, occupational status moderated the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave such that blue-collar workers with high and low LMX relationships were less likely to intend to use personal leave than those with medium LMX relationships, and white-collar workers with high LMX had lower intentions to use personal leave than those with low LMX. Implications of these findings and directions for future research are discussed.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables. . . . .	vi
List of Figures. . . . .	viii
Acknowledgements . . . . .	ix
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Family-Friendly Workplaces. . . . .	4
Family-Friendly Policies: Family Leave . . . . .	6
Family-Friendly Culture. . . . .	10
Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships (LMX) . . . . .	11
Integrating the 3 Components: Family Leave Policy Usage, Culture, and LMX . . . . .	13
LMX and Leave Policy Usage . . . . .	14
Mediators of the LMX-Family Leave Policy Usage Relationship . . . . .	15
Additional Factors/Conditions . . . . .	19
Summary. . . . .	21
Chapter 2: METHOD. . . . .	22
Participants . . . . .	22
Procedure. . . . .	22
Measures . . . . .	23
Analysis Plan. . . . .	26
Chapter 3: RESULTS. . . . .	28
Dependent Variable. . . . .	28
Descriptive Statistics. . . . .	29
Bivariate Correlations . . . . .	29
Linear Mediation Analyses . . . . .	30
Informal Support. . . . .	30
Indebtedness. . . . .	30
Linear Exploratory Analyses. . . . .	31
Gender . . . . .	31
Occupational Status . . . . .	32
Curvilinear Analyses. . . . .	33
Curvilinear Mediation Analyses. . . . .	34
Curvilinear Exploratory Analyses . . . . .	34
Gender. . . . .	34
Occupational Status. . . . .	34
Post Hoc Analyses. . . . .	35
Gender . . . . .	35
Occupational Status . . . . .	35
Parental Status . . . . .	36
Chapter 4: DISCUSSION . . . . .	37

Family Leave Policy Usage .....	37
Is There a Relationship Between LMX and Leave Policy Usage? .....	39
Why is LMX Related to Leave Policy Usage? .....	41
Career Consequences .....	41
Informal Support .....	42
Indebtedness .....	43
What Are The Effects of Gender and Occupational Status on the Relationship Between LMX and Leave Policy Usage? .....	44
Gender .....	45
Occupational Status .....	45
Implications .....	46
Limitations and Future Research .....	47
Conclusion .....	49
References .....	50
Appendix A: Tables and Figures .....	59
Appendix B: Scales Used in Present Study .....	101
Appendix C: Actual Study Measure .....	103

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Study Hypotheses. . . . .	59
Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Study Variables. . . . .	60
Table 3: Frequencies of Past Leave Policy Usage. . . . .	61
Table 4: Frequencies of Participants who are “Somewhat Likely” or “Very Likely” to Intend to Use Leave Policies. . . . .	62
Table 5: Mediation Analysis of Linear Relationship Between LMX and Leave (Informal Support). . . . .	63
Table 6: Mediation Analysis of Linear Relationship Between LMX and Leave (Indebtedness). . . . .	64
Table 7: Moderation of Gender on the Linear Relationship Between LMX and Leave. . .	65
Table 8: Moderation of Gender on the Linear Relationship Between LMX and “Mediators”. . . . .	67
Table 9: Moderation of Occupational Status on the Linear Relationship Between LMX and Leave . . . . .	68
Table 10: Moderation of Occupational Status on the Linear Relationship Between LMX and “Mediators” . . . . .	70
Table 11: Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave. . . . .	71
Table 12: Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave For High LMX Individuals (Indebtedness). . . . .	73
Table 13: Moderation of Gender on the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave. . . . .	74
Table 14: Moderation of Occupational Status on the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave. . . . .	76
Table 15: Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Men Only . .	78
Table 16: Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave for High LMX Men (Indebtedness) . . . . .	80
Table 17: Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Women Only . . . . .	81

Table 18: Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave for High LMX Women (Indebtedness) . . . . .	83
Table 19: Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Blue Collar Only. . . . .	84
Table 20: Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave for High LMX Blue Collar Workers (Indebtedness) . . . . .	86
Table 21: Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for White Collar Only. . . . .	88
Table 22: Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Parents Only. . . . .	90
Table 23: Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave for High LMX Parents (Indebtedness) . . . . .	92
Table 24: Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Non-Parents Only. . . . .	93
Table 25: Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave for High LMX Non-Parents (Indebtedness) . . . . .	95

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: The proposed model of leave policy usage .....	97
Figure 2: The curvilinear relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave policies. ....	98
Figure 3: The curvilinear relationship between LMX and overall past usage of leave policies .....	99
Figure 4: The curvilinear relationship between LMX and past usage of personal leave policies .....	100



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## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

Work and family are the two most important roles in the lives of employed men and women in contemporary society (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000) and men and women are experiencing increasing difficulty in balancing obligations to the two roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). By the year 2008, women, previously believed to be the main providers of childcare (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991), will constitute 48% of the labor force (Jalilvand, 2000). Furthermore, as the population ages, more employees are providing elder care for relatives. In 2002, 35% of workers (both men and women) said they provided regular care for a parent or in-law over 65 (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002). This influx of women into the workplace, along with the fact that employees are reporting increasing family responsibilities [85% of employees report having some day-to-day family responsibility (Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1988)], has led many organizations to adopt family-friendly policies, or policies that are intended to help employees balance their work and family lives. Usage of these family policies has important beneficial organizational and employee outcomes such as increased job satisfaction, retention, organizational commitment, well-being, and performance and decreased turnover and work-family conflict (Albrecht, 2003; T. D. Allen, 2001; Bond et al., 2002; Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999).

Recent research suggests that work-family culture is one important variable in family policy utilization (T. D. Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). Employees are much more likely to use family policies if they feel that doing so will not harm their careers in any way. Researchers agree that the most important component of family culture is supportive supervisors (Clark, 2001; Galinsky, Bond, & Friedman, 1993; Parker & Allen, 2002, April; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999; Warren & Johnson, 1995). Supervisor support can be conceptualized in two different ways: support for family roles and support for work roles.

Family-supportive supervisors are supervisors who are sympathetic to the employee's desire to seek balance between work and family and who engage in efforts to help the employee accommodate his or her work and family responsibilities (T. D. Allen, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Supervisors who are supportive of employee's family needs are willing to provide

emotional support regarding family issues as well as juggle tasks or duties to accommodate employees' families and empathize with an employee's desire to balance work and family responsibilities (T. D. Allen, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). Research in the work-family domain has begun to investigate the effects of supervisor support for family roles on such employee outcomes as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), with the results suggesting that supervisor support for family has positive outcomes for both employees and organizations. Furthermore, research shows that supervisor support for family is an important component of family policy usage (T. D. Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999) such that employees who report higher supervisor support for family are more likely to use family policies than those who report lower supervisor support for family. Although supervisor support for family has been positively linked to family policy usage, support typically has been narrowly defined as emotional support.

Supervisor support for work roles, on the other hand, is the support that a supervisor provides in terms of work-related problems and issues, and consists of both emotional and career support. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory has been widely used in the I/O literature to characterize the quality of supervisor-subordinate work relationships. While this framework has been studied a great deal by organizational theory researchers, there is no known literature that investigates the relationship between LMX and family policy usage. Since supervisor support is such an important part of family policy usage, LMX theory can help further our understanding as to why employees use family policies by explaining the role that supervisor support for work plays in family policy usage.

It is important to study the role of LMX in family policy usage for theoretical, predictive, and practical reasons. First, work-family research has been criticized for being atheoretical (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). LMX is strongly grounded in role theory and social exchange theory and can thus contribute to work-family theory. The theoretical basis of LMX is that dyadic relationships and work roles are developed or negotiated over time through a series of exchanges between leader and subordinate (Bauer & Breen, 1996; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Based on these relationships, employees and supervisors establish high-quality relationships in which they provide instrumental and emotional support to one another, or low-quality relationships in which exchanges are strictly transactional. Employees in high-quality relationships receive greater opportunities, latitude, attention, communication, resources and

support in exchange for loyalty and heightened effort and obligation toward the supervisor, while those in lower-quality relationships have fewer work obligations to their supervisors (Maslyn, Farmer, & Fedor, 1996; S. J. Wayne & Green, 1993; S. J. Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Additionally, those in high LMX relationships tend to like each other more than those in low LMX relationships (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999).

LMX theory can help work-family researchers understand the kind of support that employees are receiving from their supervisors and, in turn, the obligations that they have to these supervisors; in this way it can help us understand *why* employees utilize or do not utilize certain types of family-friendly policies. LMX theory suggests several mediators that would help explain the relationship between LMX and family policy usage including lack of career consequences (job security), informal support, and indebtedness. Though LMX has been previously characterized as beneficial to work attitudes, less is known about its impact on employees' non-work roles. I suggest that LMX could predict either more or less usage of family policies, depending on the extent that LMX decreases perceived risks of family policy usage or increases informal supports or a sense of indebtedness to superiors.

Second, LMX can help to further explain the role that supervisors play in family policy usage. Because supervisor support and supervisor accommodations are essential for managing work and family, it is important to link work-family research to the leadership literature (Major, Cardenas, Davis, Germano, & Mickey, 2004, August). Many researchers in the family policy domain have suggested that we need to both widen our scope of study in this area and further elaborate the role of managerial support and its implications (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Thompson et al., 1999). For example, researchers have suggested that future research focus on how family-supportive organizational perceptions relate to other global organizational constructs and LMX is one such global construct. Additionally, there is a need to further understand the role that managerial support plays in family policy usage (T. D. Allen, 2001; Anderson et al., 2002). Previous research has focused on emotional support by supervisors, but we also need to understand career support. Thus we need to gain a deeper understanding of exactly what managerial support entails. The present study widens the scope of family-friendly research by looking at the broader construct of LMX, thus contributing to a more in-depth understanding of the importance of the entire supervisor-employee relationship on family policy usage (rather than focusing only on supervisor support for family roles, as other studies have done).

Finally, understanding LMX has practical implications for leader development. LMX is purported to have positive employee outcomes such as increased feelings of organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997). While LMX could have beneficial implications for family policy usage, it is also conceivable that LMX may have negative implications for family policy usage. For example, employees with high LMX relationships may be reluctant to utilize beneficial family-friendly policies, thus leading to negative family implications of high-LMX relationships. An understanding of the implications for both work and non-work outcomes of high and low-LMX relationships will help us to develop better training programs that recognize the important roles that employees have both at work and at home. In this way, supervisors can be taught to support the work *and* family roles of employees, and thus enhance the positive implications of high-quality relationships.

Most research on family-friendly policies has focused on professional (white-collar) workers. Some initial research suggests that blue-collar, hourly workers may be less likely to use certain types of policies (e.g., Gerstal & McGonagle, 1999). Furthermore, LMX relationships may be different for different types of workers. An additional contribution of the present study is its focus on blue-collar workers, a previously understudied population in work-family research.

In summary, this study integrated family-friendly policy research with leader-member exchange theory. Leader-member exchange theory offers a model for examining the impact of the employee-supervisor relationship on family-friendly policy usage; this model provides theoretical and practical implications. The present study investigates whether leader-member exchange may help predict the use of family-friendly policies and attempts to explain why policies are used (or not used) in a sample composed mainly of blue-collar workers.

### Family-Friendly Workplaces

By definition, a family-friendly workplace is “one which develops and implements policies that allow employees to simultaneously fulfill work and family responsibilities” (Strachan & Burgess, 1998). According to Pitt-Catsoupes (2002), there are four components to family-friendly workplaces: (1) benefits, policies, and programs, (2) cultures that reflect family-centered assumptions and beliefs, (3) supportive workplace relationships, and (4) work systems and structures. In the present study, I discuss the first three components and focus on the third component.

First, there are benefits, policies, and programs that promote employee quality of life and work/life balance. These are the most visible indicators of family-friendly workplaces. Family-friendly policies are business strategies intended to respond to the concerns of employees with family responsibilities (Albrecht, 2003). Over the past 75 years, organizations have progressed from providing no family benefits to providing a standard package of benefits designed for a male-supported family, to providing innovative and flexible benefits to meet differing family needs (Wiatrowski, 1990). By the year 1975, about 95% of full-time permanent office and plant workers had some type of medical coverage and during the 1980s parental leave, child care, and flexible work schedules began to emerge (Caputo, 2000). In a national study performed in 1998, approximately 88% of organizations offered flexible work arrangements, 68% of companies offered at least 12 weeks of maternity leave (with 53% offering some replacement pay), 84% offered at least 12 weeks of paternity leave (with 13% offering some replacement pay), 36% provided child care assistance, and 23% offered elder-care assistance (Galinsky & Bond, 1998). Early research into family policy availability is indicative of this component of the family-friendly workplace. For example, Thomas and Ganster (1995) discuss supportive family practices such as flexible scheduling. While the availability of policies does sometimes predict outcomes such as reduced work-family conflict (T. D. Allen, 2001), many researchers have recognized that family policy availability does not equal family policy usage (T. D. Allen, 2001; Galinsky et al., 1993; Thompson et al., 1999). These researchers have suggested the importance of Pitt-Catsoupes's second component to family-family workplaces: work-family culture.

The second component of a family-friendly workplace is a *culture* that reflects family- or employee-centered assumptions and beliefs. Thompson and colleagues (1999) defined work-family culture 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” (p. 394). Culture includes values and attitudes at the workplace and affects every aspect of employer-sponsored work-family initiatives including organizational adoption of different initiatives, perception of the strategic importance of the initiatives, and usage of the policies. Research into work-family cultures is indicative of this component of family-friendly workplaces and has found that employees’ perceptions of a supportive organizational culture are positively related to utilization of family benefits, increased organizational commitment, job satisfaction, performance, and well-being and reduced turnover intentions and work-family conflict (T. D.

Allen, 2001; Kossek et al., 2001; Lyness, Judiesch, Thompson, & Beauvais, 2001, August; Thompson et al., 1999).

The third component of family-friendly workplaces, according to Pitt-Catsouphes, is workplace relationships (e.g., with supervisor and coworkers) that are respectful of employees' work-family and work-life responsibilities (T. D. Allen, 2001; Bond et al., 1988; Kossek & Nichol, 1992). There is a body of research investigating coworkers' perceptions of users of family-policies that examines this component (Grover, 1991; Parker & Allen, 2000). Other research investigates how supervisors perceive employees that use or ask to use family-friendly policies (T. D. Allen & Russell, 1999; T. D. Allen, Russell, & Rush, 1994; Powell & Mainiero, 1999; J. H. Wayne & Cordeiro, 2003). Research such as the present paper, which investigates employee-supervisor relationships and how these relationships affect employee decisions to utilize family policies, is also part of this component.

The present paper investigates family-friendly workplaces broadly by considering the role of these components in a blue-collar sample. This study will specifically focus on the third component: employee-supervisor relationships. The following sections of this paper will provide background research on each of the first three components of a family-friendly workplace. First I will discuss research on family policies in general and more specifically on family leave usage. Next I will discuss present research on work-family culture. Finally I will focus on the supervisor-subordinate relationship and discuss leader-member exchange relationships.

### *Family-Friendly Policies: Family Leave*

Family-friendly policies are business strategies intended to respond to the concerns of employees with family responsibilities (Albrecht, 2003). These policies include assistance in locating and obtaining child- and elder-care, financial assistance, flextime, telecommuting, job-sharing, part-time work, and family leave (T. D. Allen, 2001; Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Galinsky et al., 1993; Glass & Fujimoto, 1995).

Early research into family policy availability suggested that organizations that offered family-friendly policies were perceived more positively by employees. For example, one study found that all employees (not only those who needed family policies) were more attracted to organizations that offered flexible career paths and policies (Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997). Furthermore, users of on-site childcare centers believed that such assistance had positive effects

on recruiting and retention efforts (Rothausen, Gonzalez, Clarke, & O'Dell, 1998) and companies offering family-friendly policies have been shown to be successful at retaining employees, even if individuals do not use the policies themselves (Grover & Crooker, 1995). For example, in a national study, 59% of parents reported that one of the reasons that they chose their present job was because of the presence of family policies (Galinsky, Bond, & Friedman, 1996). Thus, simply offering policies has recruiting and retention benefits for organizations.

The existence of work-life programs has also been shown to correlate with firm productivity in firms with many female employees (Konrad & Mangel, 2000) and with firm-level performance (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). Arthur (2003) found that share prices increased on the day that organizations unveiled family-friendly policies and initiatives. Furthermore, family-friendly policies can reduce absenteeism and turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Since turnover can cost 200 percent of an employee's salary, successful work-life programs can pay for themselves (Martinez, 1997). Thus, policies do matter, although as I will discuss later, policy availability is not always enough for organizations and employees to recognize positive outcomes.

It is important for researchers to understand all types of family-policies. A number of previous studies have focused on flexible work arrangements (T. D. Allen, 2001; Eaton, 2003; Golden, 2001; Kossek, Barber, & Winters, 1999) and dependent care use (T. D. Allen, 2001; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Kossek & Nichol, 1992). There is ample evidence that flexible work schedules have positive effects on employees (T. D. Allen, 2001; Baltes, Briggs, Huff, & Wright, 1999; Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005). Dependent care assistance, on the other hand, does not seem to have a strong effect on employee outcomes such as job satisfaction, employee commitment, and work-family conflict (T. D. Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). In the current study, I focus on family leave.

*Family leave.* Family leave is a policy concept that bundles together different family-related reasons for taking time off from work (Rudd, 2004). Family leave policies vary greatly among businesses and include taking time off from work for childbirth, care of an infant, adoption of a child, care of an ill child, spouse, or parent, and personal health leave, as well as any other paid or unpaid policy that permits absence from work without job loss (Albrecht,



2003). Official leave policies vary by organization, although the United States government passed the Family Medical Leave Act (FMLA) in 1993. Prior to the FMLA, women used disability leave for the birth of a child, and men were guaranteed no family leave (Kelly & Dobbin, 1999). The FMLA is the first government mandated family leave policy in the United States. According to the FMLA, employees at organizations with over 50 employees within a 75-mile radius are entitled to up to 12 weeks of *unpaid* leave for the birth or adoption of a child or the illness of self, child, or parent, without the risk of job loss. Employees must have worked at least 1250 hours (over thirty-one 40-hour work weeks) in the previous year to be eligible for this benefit. Given these constraints, only approximately 11% of U.S. workplaces and 58% of employees are potential beneficiaries of the FMLA (Albrecht, 2003; Cantor et al., 2001). Roughly 15 million employees use the FMLA each year, although most of these people claim personal illness (with 25% of users claiming use for a new child). The median length of leave is 10 days and only 10% of beneficiaries use 60 days or more (Cantor et al., 2001).

*Importance of studying family leave policies.* Although many organizations offer family leave policies, numerous employees who report the need to use family leave do not actually use the policies. There are three reasons why it is important to study the reason that employees may not use family leave policies. First, leave policies often have high initial costs for organizations. In order for organizations to receive benefits from their initial costs, employees must use the policies. If policies are not used, employees and the organizations themselves do not receive the potential benefits. Second, research suggests that maternity leave times of less than 12 weeks can negatively affect women's physical and mental health (Chatterji & Markowitz, 2004; Hyde, Essex, Clark, Klein, & Byrd, 1996), yet women in the United States take an average of only 10 days of maternity leave [compared to 4-5 months in 75 other countries (Kameran, 1980)], and most family leave is actually taken for personal reasons (Cantor et al., 2001). Since more than 70% of employed women are in their childbearing years, and 80% of these women are likely to become pregnant during their working lives (Kameran, 1986) it is important to understand how we can increase both family leave utilization in general, and the length of leave time. Third, corporate policies regarding postpartum leave vary widely, with most corporations believing that no parental leave is reasonable for men (Catalyst, 1986). However, men increasingly want to become involved in the lives of their children, and the time after birth is important for child-

bonding. Pediatricians and other specialists argue that parents need several weeks at home with their newborn infants to establish healthy relationships (Brazelton, 1988). Taken together, the previous information suggests that family leave usage has important benefits for employees and employers alike. When leave policies are not utilized, these benefits are not recognized. Thus, the present study will focus on one factor (LMX relationships) that can encourage or discourage usage of family leave policies in order to understand why employees use or do not use family leave policies.

*Benefits of family leave policies.* Potential benefits of leave policies for employers include reduced turnover, increased employee loyalty, and improved morale. A cost-benefit analysis of maternity leave found reduction in turnover costs benefiting employers (Mattis, 1990). Furthermore, in a national cross-sectional study, the presence of a maternity leave policy was shown to significantly reduce intent to leave among all employees and the length of maternity leave taken by the employee directly reduced job turnover following pregnancy, regardless of the source of the leave and regardless of its status as paid or unpaid (Glass & Riley, 1998; Grover & Crooker, 1995). Finally, availability of a liberal (even if unpaid) family leave policy increases the likelihood of employees returning to work after childbirth (Glass & Riley, 1998; Hofferth, 1996) thus showing that family leave policies can reduce turnover costs for the organization.

Providing leave policies also has potential benefits for employees. For example, family leave has been shown to reduce multiple-role strain (Shellenbarger, 1991). In one study, the length of maternity leave interacted with other factors to produce a significant and positive effect on the well-being of women and families. In the same study (Hyde et al., 1996), having a job-guaranteed leave significantly decreased women's anxieties about losing their jobs. Furthermore, the authors found that taking a maternity leave of less than 12 weeks was a risk factor for depression. Another study found that taking more than 6 weeks of maternity leave was associated with significant reductions in mothers' depressive symptoms (Chatterji & Markowitz, 2004). Thus, longer maternity leaves can increase personal well-being.

Taken together, previous research suggests that providing family leave policies has benefits for organizations as well as employees. However, these benefits cannot be recognized unless employees actually utilize the policies. Research suggests that many people that need

policies do not actually use them and those that use them (married, upper socioeconomic status, white women) often have other supports available and may not really need the policies (Gerstel & McGonagle, 1999). Family-friendly culture is often cited as one barrier to family policy utilization.

### *Family-Friendly Culture*

As discussed earlier, availability is not always enough for recognition of positive outcomes of family-friendly policies (T. D. Allen, 2001; Eaton, 2003; Thompson et al., 1999). For example, perceived usability of work-family policies is seen as more important to employees than the presence of formal policies alone (Eaton, 2003). Another study used data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation to examine the impact of leave policies on unpaid leave usage by men and women after the birth of a child from 1991 to 1999 (before and after the passage of the Family Medical Leave Act) (Han & Waldfogel, 2003). The authors found that the FMLA did not affect men's leave usage. The results for women were less clear: some women took increased or longer leaves after implementation of the FMLA, but most did not take longer leaves. Thus, government legislation of leave policies is not enough for people to actually use these policies.

It has become apparent that there are many barriers to family leave usage including fear of negative career impact and managerial resistance (T. D. Allen, 2001; Anderson et al., 2002; Behson, in press; Schwartz, 1994; Thompson et al., 1999). In short, many work cultures are not supportive of family leave use. A large body of research has suggested that work-family culture is important in determining whether employees will utilize policies (T. D. Allen, 2001; Clark, 2001; Galinsky et al., 1993; Grandey, Cordeiro, & Cronin, 2005, April; Lyness et al., 2001, August; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999). Not surprisingly, employees will tend to utilize policies when the culture is supportive of families and will be less likely to use policies when the culture mandates high levels of face time, when there are negative career consequences from using policies, and when managers do not support family policy usage.

A number of different studies have investigated components of family-friendly culture. For example, a family-friendly environment has been conceptualized as family-supportive policies and family-supportive supervisors (Thomas & Ganster, 1995); managerial support for work-family balance, lack of career consequences associated with utilizing work-family benefits,

and low organizational time demands that may interfere with family responsibilities (Thompson et al., 1999); and family supportive organizational perceptions and supervisor support (T. D. Allen, 2001). While research has suggested varied components of family-friendly culture, all studies include some dimension of supervisor support. This suggests that supervisor support for family may be one of the most important variables in individual utilization of family-friendly policies. Empirical evidence also suggests that supervisor support may be the most important dimension of culture. In the Thompson and colleagues (1999) study, supervisor support correlated with usage higher than the other dimensions of culture. Furthermore, McManus, Korabik, Rosin, and Kelloway (2002) found that supervisor support for using family policies contributed to lower work interference with family and higher family and job satisfaction for both married and single mothers. Thus, the present study will focus on supervisor-subordinate relationships.

#### *Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships (LMX)*

As discussed earlier, the third component of family-friendly workplaces is workplace relationships, including the relationship between the supervisor and subordinate. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory represents employee-supervisor relationships and began over 25 years ago (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975) when researchers found that leaders do not all use the same leadership style (Graen, 1976; Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982), but develop different relationships with different followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX has recently been defined as the “unique relationship-based social exchange between leaders and members” (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The theoretical foundation for LMX has been built using role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964).

*Process of LMX development.* According to LMX theory, leaders test subordinates with various work assignments in a series of role making episodes. The degree to which subordinates carry out task demands and demonstrate trustworthiness dictates the type of LMX relationship that forms. In turn, the type of LMX relationship determines the extent to which the leader reciprocates with work-related resources such as information, challenging task assignments, and autonomy, consistent with social exchange theory (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Social exchanges

are based on trust and implicit obligations. LMX focuses on the quality of exchanges between the employee and the manager and is based on the degree of emotional support and exchange of valued resources (S. W. Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002)

One key component of social exchange theory that is incorporated in LMX research is the norm of reciprocity (S. W. Wayne et al., 2002) which suggests that individuals who are treated favorably by others feel a sense of obligation to respond positively or return the favorable treatment in some manner (Blau, 1964). Employees who are treated favorably by supervisors feel a sense of indebtedness to the exchange partner and are motivated to repay the partner (Blau, 1964). Similar to normative commitment (in which individuals remain in an organization because they believe they should), those with high LMX may help a supervisor because they feel they ought to (N. Allen & Meyer, 1990). Thus, employees who have high-quality exchange relationships with their supervisors feel a sense of indebtedness and reciprocate in terms of attitudes and behaviors that benefit the supervisor.

The central idea of LMX theory is that effective leadership processes and outcomes occur when leaders and followers are able to develop relationships that allow them to gain access to the many benefits these relationships bring (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The theory says that leaders group their subordinates into in-groups and out-groups. Those in the in-group are perceived to be high in skill, trustworthiness, and willingness to assume responsibility. Followers act as “trusted assistants” to the manager or leader and tend to do tasks beyond their job descriptions. In-group members receive greater opportunities, latitude, and support in exchange for their loyalty, effort, and heightened responsibility (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Thus, subordinates with high LMX relationships experience affective or emotional support as well as more instrumental forms of career support (e.g., career opportunities, autonomy, exposure) (Bernas & Major, 2000). Out-group members tend to have more formal relationships with the leader and to be more closely supervised. Exchanges with members of the out-group are of lower quality and characterized by lower trust, respect, and obligation. In these relationships followers act as “hired hands” and do only what is required of them (Zalesny & Graen, 1987).

*Stages of development.* LMX relationships do not occur immediately, but rather develop over time. Dyads progress through the stages differently. There are three phases in LMX

development: stranger, acquaintance, and maturity (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Some dyads never advance beyond the stranger phase, while others may remain in the acquaintance stage. In the stranger phase, individuals first come together as outsiders. Interactions between members occur on a formal basis and exchanges are contractual. LMX in this phase is low and leaders and followers have little influence over each another. At the end of this phase an offer for an improved relationship is given and, if accepted, the pair moves to the next phase. In the acquaintance phase, social exchanges between the members increase. Not all exchanges between the pair are contractual and the workers begin to share more information and resources. For those who progress to this stage there is a medium level of LMX. In the maturity phase, exchanges between the members are highly developed. There may be long periods of time before favors are reciprocated, indicating high levels of trust. The individuals in the acquaintance phase rely on each other for information and support and the exchanges are both behavioral and emotional (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX is high for those who reach this stage. Research supports that LMX relationships can be characterized by these stages (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden & Graen, 1980).

*Stability of LMX.* LMX relationships develop fairly quickly, and then remain relatively stable over time (Gerstner & Day, 1997). For example, whether a relationship is going to be high LMX or low-LMX may be determined in the first few months and then the relationship remains stable after that. In support of this, one study reported fairly consistent LMX means for both in- and out-group members over a 9-month time period (Dansereau et al., 1975). Wakabayashi et al (1988) reported a median LMX stability of .60 over three years and Liden et al (1993) found stability in LMX over time, although the consistency of LMX decreased with greater time intervals. Thus, it is important for researchers to either focus on relationships greater than 6 months or to consider relationship tenure specifically. In order to control for possible time effects, I will focus on relationships that have lasted at least six months.

### Integrating the 3 Components: Family Leave Policy Usage, Culture, and LMX

Research has indicated that family policies are applied and utilized inconsistently (Eaton, 2003; Eaton & Bailyn, 2000; Gerstel & McGonagle, 1999). One study suggests that on a day-to-day basis, employees often express ambivalence about whether to utilize family policies, even

when they have a need for such policies (Eaton, 2003). As discussed earlier, family-friendly culture is important in family policy utilization: if the culture of the organization is not friendly to families, employees will not use family policies (Thompson et al., 1999). The type of relationship that employees have with their supervisors may also explain inconsistency in family policy utilization.

### *LMX and Leave Policy Usage*

As discussed earlier, LMX is a kind of social exchange relationship that focuses on the quality of exchanges between the employee and the manager and is based on the degree of emotional support and exchange of valued resources (S. W. Wayne et al., 2002). Because of time pressures, the leader develops a close relationship with only a few subordinates (Graen, 1976). Employees in the in-group are high in skill, trustworthiness, and willingness to assume responsibility and they receive greater information, latitude, and support in exchange for their loyalty toward the supervisor and the work role (Schriesheim et al., 1999). Employees who have high-quality exchanges with their supervisors thus feel a sense of obligation and reciprocate in terms of attitudes and behaviors that benefit the supervisor. Exchanges with members of the out-group are of lower quality and characterized by lower trust, respect, interaction, and obligation (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Schriesheim et al., 1999). I suggest that the kind of relationship that an employee has with his or her supervisor may affect the employee's decision to utilize family leave policies.

It is an empirical question as to whether high-quality LMX relationships are likely to lead to higher or lower levels of family leave policy usage by employees. It is possible that employees with higher LMX relationships with their supervisors have higher job security and therefore do not fear negative consequences of using policies. This suggests that employees with high LMX relationships with their supervisors are *more* likely to use family leave policies. On the other hand, it is also possible that employees with high quality relationships (1) make informal arrangements with their superiors and are thus *less* likely to need to use formal leave policies or (2) may feel indebted to their supervisors because of favors that they received from supervisors in the past and are thus *less* likely to use family leave policies (see Figure 1). Thus, the following competing hypotheses are proposed:

*Hypothesis 1a:* LMX is positively related to family leave policy usage. As LMX increases, family leave policy usage will increase.

*Hypothesis 1b:* LMX is negatively related to family leave policy usage. As LMX increases, family leave policy usage will decrease.

The following sections will discuss in further detail the relationships between LMX and family leave policy usage, using three types of mediating variables (affective: fear of negative career consequences, behavioral: informal support, and cognitive: indebtedness) to explain the proposed relationships. I will then discuss two moderating variables (gender and occupational status) that may explain when there is a relationship between LMX and family leave usage.

#### *Mediators of the LMX-Family Leave Policy Usage Relationship*

I propose that there are a number of explanations for the reason why LMX affects family leave policy usage. Therefore, there are mediators in the LMX—family leave policy usage relationship. Mediators explain why certain behaviors occur (Baron & Kenny, 1986). There are affective, behavioral, and cognitive reasons why people engage in behaviors. Consequently, I will discuss three types of mediators: an affective mediator (fear of negative career consequences), a behavioral mediator (informal support), and a cognitive mediator (indebtedness). While these mediators help us understand the relationship between LMX and family leave usage, they suggest different outcomes of the relationship. One of these mechanisms (fear of negative career consequences) suggests that there is a positive relationship between LMX and family leave policy usage and two of these mechanisms (informal support and indebtedness) suggest a negative relationship between LMX and leave policy usage. Informal support as a mediator argues that family leave is not needed, while indebtedness suggests that family leave may be needed by employees yet avoided.

*Affective mediator: Lack of fear of career consequences.* Negative spillover models of the work-family interface (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999) imply that family demands, responsibilities, attitudes, and emotions may spill over into the workplace causing difficulties on the job (this has also been referred to as family-to-work conflict). This negative spillover produces the need for family policies that help employees balance their work and family lives. However, because of



organizational norms for visibility, employees put their careers at risk when they participate in work-family programs that make them less visible at work (e.g., family leave) (Bailyn, 1993). Many managers believe that face time is a direct indicator of an employee's contribution and commitment to work. Participating in work-family programs, especially family leave, may undermine an employee's ability to show commitment to the organization, resulting in negative performance evaluations (Perlow, 1995) and jeopardizing the employee's future wage increases or promotions (Glass & Fujimoto, 1995). Studies have found that employees who fear negative career consequences are less likely to utilize family policies (T. D. Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999).

This is not simply an unjustified fear: there is empirical support for the idea that utilization of family leave policies leads to negative career consequences. For example, in a lab study, Wayne and Cordeiro (2003) found that male employees utilizing family leave were perceived as less altruistic, less compliant, and less committed to the organization than men who did not take family leave (for birth of a child, elder-care, or ill-child care) and than women who did take family leave. Other research established that men who used parental leave were less likely to be recommended for organizational rewards than men who did not take parental leave (T. D. Allen et al., 1994). Furthermore, a study using a sample of 10,584 managers found that leaves of absence, regardless of the reason (family responsibility or medical) were associated with significantly fewer subsequent promotions and smaller salary increases for both male and female managers and for both shorter and longer leaves (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999). Similarly, managerial advancement has been shown to be associated with working long hours (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995). This evidence suggests that usage of family leave policies leads to negative career consequences for employees.

I suggest that employees who have high LMX relationships with their supervisors receive affect, loyalty, trust, and emotional and instrumental support. Accordingly these employees may perceive fewer negative career consequences of utilizing family leave policies. Furthermore, empirical research shows that LMX is positively related to frequency of promotions (Wakabayashi, Graen, Graen, & Graen, 1988) suggesting more job security and less fear of negative career consequences for employees with high-LMX relationships with their supervisors. Thus, usage of family leave may be an outcome of high leader-member relations: employees with high LMX have a lower fear of negative career consequences from using policies than those

with low LMX and thus are more likely to use family leave policies. Therefore, I propose the following relationship:

*Hypothesis 2:* Career consequences will mediate a positive relationship between LMX and family leave policy usage. High LMX leads to less perceived negative career consequences, which leads to greater family leave policy usage

The previous discussion suggests that there is a positive relationship between LMX and family leave policy usage. Alternatively, high-quality relationships may lead to less usage of family leave policies. Employees with high-quality LMX relationships receive trust and latitude in scheduling and decision-making from their employers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). They have also received favors from their supervisors in the past and are likely to show loyalty, effort, and increased responsibility and indebtedness toward their supervisors. The following mediators (informal support and indebtedness) explain a negative relationship between LMX and family leave policy usage.

*Behavioral mediator: Informal support.* Role theory predicts that multiple life roles result in interrole conflict as individuals experience difficulty performing each role successfully because of conflicting demands (Kahn et al., 1964). According to the theory, the cumulative demands of multiple roles can result in role strain; however, available resources may prevent or reduce role strain by helping individuals to cope with their demands. Social support from supervisors can act as such a resource and is an important component in helping employees manage life stressors (Beehr, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986). As discussed earlier, one aspect of supervisor supportiveness is supervisor support for the family roles of employees. Supervisors play an important role in the effectiveness of work-family policies because they may encourage or discourage employees from using these programs. Previous research has found that manager support for family has positive outcomes for employees and organizations. In particular, employees are more likely to use policies (and thus recognize the benefits of policies) when the supervisor is supportive of families (T. D. Allen, 2001; McManus et al., 2002; Thompson et al., 1999).

A body of research has shown that informal means of organizational work-family support, in which individual employees work out schedules and ways of balancing work and

family with individual supervisors, are more useful than formal means of organizational work-family support (benefit availability) in explaining variance in employee affective and behavioral outcomes (Anderson et al., 2002; Behson, 2002, in press; Goff et al., 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992). Behson (in press) compared the relative contributions of formal and informal means of support for employee outcomes. Results indicated that informal means of work-family support explained a greater share of the variance in employee outcomes such as job satisfaction, work-family conflict, stress, and turnover intentions than formal mechanisms. Other empirical evidence suggests that the availability of work-family benefits has a small effect on employee attitudes and experiences, while employee perceptions of informal work-family supportiveness are strongly related to important outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment, and work-family conflict (T. D. Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). Furthermore, managers in companies that do not have specific programs or policies can often give employees flexibility by informally supporting such options (Scandura & Lankau, 1997).

The previous research implies that employees often use informal support from supervisors to make their own schedules rather than utilizing formal policies that are on the books; if employees are using informal mechanisms, they do not need to use formal policies. Supervisors involved in high LMX relationships are more likely to provide instrumental support, flexibility, latitude, and information than those involved in low LMX relationships. This instrumental support can be seen in increased tangible helping behaviors, such as switching schedules to help employees. Consequently, employees with high LMX will be more likely to receive informal support than those with low LMX and thus will be less likely to need to use formal leave policies.

In sum, it is possible that LMX makes family leave usage less necessary for high LMX employees (versus low LMX employees) because they receive more informal support from their supervisors. Thus:

*Hypothesis 3:* Informal support will mediate a negative relationship between LMX and leave policy usage. High LMX leads to more informal support, which leads to less family leave policy usage

*Cognitive mediator: Indebtedness.* Employees with high LMX relationships receive trust and latitude in scheduling and decision-making. They have also received favors from their

supervisors in the past and are likely to show loyalty, effort, and increased responsibility toward their supervisors (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). High-LMX employees feel a sense of indebtedness to their supervisors and, according to social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, are likely to reciprocate in terms of attitudes and behaviors that benefit the supervisor (Blau, 1964). Indebtedness is a kind of normative commitment to supervisors—employees do work for supervisors because they feel that they should. Traditionally, commitment has been studied as a relationship between an employee and an organization and normative commitment is a belief about one's moral responsibility to the organization (Wiener, 1982), or the idea that an individual remains at the organization because he or she should (N. Allen & Meyer, 1990). Individuals who have higher levels of normative commitment are less likely to leave the organization (Meyer, 1997). More recent research suggests that employees can be committed to teams and supervisors as well as organizations (Rousseau, 1997; S. J. Wayne et al., 1997).

Social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (Blau, 1964) explain that when employees feel a sense of loyalty and commitment toward the supervisor, they are likely to assume greater responsibility and effort than those employees with lower quality supervisor relationships. Leave policies take employees away from the workplace for a specified amount of time, and workers with high LMX are less likely to want to leave their bosses to do work on their own (because they feel committed and obligated to the supervisor). Therefore, I propose that high LMX employees (versus low LMX employees) are less likely to use family leave policies because of a sense of indebtedness or commitment to the supervisor.

*Hypothesis 4:* Indebtedness will mediate a negative relationship between LMX and leave policy usage. Employees with high LMX will feel more indebted to their supervisors, and feelings of indebtedness will lead to less family leave policy usage

#### *Additional Factors/Conditions*

It is also important to examine two notable group differences: gender and occupational status. Work-life researchers often focus their research on only one gender or on only one type of employee (Eby et al., 2005). It is important to tease apart any effects that group differences may have on the results of the present study. Gender and occupational status may moderate the relationship between LMX and family leave usage. Moderating variables explain when relationships exist (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

*Employee gender.* Employee gender is the first important additional factor that is examined in this study. Many work-life researchers focus on single-sex samples (Bernas & Major, 2000; McManus et al., 2002). A review of work-family research found that gender differences are essential to understanding the work-family interface (Eby et al., 2005). Some research suggests that there are mean differences between men and women in terms of family leave policy utilization. Females are more likely to report the need for family-friendly policies and are also more likely to utilize formal family leave policies (Fried, 1998; Gerstel & McGonagle, 1999; Kossek et al., 1999) although men with families report higher levels of interference between their jobs and their family lives than women in the same situation (Bond et al., 2002). Therefore, it is important to include gender as a variable of interest in the present study.

While gender is clearly related to the usage of family leave policies, there are mixed results as to whether it is related to requests for help with family problems. Two studies demonstrated that men were more likely than women to approach a supervisor or coworker for help with a problem, whereas women were more likely to seek help from a family member or friend outside of work (Reed, 1994; van der Pompe & de Heus, 1993). Women, more than men, reported it more embarrassing to approach a supervisor for help with a personal or family problem than to go to a friend, relative, or doctor (Harris & Fennell, 1988). Furthermore, managers reported that they were more likely to hear about work-family problems from men than from women (Galinsky, Ruopp, & Blum, 1986). Other studies have found that women are more likely than men to seek help for their problems (Hopkins, 2002).

It is also unclear how gender relates to LMX, or how it would moderate the LMX-family leave policy usage relationship. Some studies have found that women may be at a disadvantage in terms of developing high LMX relationships (Callan, 1993; Harris & Fennell, 1988; S. J. Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 1994) while other studies have found no effects of gender differences (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993).

Because gender may affect the relationship between LMX and leave policy usage, it is included as a control variable predicting usage. In addition, the proposed relationships may operate differently for men and women. Since previous research suggests that it is important to study men and women separately (Eby et al., 2005), an exploratory analysis into how differences

between these two groups may impact relationships between LMX and family leave utilization will be undertaken, but no specific hypotheses are made.

*Occupational status.* As with gender, previous research typically does not look across occupational types such as blue-collar and white-collar jobs. Most work-family research focuses on white-collar samples (Eby et al., 2005), neglecting to address the possibility that blue- and white-collar employees may deal with family responsibilities in different ways. For example, blue-collar families may be more likely to rely on family daycare than utilizing family leave policies and may have more monetary constraints when discussing family leave options. As with gender, occupational status will be included as a control variable predicting usage. Furthermore, an exploratory analysis into how differences between these blue- and white-collar workers may impact relationships between LMX and family leave utilization will be undertaken, but no specific hypotheses are made.

### *Summary*

Previous research on family-friendly policies has suggested that supervisor support for family is important in family leave usage. Supervisor support for work also needs to be investigated. This study extends previous research and makes three contributions to the family-policy literature. First, this study investigates the role that leader-member exchange plays in family leave policy usage. Second, this study investigates mediators of the LMX—family leave policy usage relationship in order to help us understand why employees make decisions to use or not use family leave. Finally, this study investigates how the proposed relationships differ for male and female employees as well as for blue- and white-collar employees.

## Chapter 2

### METHOD

#### *Participants*

Participants were 368 employees from four different wood products manufacturing plants in Pennsylvania. All plants had at least 50 employees, thus requiring them to offer FMLA benefits to employees. Three of the four companies were owned by the same German parent company and these companies all used the same employee handbook. The fourth company (consisting of 45 of the study participants) was a small, family-owned firm. All companies considered themselves to be progressive and family-oriented. There were no differences between the plants in terms of leave policy usage.

Participants were both line workers ( $n = 313$ ; 85%) and professionals ( $n = 51$ ; 15%) and were included in the study if they had been working with the company for at least six months and worked at least 40 hours a week. The majority of the sample was Caucasian (92%) and male (85%). Seventy-one percent of the sample had some high school education or a high-school degree and the other 29% had at least some college education. Approximately half (53%) of the participants reported being married or cohabitating at the time of the study and 49% of the sample had children under 18 living with them. Two hundred and seven participants reported their spousal employment status and of these participants 26% had spouses who were not employed, 17% had spouses who were employed part-time, and 56% had spouses who were employed full-time. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 66 and 73% of the sample were aged 40 or younger.

#### *Procedure*

Initial contact was made with furniture manufacturers by a professor familiar with companies in this industry. Four companies out of five that were invited indicated interest in participating in the study. Paper-and-pencil surveys were then administered to the furniture-manufacturing employees on-site by the author and the previously mentioned professor. Employees were given approximately 30-45 minutes of break time during their shifts to complete the questionnaire. A total of 378 surveys were received, although 10 of these surveys were not completed, for a total of 368 usable surveys. It is difficult to determine a precise

response rate, as the organizations could not provide an exact count of the number of workers employed at the time of the study. Based on organizational estimates of employee numbers and response rates for similar surveys distributed to similar companies, it is estimated that the response rate for the present study ranged from 85-90% for each organization. The study was described to all participants as research designed to examine employee views regarding 1) balancing work and non-work and 2) the effect of employer-supervisor relationships on important work outcomes.

### *Measures*

All measures and the complete survey can be found in Appendices B and C.

*Family leave benefit utilization.* Family leave benefit utilization was measured in two ways. A list of types of family leave was provided: FMLA child illness, elder illness, personal illness; paid maternity and paternity leave; unpaid maternity and paternity leave and personal sick days, family sick days, vacation days, and personal days. Participants were asked to indicate (1) past usage of each of the different types of leave and (2) their future intentions to request each of the different types of family leave. Family leave benefit availability was assessed from organizational handbooks and it was ascertained that all types of leave were available in all organizations.

Past leave usage was measured in a check-list format. Employees could indicate whether they had used or not used each of the different types of family leave. Intentions to request leave were measured on a 5-point scale used by Butler et al (2004) ranging from (1) very unlikely to (5) very likely. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .81. It has been suggested that it is important to measure intentions because actual benefit usage is quite low and restricted variance in the benefit usage measure may preclude the discovery of important relationship. Furthermore, intentions may be particularly relevant to the use of family-friendly benefits because work and family circumstances are dynamic, such that an individual may not need family benefits now, but may anticipate a need for them in the future (Butler, Gasser, & Smart, 2004). Finally, previous research has found differential relationships between work outcome expectancies and actual use of policies versus intentions to use policies (Butler et al., 2004).



*Leader-Member Exchange.* The quality of exchange between employees and their supervisors was measured using the LMX-7, a 7-item scale (Scandura & Graen, 1984). Although it is important to collect both leader and member impressions, Gerstner and Day (1997) report that LMX is more reliably assessed from a member's perspective; thus in the present study LMX will be assessed from the member's perspective. An example item from this scale is "How well does your leader recognize your potential?" Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .89.

LMX researchers disagree as to the uni- or multi-dimensionality of the construct (Dienesch & Liden, 1996; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Scandura & Graen, 1984; Schriesheim et al., 1999). Graen and colleagues believe that the exchanges between leaders and members are limited to work-related exchanges, and thus are one-dimensional. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) report that the most consistent finding of the testing across studies of multidimensionality is homogeneity on the single dimension (Cronbach alphas for single measures are in the .88-.90 range) and mixed findings for multidimensionality that are dependent on the methodology (multiple dimensions are not found on exploratory factor analyses but are found on confirmatory factor analyses). They conclude that these dimensions are so highly correlated they can be tapped with a single dimension of LMX. In a meta-analysis, Gerstner and Day (1997) also suggested that the most consistent finding across studies is homogeneity on the single dimension. The LMX-7 (Graen, Liden et al., 1982; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Scandura & Graen, 1984) has become the most commonly-used measure of LMX. Research has found that this measure has the soundest psychometric properties of all LMX instruments. The LMX-7 has higher than average alphas when compared to other LMX measures. Furthermore, studies using the LMX-7 have higher correlations with outcome variables (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

*Career consequences.* The extent to which participants expect to encounter career consequences such as being passed over for a promotion and no raise if they did use or intend to use family policies was assessed using a scale developed by Thompson and colleagues (1999). Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with 4 items on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. An example item is "Turning down a promotion or transfer for family-related reasons will seriously hurt one's career progress with my supervisor." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .85.

*Informal support.* Informal supervisor support was assessed with a 9-item index (Shinn, Wong, Simko, & Ortiz-Torres, 1989). A 5-point frequency response scale, ranging from (1) never to (5) very often was used to rate how often in the past 2 months one's supervisor engaged in specific supportive behaviors, such as "switching schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate my family responsibilities". Coefficient alpha for this measure was .64 with all items included. Analyses suggested that the scale would be more reliable if the first item was removed. The final 8-item scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .75.

*Indebtedness.* Participants were asked to indicate the extent they feel indebted to their supervisors. Indebtedness to supervisors is similar to indebtedness to organizations, or normative organizational commitment. Thus, indebtedness to the organization was measured using Allen and Meyer's (1990) measure of normative commitment. Items were modified so that they referenced the commitment to the supervisor rather than the organization. Since three items did not make sense when referencing the supervisor, only 5 of the original 8 items were used in the present study. Based on reviewer suggestions, two items assessing feelings of guilt were also developed for the present study, including "I would feel guilty if I felt that I was not being loyal to my supervisor" and "If I left this supervisor, I would feel a sense of guilt". Agreement was assessed on a 5-point scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Example items include "I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his/her supervisor" and "One of the major reasons that I continue to work for this supervisor is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to come to work everyday". Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .70.

*Control variables.* Gender, marital status, occupational status, and work hours were collected to include as control variables in the regression equations because of their potential relationships with the dependent variables. Other demographic information relevant to work-family studies (Eby et al., 2005) was also collected from participants. *Gender* and *marital status* were coded as dummy variables. *Job level* was assessed using the following levels (used by Thompson et al., 1999): hourly worker, first-level supervisor, and middle manager or professional. *Work hours* were measured by asking respondents to report the number of hours they worked in an average week.

### *Analysis Plan*

Analyses included bivariate correlations, mediation analyses, and moderated multiple regression analyses. First, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were tested using bivariate correlations to see if there was a correlation between LMX and leave policy usage. Second, mediation analyses were conducted to test hypotheses 2-5. Finally, exploratory analyses were conducted in order to test the effects of gender and occupational status on the hypothesized relationships: moderated logistic regression and multiple regression analyses were conducted.

The control variables of gender, marital status, occupational status, and work hours were included as control variables for all analyses. All analyses were also conducted adding parental status to the other control variables, but this variable did not affect relationships so is not reported.

*Leave used.* Since I was interested in examining relationships with a dichotomous dependent variable (past policy leave usage or no usage), I used three separate logistic regression equations for the three types of outcomes in assessing whether Hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported. Past leave was regressed on the controls in step 1. In step 2, LMX was entered into the regression equation.

*Intentions to use leave.* In addition to examining the dichotomous variable of leave used, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were tested using regression equations. Intentions to use leave were regressed on the control variables in step 1 and on LMX in step 2.

*Mediation analyses.* In order to test hypotheses 2-4, mediation analyses were performed. I followed the recommendations of Baron and Kenny (1986) for testing mediation: I (1) examined correlations between the IV and the mediator; (2) examined correlations between the IV and DV; and (3) examined correlations between the mediator and DV. If these relationships were all significant, I (1) regressed the independent variable on the dependent variable and (2) regressed the independent variable and mediator on the dependent variable. If the beta weight of the IV was no longer significant after controlling for the mediator, then mediation existed. Sobel tests were also computed in a stricter test of mediation.

*Exploratory analyses.* In order to test the effects of gender and occupational status on the proposed relationships, moderated regression analyses were computed and the continuous variable of LMX was centered prior to the creation of the interaction terms (Aiken & West, 1991). In the first step, the dependent variable was regressed on the control variables of gender, marital status, work hours, and occupational status. In the second step, the dependent variable was regressed on LMX. In the third step, the dependent variable was regressed on the interaction of gender and LMX or occupational status and LMX.

*Curvilinear analyses.* Curvilinear analyses were also performed on all relationships. Since it was hypothesized that the relationship between LMX and family leave usage could be positive (Hypothesis 1a) or negative (Hypothesis 1b) it is possible that the relationship between LMX and family leave usage is curvilinear such that employees with both low and high levels of LMX are less likely to use family leave usage than those with medium levels of LMX, but for different reasons. Thus, regressions, mediation analyses, and exploratory analyses were all run on the curvilinear relationship between LMX and usage of family leave policies.

## Chapter 3

### RESULTS

The means, standard deviations, and correlations for each of the study variables are shown in Table 2. Reliability coefficients for scales are reported along the diagonal.

#### *Dependent Variable*

The dependent variable of leave policy usage was conceptualized in a number of different ways. First, participants indicated whether or not they had, at any time in the past, used any of eight leave policies that were offered by their organization (FMLA leave for child care, FMLA leave for eldercare, paid maternity/paternity leave, unpaid maternity/paternity leave, FMLA leave for personal illness, personal sick days, family sick days, and personal days). I originally intended to use the sum of the number of leave variables utilized (following the protocol of Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005). However, the usage of policies overall was quite low so I decided to look at whether any policies had been used or not. If participants indicated using *any* of the 8 policies, they are considered to have used leave policies in the past. Upon further investigation, the responses seemed to cluster around two separate categories: personal leave policies and parental leave policies. Thus, I created two more usage categories. If participants used at least one personal leave policy in the past, they were coded as one; if no personal leave policies were used, participants were coded as zero. Similarly, if a participant used at least one parental leave policy in the past, this was coded as a one and if a participant had not used any parental leave policies, a zero.

Second, participants indicated the likelihood (on a 5-point scale) that they would use each of these eight policies in the future. The mean of all items was computed (similar to Butler et al., 2004). A factor analysis of the intentions items indicated two separate distinct factors with eigenvalues over 1.0: intentions to use personal leave and intentions to use parental leave. In order to provide complete data, I decided to also include a measure of the overall intentions to use leave. This is similar to Thompson and colleagues (1999) who reported data on an overall family-friendly culture scale as well as three separate factors indicated by a factor analysis. The intention to use elder care item did not load on either scale and since it had low frequencies, was dropped from further analyses. All further analyses were computed with three separate

dependent variables: overall leave, personal leave, and parental leave. Each dependent variable had two levels: past usage and future intentions to use leave. The dichotomous usage scales were analyzed using logistic regression. The intentions scales were analyzed using multiple regression.

### *Descriptive Statistics*

Frequencies of past leave policy usage and overall intentions to use leave policies are reported in Tables 3 and 4. Overall, 163 participants (44%) used some type of leave policy. Of those who reported having children, 7% reported past usage of FMLA for childcare ( $n = 13$ ), 5% for unpaid maternity/paternity leave ( $n = 10$ ) and 7% for paid maternity/paternity leave ( $n = 13$ ). Only 1% ( $n = 5$ ) of the sample used FMLA leave to care for elders. In terms of personal leave, 30% of the sample ( $n = 109$ ) used personal days, 14% ( $n = 52$ ) used FMLA for personal illness, 13% ( $n = 49$ ) used personal sick days, and 5% ( $n = 17$ ) used family sick days. There were no between-plant differences in usage or intentions to use family policies.

Regarding intentions to use leave policies, one hundred twenty-one participants (33%) reported being somewhat likely or very likely to use FMLA for child illness sometime in the future. Sixty-seven participants (18%) reported being somewhat likely or very likely to use FMLA for elder care, 37 participants (10%) paid maternity/paternity leave, and 31 participants (9%) unpaid maternity/paternity leave. Regarding personal leave policies, 237 participants (65%) reported being somewhat likely or very likely to use personal days in the future, 165 participants (45%) personal sick days, 128 participants (35%) FMLA for personal illness, and 121 participants (33%) family sick days. See Table 4 for a summary of these results and for comparisons between parents and non-parents.

### *Bivariate Correlations*

Hypotheses 1a and 1b were tested using bivariate correlations to determine if there was a relationship between LMX and past leave policy usage or LMX and future leave intentions (see Table 2). Hypothesis 1a predicted that LMX would be positively related to leave policy usage and Hypothesis 1b predicted that LMX would be negatively related to leave policy usage. Hypothesis 1a was not supported: LMX was not positively related to any of the outcome variables. Hypothesis 1b was partially supported. LMX was not significantly related to any of the

past usage scales (overall usage, usage of personal policies, and usage of parental policies for those with children) (correlations between  $-.005$  and  $.063$ ). LMX was also not related to overall leave intentions ( $r = -.102$ ) or employee intentions to use parental leave ( $r = -.079$  for parents). However, LMX was significantly negatively related to intentions to use policies for personal leave ( $r = -.150, p < .01$ ). Regression results including the control variables supported these findings.

### *Linear Mediation Analyses*

As stated in the analysis plan, a mediation analysis was conducted next. The first steps of a mediation analysis consist of testing several bivariate correlations. As shown in Table 2, bivariate correlations indicated that LMX was related to all three proposed mediator variables (career consequences:  $r = -.334, p < .01$ ; informal support:  $r = .688, p < .01$ ; and indebtedness:  $r = .430, p < .01$ ). Second, as mentioned above, LMX was only related to the dependent variable of intentions to use personal leave policies and this relationship was negative ( $r = -.150, p < .01$ ); therefore mediation analyses can only be conducted for this dependent variable. Finally, the dependent variable of intentions to use personal leave policies was not related to career consequences ( $r = .082$ ) (and thus career consequences did not mediate the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave), but was related to informal support ( $r = -.113, p < .05$ ) and indebtedness ( $r = -.191, p < .01$ ). Therefore, only the two proposed mediators of the negative relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave were tested.

*Informal support.* Hypothesis 3 proposed that informal support would mediate the negative relationship between LMX and leave policy usage. This hypothesis was not supported (see Table 5). A regression equation was computed using intentions to use personal leave as the dependent variable. In the first step of the regression analysis the control variables were entered (gender, marital status, work hours, and occupational status). In the second step of the regression equation, LMX was significantly related to intentions to use personal leave ( $\beta = -.131, p < .05$ ). In the third step of the regression, informal support was not significantly related to intentions to use personal leave ( $\beta = -.017$ ). Thus, informal support did not mediate the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave.

*Indebtedness.* Hypothesis 4 predicted that indebtedness would mediate the relationship between LMX and leave policy usage. This hypothesis was supported (see Table 6) with the dependent variable of intentions to use personal leave. A regression equation was computed with personal leave intentions as the dependent variable. In the first step of the regression equation the control variables (gender, marital status, work hours, and occupational status) were entered. In the second step of the regression, LMX was related to intentions to use personal leave ( $\beta = -.118$ ,  $p < .05$ ). In the third step of the regression, indebtedness was related to intentions to use personal leave ( $\beta = -.168$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Furthermore, the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave ( $\beta = -.050$ , n.s.), was reduced to non-significance when controlling for indebtedness (see Table 6). To further show evidence of mediation, a Sobel test was conducted (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Preacher & Leonardelli, 2001, March). The Sobel test also supported mediation ( $t = 1.98$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Thus, indebtedness mediated the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave.

In summary, there was a negative linear relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave policies. However, there were no significant linear relationship between LMX and past use of policies (overall, parental or personal), overall intentions to use policies, or intentions to use parental policies. Given the negative correlation, I performed a mediation analysis to determine if informal support or indebtedness explained this negative relationship. Although informal support did not mediate the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave, indebtedness did mediate this relationship, suggesting that indebtedness plays a role in explaining the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave policies.

### *Linear Exploratory Analyses*

*Gender.* Gender did not moderate the linear relationship between LMX and overall leave usage, LMX and personal or past leave usage, LMX and overall leave intentions, or LMX and intentions to use personal leave (see Table 7). Gender did, however, moderate the linear relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave. Entering the interaction term contributed a significant amount of unique variance ( $\Delta R^2 = .031$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and the beta weight was significant ( $\beta = -.592$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Follow-up analyses indicated that there was no relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave for male employees ( $r = .107$ , n.s.). However,



there was a significant negative relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave for female employees ( $r = -.295, p < .05$ ).

Further analyses were conducted to see if the relationship between LMX and the mediator variables was due to gender, as a step toward examining if any of the three mediators explained why gender moderated the LMX-parental leave relationship. The effects of gender on the relationships between LMX and the proposed mediating variables (career consequences, informal support, and indebtedness) were tested (see Table 8). Moderated regression analyses were computed. In the first step, the mediators were regressed on the control variables of gender, marital status, work hours, and occupational status. In the second step, the mediators were regressed on LMX. In the third step the mediators were regressed on the interaction of gender and LMX. Gender did not moderate the relationship between LMX and career consequences, informal support, or indebtedness. Thus, the proposed mediating variables in this study could not explain why there was a relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave for female employees.

*Occupational status.* Occupational status did not moderate the linear relationship between LMX and overall past leave usage, LMX and past parental or personal leave usage, LMX and overall intentions to use leave, or LMX and intentions to use parental leave. On the other hand, occupational status did moderate the linear relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave (see Table 9). The interaction term contributed a marginally significant amount of unique variance ( $\Delta R^2 = .007, p < .10$ ) and the beta weight was marginally significant ( $\beta = -.246, p < .10$ ). Follow-up analyses indicated that the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave was not significant for hourly, blue-collar employees ( $r = -.093, n.s.$ ), but there was a significant negative relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave for white collar employees (first-level managers and professionals;  $r = -.334, p < .05$ ).

In order to clarify this relationship, further analyses were conducted to test the effects of occupational status on the relationships between LMX and the proposed mediating variables (career consequences, informal support, and indebtedness). Moderated regression analyses were computed. In the first step, the mediators were regressed on the control variables of gender, marital status, work hours, and occupational status. In the second step, the mediators were regressed on LMX. In the third step the mediators were regressed on the interaction of

occupational status and LMX. As shown in Table 10, occupational status did not moderate the relationship between LMX and career consequences, informal support, or indebtedness.

### *Curvilinear Analyses*

One possibility for the lack of relationship between LMX and family leave usage for a number of the dependent variables may be that the relationship is actually curvilinear. Employees with both very high and very low quality relationships with their supervisors may be unlikely to use family leave while those with medium-quality relationships may be more likely to use family leave. Thus, in order to determine if nonlinearity existed, I conducted a regression analysis where the outcome variable (overall leave, personal leave, and parental leave; both usage and intentions) was regressed on the control variables in the first step, LMX in the second step, and LMX squared in the third step (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). If linearity best represented the form of the LMX-leave policy usage relationship, LMX alone would explain a significant amount of criterion variance. However, if the LMX squared term was significant and explained variance beyond that attributed to the linear term, a curvilinear (U or inverted U) form best represents the relationship between LMX and leave policy usage outcomes. Polynomial regression results are provided in Table 11. Results indicated that the nonlinear relationship explained additional variability in the relationship between LMX and past overall leave usage ( $b = -.239$ , Cox & Snell  $\Delta R^2 = .011$ ,  $p < .05$ ), past usage of personal leave ( $b = -.260$ , Cox & Snell  $\Delta R^2 = .011$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and intentions to use personal leave ( $b = -.234$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .032$ ,  $p < .01$ ) beyond the linear relationship. The relationship between LMX and overall intentions to use leave was marginally significant ( $b = -.009$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .010$ ,  $p < .10$ ). The negative coefficient for the unstandardized weight indicates that an inverted U-shape best represents the form of the relationship between LMX and the outcomes.

In order to better understand the relationships, I graphed them. The forms of the relationships are shown in Figures 2-4. These plots were generated using a formula outlined by Cohen and Cohen (1983) who suggest that once evidence of nonlinearity is established, the form of this relationship can be demonstrated by substituting item scores across a range of interest into the quadratic regression equation. In terms of scale scores to include, they advocate “substituting one high and one low value” (Cohen & Cohen 1983, p. 225) as endpoints. I chose two standard deviations above and below the mean as my high and low values for inclusion. I also included

values for one standard deviation above and below the mean, as well as for the mean. Based on the shape of the graphs, it appears that there is a curvilinear relationship (inverted-U shape) between LMX and overall past leave usage, past usage of personal leave, and intentions to use personal leave. Those with both low and high LMX relationships are less likely to use or intend to use these types of leave than those with medium-LMX relationships.

#### *Curvilinear Mediation Analyses*

Since the relationships between LMX and overall past usage, past usage of personal leave, and intentions to use personal leave were curvilinear, there may be different mediators for different subsets of participants. For example, those with low LMX relationships may be less likely to use leave due to fear of negative career consequences, while those high in LMX may be less likely to use leave due to indebtedness. I tested these relationships by dividing the sample into thirds. Negative career consequences did not mediate the relationship between LMX and overall past usage, past usage of personal leave, or intentions to use personal leave for those with low LMX. Furthermore, indebtedness did not mediate the relationship between LMX and overall past usage or past usage of personal policies for those with high LMX. However, indebtedness did mediate the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave for those with high LMX relationships (see Table 12). A Sobel test confirmed this relationship ( $t = 2.04, p < .05$ ).

#### *Curvilinear Exploratory Analyses*

*Gender.* Gender did not moderate the curvilinear relationship between LMX and overall leave usage, LMX and personal or parental leave usage, LMX and overall leave intentions, or LMX and intentions to use personal leave (see Table 13). Gender did, however, moderate the relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave. Entering the interaction term contributed a significant amount of unique variance ( $\Delta R^2 = .014, p < .05$ ) and the b weight was significant ( $b = 2.882, p < .05$ ). Further analyses showed a significant curvilinear relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave for women but not men.

*Occupational status.* Occupational status did not moderate the relationship between LMX and overall past leave usage, LMX and past parental or personal leave usage, LMX and overall

intentions to use leave, LMX and intentions to use parental leave, or LMX and intentions to use personal leave (see Table 14).

### *Post Hoc Analyses*

Post hoc analyses were conducted to determine if there were differences among different groups of participants. Subgroups investigated included men versus women, blue collar employees versus white collar employees, and parents versus non-parents.

*Gender.* First, tests of the curvilinear relationship between LMX and leave policy usage were conducted for men and women separately. As shown in Table 15, results indicated that there was no relationship between LMX and any of the past usage variables or overall intentions to use leave or intentions to use parental leave for men. However, there was a significant curvilinear relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave for men ( $b = -1.087$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .028$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Further analyses were conducted to determine if there were mediation effects for this relationship. For those with high levels of LMX, the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave was mediated by indebtedness. A Sobel test confirmed this relationship ( $t = 1.83$ ,  $p = .06$ ) (see Table 16). There were no other mediators to this relationship.

For women (as shown in Table 17), tests of the curvilinear relationship indicated that there was no relationship between LMX and past usage overall, past usage of personal leave, and past usage of parental leave (although this relationship was marginally significant:  $b = -.696$ ,  $p < .10$ ). Furthermore, there was no significant curvilinear relationship for women between LMX and overall intentions to use leave or intentions to use personal leave. However, there was a significant curvilinear relationship between LMX and future intentions to use parental leave ( $b = 1.692$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .075$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Indebtedness did not explain this relationship for high-LMX women (see Table 18).

*Occupational status.* Next, tests of the curvilinear relationship between LMX and usage were conducted for blue and white collar workers separately. Results indicated that there was no relationship between LMX and past usage of parental leave or overall intentions to use leave in the future for blue collar workers. However, there was a significant curvilinear relationship

between LMX and overall leave usage ( $b = -.269$ , Cox & Snell  $R^2 = .044$ ,  $p < .05$ ), past usage of personal leave ( $b = -.282$ , Cox & Snell  $R^2 = .038$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and intentions to use personal leave ( $b = -.236$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .035$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave was marginally significant ( $b = .138$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .014$ ,  $p < .10$ ). Indebtedness did not mediate any of these relationships. For a summary of these results, see Tables 19-20.

For white collar workers, (as shown in Table 21) there were no significant curvilinear relationships between LMX and any of the usage variables.

*Parental status* Finally, tests of the curvilinear relationship between LMX and leave policy usage were conducted for parents and non-parents separately. For parents (see Table 22), there was no relationship between LMX and past usage of leave (overall, parental, or personal) or overall intentions to use leave. However, there was a significant curvilinear relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave ( $b = -1.440$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .079$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and intentions to use parental leave ( $b = 1.076$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .030$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Further analyses were conducted to test for mediation. As shown in Table 23, results indicate that the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave was mediated by indebtedness for those with high LMX relationships with their supervisors. A Sobel test confirmed this relationship ( $t = 1.92$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

For non-parents (see Table 24), there was no relationship between LMX and past usage of parental leave or LMX and any of the leave intentions (overall, parental, or personal). However, there was a significant curvilinear relationship between LMX and past usage overall ( $b = -.573$ , Cox & Snell  $R^2 = .073$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and LMX and past usage of personal leave ( $b = -.537$ , Cox & Snell  $R^2 = .073$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Indebtedness did not mediate this relationship (see Table 25).

## Chapter 4

### DISCUSSION

Research on family-friendly policies has four components: benefits, policies, and programs; family-friendly culture; supportive workplace relationships; and work systems and structures. Previous research into these components shows that supervisor support for family is important for utilization of family leave policies (T. D. Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). Other research has shown that leader-member exchange is beneficial to work attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997). The present study aimed to combine family-friendly policy research with leadership research in an attempt to widen the scope of family-friendly research by looking at the broader construct of LMX. Prior research has not looked at the relationship between LMX and non-work roles and has focused on white-collar, middle-class employees. The present study had three main purposes: 1) Investigate the direction of the relationship between leader-member exchange and leave policy usage, 2) Understand why the relationship exists between employee-supervisor relationships and leave policy usage, and 3) Discern the effects of gender and occupational status on the hypothesized relationships. Results shed light on the importance of the entire supervisor-employee relationship in the utilization of family leave policies.

#### Family Leave Policy Usage

Researchers have not agreed upon the best way to conceptualize the family leave policy usage variable. In fact, little research has investigated family leave policy usage. The studies that have been done tend to focus on whether or not *past* policy usage is related to outcome variables such as work-family conflict or job satisfaction (T. D. Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Thompson et al., 1999). However, past usage of family leave policies is usually quite low, even among populations that would be expected to need them (e.g., those with young children, those in the sandwiched generation) (Butler et al., 2004; Hammer et al., 2005); thus recent researchers have suggested including an intentions to use policies variable in studies (Butler et al., 2004). Because of ambiguity in the work-family field as to how to measure the dependent variable, the present study examined both reported past usage *and* future intentions to use family leave and looked at these variables in three different ways. First, usage in general (both past usage and

future usage intentions) was conceptualized as whether or not an employee had utilized *any* of eight family leave policies (FMLA for child illness, FMLA for elder care, paid maternity/paternity leave, unpaid maternity/paternity leave; FMLA for personal illness, personal sick days, family sick days, or personal days). Second, usage was conceptualized in terms of parental leave policies such as paid and unpaid maternity/paternity leave. Finally, usage was conceived of as personal leave policies such as personal time off and personal sick days.

Policy usage for each of the types of leave ranged from 1%-13% of the sample, with the exception of personal days, which were used by 30% of the sample. It should be noted that employees in the present study may have used personal leave time in order to take care of parental responsibilities—respondents were only asked what type of leave they used, not the purpose of the leave. The fact that certain types of leave were used more than others is similar to findings of other studies (Hammer et al., 2005; Thompson et al., 1999). However, these other studies, which focused on white-collar workers, found that a higher percentage of the sample utilized both paid and unpaid family leave than in the present study (e.g., Hammer and colleagues reported that between 12.3% and 50.7% of the sample used unpaid, paid, or personal leave). Two explanations exist for these differences: First, Hammer's study focused on couples who were married or living together and research indicates that married individuals are more likely to use family leave than single individuals (Gerstel & McGonagle, 1999). Second, Hammer's study focused on white-collar workers who can often afford to take unpaid time off and whose organizations may offer better paid leave packages than those of blue collar workers (for example, in the present study employees had no paid sick days and only received between 2 and 5 personal days per year).

The overall intentions to use leave variable had low correlations with most study variables and some researchers have suggested dividing policy usage into two separate categories. For example, Allen (2001) and Hammer and colleagues (2005) differentiate between flextime and dependent care supports. The present study focused on two major categories of leave: parental and personal. Thus, the more specific scales of parental leave and personal leave were investigated. The overall intentions to use leave and the intentions to use parental leave variables showed low correlations with other study variables. Thus, in the present, mostly male, blue-collar sample, employees did not use or intend to use parental leave. However, in the present sample, the intentions to use personal leave variable did have significant relationships

with many of the study variables. Thus, much of the following discussion will focus on this variable.

### Is There a Relationship Between LMX and Leave Policy Usage?

As discussed earlier, most of the family leave outcome variables were not related to leader-member exchange. More specifically the quality of the relationship between the supervisor and subordinate did not influence whether or not an employee had used any of the eight types of family leave in the past, or whether an employee had used personal or parental leave in the past. Furthermore, relationship quality did not affect overall intentions to use leave policies, or intentions to use parental leave. In general, it seems that there is no consistent linear pattern between employees' perceived relationships with their supervisors and their usage of family leave policies. Other researchers have reported low correlations between usage of dependent care arrangements (including family leave and other parental policies) and family friendly cultures (T. D. Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Thompson et al., 1999); perhaps, then, it is not surprising that the present study found no relationship between LMX and parental policy usage.

Due to the lack of support for the linear effects, the present study also tested whether or not there was a curvilinear relationship between LMX and leave usage such that those with both low and high levels of LMX would be less likely to use or intend to use leave policies than those with medium LMX relationships. A curvilinear relationship would support both of the proposed competing hypotheses. Results indicated that there was no curvilinear relationship between LMX and past usage of or future intentions to use parental leave. One explanation for this lack of relationship is that the majority of the present sample represented male, hourly workers. These workers may be part of a "male culture" where it is not socially acceptable for men to use parental leave policies (e.g., Gutek et al., 1991). Thus, the relationship with the supervisor has no effect on usage of leave policies or intentions to use leave policies—these blue-collar men simply do not use or intend to use the policies, regardless of the relationship with the supervisor.

Similarly, usage and intentions to use parental leave policies may depend on factors other than employee-supervisor relationships, such as finances or policy need. Employees in the present sample may feel that they cannot afford to use parental leave policies, most of which are unpaid. Therefore, whether the employee has a positive or negative relationship with his or her



supervisor, he or she needs to be at work to earn a paycheck—leave will only be used in extreme situations when absolutely necessary. Likewise, regardless of the relationship that an employee has with his or her supervisor, if a child is sick, or if a baby is being born (and thus the employee really needs to use leave), employees will use leave. The reasons that employees would use leave policies may be so extreme that the relationship with the supervisor does not affect policy usage decisions. This is especially likely for parental leave policies versus personal leave policies. Personal leave policies may be less critical and therefore employees have more choice in whether or not to use these policies. In other words, paid personal leave may be a voluntary behavior, while parental leave may be non-voluntary.

In support of this idea, the present study found that the quality of an employee's relationship with his/her supervisor does affect this employee's past usage of and future intentions to use personal leave. There was a significant curvilinear relationship between LMX and past usage of and future intentions to use personal leave, a type of leave that is accessible to all employees in the present sample. Employees with high and low quality relationships with their supervisors were *less* likely to intend to use personal leave than those with medium-level LMX relationships; thus supporting both of the competing hypotheses. This is important because it suggests that employee-supervisor relationships may indeed affect the way that employees manage their family lives and issues, and in counterintuitive ways. High LMX is generally good for employees, leading to lower turnover intentions and higher commitment and job satisfaction (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997). However, in this sample, those with high LMX relationships were less likely to intend to use personal leave and, as discussed above, leave usage can lead to lower turnover intentions and higher levels of emotional health. Furthermore, these results suggest that having positive supervisor relationships may lead to negative implications for families. For example, previous research has found that employees with high levels of LMX experience more work-family conflict (Bernas & Major, 2000); this may be because employees with high quality relationships do not intend to use personal leave policies that help them to balance work and family. However, this is conjecture, as the relationship between LMX and work-family conflict was not measured in the present study, and previous research has focused on female samples and the present sample is male-dominated.

### Why is LMX Related to Leave Policy Usage?

The second purpose of the present study was to investigate why LMX relationships affect employee use or intentions to use family leave policies. Based on the above section, we know that there is a curvilinear relationship between LMX and leave policy usage such that employees who have high and low quality relationships with their supervisors are somewhat less likely to have utilized or intend to utilize personal leave than those with medium-quality relationships. Thus in this section I will discuss possible mediators of the LMX—usage of/intentions to use personal leave relationship.

Initially, three potential mediators to the LMX-personal leave usage relationship were hypothesized: an affective mediator (fear of negative career consequences), a behavioral mediator (informal support) and a cognitive mediator (indebtedness). I suggested that employees with high quality relationships may be *more* likely to use family leave because those with high quality relationships receive affect, loyalty, trust, and support from their supervisors. Thus, employees may feel that the supervisor will not punish them for using leave policies and, consequently, have less of a fear of negative career consequences. Conversely, employees with low quality LMX relationships would be less likely to use family policies due to a fear of negative career consequences.

On the other hand, I suggested that a negative relationship between LMX and leave policy usage could be explained by two mechanisms: informal support and indebtedness. Employees who have high quality relationships with supervisors may be less likely to use or intend to use leave policies because they receive informal support from supervisors and thus do not need to use leave policies. Additionally, employees with high quality relationships with their supervisors may feel indebted to supervisors, and thus not want to use leave policies. As a result, we would expect that employees with low-quality supervisor relationships would not use leave policies due to a fear of career consequences and those with high-quality LMX relationships would not use leave policies due to informal support and/or indebtedness.

#### *Career Consequences*

One reason for the positive relationship between LMX and usage/intentions to use family leave policies for employees with low LMX may be that employees with poor supervisory relationships fear retribution on the part of the supervisor if they use leave policies. Indeed,

research has shown that using any type of leave, be it medical or parental, can negatively affect promotions and career advancement for all employees (e.g., Judiesch & Lyness, 2000). These negative effects may be more likely for employees who are already on the bad side of the supervisor. Results from the present study found that a fear of career consequences did not explain the relationship between LMX and usage/intentions to use personal leave for employees with low levels of LMX.

One reason for this nonsignificant finding could be due to the fact that the employees in the present study did not have particularly low levels of LMX. For example, those with “low” relationships rated their relationship with their supervisor at a 2.5 on a scale of 5. There were too few employees with extremely low levels of LMX to investigate the effects of career consequences on the relationship between LMX and family policy usage for these employees.

### *Informal Support*

As discussed above, one reason that employees with very high relationships with their supervisors may be less likely to intend to use personal leave policies is that supportive supervisors provide informal support to employees. Employees who have high quality relationships with supervisors receive instrumental support, flexibility, latitude, and information from their supervisors. Supervisors may help employees to balance work and family needs by allowing for flexible deadlines or letting employees leave work early when they have school functions to attend. In this case, employees would not need to use formal policies, because they are dealing with their work-family issues through informal methods. In the present study, however, the results indicate that, for employees with high quality supervisory relationships, the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave policies is not explained by informal support. Employees with higher-quality relationships did receive more informal support from supervisors than those with low-quality relationships. However, this support did not lead to less usage of family policies. In fact, informal support was not related to past usage of or future intentions to use family leave (with the exception of the negative relationship between informal support and intentions to use personal leave).

Interestingly, Allen (2001) and Thompson and colleagues (1999) both found a *positive* relationship between informal support (which they labeled supervisor support and managerial support respectively) and leave usage (although this was for all employees, not only those with

positive supervisory relationships). The scale that Thompson used to measure managerial support has been criticized since its items pertain to both managers and the organization overall—this may explain the different findings in her sample and in the present study. However, Allen (2001) used the same scale used in the present study. One explanation for the differences found in the present study and Allen's study can be attributed to the usage scales used. Allen found a positive relationship between flexible benefits used and informal support; however she did not find any relationship between dependent care policy usage (similar to family leave usage in the present study) and informal support. Perhaps if I had included a measure of flextime in the present study, I too would have found a positive relationship between informal support and family policy usage.

### *Indebtedness*

A second possible explanation for the negative relationship between leader-member exchange and intentions to use personal leave for those with high LMX relationships may be that employees who have better relationships with their supervisors feel indebted or obligated to their supervisors. Employees with high quality relationships with supervisors have received trust and latitude from supervisors and also have received favors in the past. They tend to show loyalty and increased effort and responsibility toward the supervisor and feel obligated to provide support and favors. These employees may not be willing to inconvenience the supervisor or they may feel guilty about leaving a shift uncovered.

Results from the present sample indicate that indebtedness does indeed mediate the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave for those with high-quality supervisory relationships. In other words, the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave is due to feelings of employee indebtedness for employees with high-quality supervisory relationships. Employees who have higher quality relationships feel a sense of obligation toward their supervisors and are thus less likely to intend to use their personal days than those with medium quality supervisory relationships. This finding is in line with a recent study of public sector employees that found that inducements and obligations were important in predicting organizational citizenship behaviors (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). In the present study, one could view the idea of not using leave as a type of OCB. In both the Coyle-Shapiro study and the present study, employees who received positive outcomes from their supervisors

such as support and latitude in turn felt obligation and indebtedness toward the supervisor, a finding that can be explained by social exchange theory (Blau, 1964).

Along with previous research suggesting the positive effects of LMX on employees (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997), this study also shows the positive effects of LMX for supervisors. In many blue-collar environments, the work that employees are engaging in is somewhat repetitive and grueling. If supervisors want their employees to not intend to use personal days (which is important in assembly-line work) they should develop high-quality relationships with subordinates. Results suggest that all supervisors, but especially those in assembly-line type jobs where employee attendance is essential, should develop high-quality relationships with employees in order to engender feelings of indebtedness on the part of the employee. Employees with low-quality LMX relationships also are less likely to use leave policies, but low quality LMX has other negative outcomes such as low job satisfaction and high intentions to turnover. Thus, supervisors should not create low LMX relationships to keep employees in the workplace.

While this finding may prove to be positive for supervisors who do not want their employees to use leave policies, it is also somewhat troubling. The employees with high quality relationships in the present study did not intend to use personal leave policies and utilization of leave policies provides beneficial employee outcomes such as decreased job stress and increased morale. If employees do not use leave policies, these beneficial effects cannot be recognized. Furthermore, not intending to use personal leave policies could have detrimental effects on an employee's family. Results from the present study suggest that employees, due to a sense of obligation toward the supervisor, may feel that they have to put work above family, which could potentially lead to increased levels of work-family conflict (although this was not examined in the present study).

#### What are the Effects of Gender and Occupational Status on the Relationship Between LMX and Leave Policy Usage?

The third and final purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of gender and occupational status on the hypothesized relationships. In other words, do gender and/or occupational status moderate the curvilinear relationship between LMX and leave policy usage? How does the relationship between LMX and the outcome variables change based on gender and occupational status?

### *Gender*

Results indicate that gender did not moderate the curvilinear relationship between LMX and most of the leave variables. However, gender did moderate the curvilinear relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave. The correlation was non-significant overall. The non-significant relationship could be due to the fact that there was a significant curvilinear relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave only for women, who are a small proportion of the sample. Females who have high-quality or low-quality relationships with their supervisors are less likely to intend to use parental leave policies than those with medium-quality LMX relationships. However, for men, there is no relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave. This finding may be due to the culture in this particular work environment. Workers in this industry tend to have traditional gender roles. Thus, it may be possible that there was no relationship between LMX and parental leave intentions because males simply did not intend to use parental leave—they see this as the role of the female. Thus, the type of relationship that a male has with his supervisor has no effect on parental leave intentions. Future research should investigate the effects of gender role views on LMX-leave policy usage relationships.

It should be noted that gender only moderated the curvilinear relationship between LMX and intentions to use parental leave; it did not moderate the relationship between LMX and any of the other leave usage variables. There were no differences between women and men in intentions to use personal leave or overall leave intentions. It may be more socially acceptable for men to use personal leave than parental leave. Thus, for men LMX relationships do affect personal leave usage or intentions, but not parental leave.

### *Occupational Status*

The results also indicate that occupational status does not moderate the curvilinear relationship between LMX and any of the types of leave. The sample of white collar workers was very small, so I may not have had enough power to detect group differences. Therefore, I looked at the sample of blue-collar workers separately from the sample of white collar workers and some interesting results occurred. For salaried, white-collar workers there is no curvilinear relationship between LMX and the outcome variables. However, there is a linear relationship between these variables for white collar workers such that the higher the LMX relationship, the

less likely these white-collar workers are to intend to use personal leave. On the other hand, for hourly, or blue-collar employees, there is a curvilinear relationship between LMX and past usage of personal leave, overall leave usage, and future intentions to use personal leave such that those with both high and low quality LMX relationships are less likely to use or intend to use leave than those with medium-quality LMX relationships. This is a finding that needs to be studied further. None of the study variables explained this relationship.

### Implications

The present study has a number of implications for organizations. First, in general, the employees in the present study were unlikely to use, or intend to use, parental leave policies. The majority of these employees were blue-collar men, suggesting that blue-collar workers and/or male workers are unlikely to use parental leave policies. Usage of family policies in general has a number of positive outcomes for employees and organizations (e.g., decreased turnover, increased physical and mental health). Thus, organizations may want to implement policies such as paid leave time so that hourly workers can take advantage of these beneficial policies. Although employees in the present sample were offered some paid leave, they were only paid a percentage of their salaries for very short periods of time. More liberal policies may make these beneficial policies more accessible to lower income employees.

One of the most interesting findings in the present study is the finding of a curvilinear relationship between LMX and past usage of and future intentions to use personal leave policies. Employees with both more and less positive affiliations with their supervisors were less likely to use or intend to use personal leave policies than those with medium LMX relationships. There are several implications of this finding. First medium levels of LMX relationships between employees and supervisors are beneficial for individuals since employees who use personal leave policies recognize beneficial outcomes such as increased job satisfaction and increased mental health (e.g., Allen, 2001; Hyde et al., 1996). Usage of leave policies also leads to reduced turnover, which is a positive organizational outcome (Grover & Crooker, 1995). Furthermore, positive LMX relationships lead to other positive outcomes such as decreased stress and increased job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Thus, the best situation for both managers and employees may be medium levels of LMX.

However, employee usage of leave policies can also be harmful to organizations. Many times managers do not want their employees to take leave—both due to the fact that they lose qualified workers and because it is often difficult to find employees that will take on extra work. This is especially problematic in a blue-collar work environment (such as the present study), where employees participate in assembly-line type work. The absence of just one employee for any amount of time can wreak havoc on the system. Thus, managers would be happy to know that high-quality relationships are associated with less usage of personal leave.

Taken together, the results of the present study suggest that managers should be aware of the effect that they are having on their subordinates. Both high and low-quality relationships can have harmful effects on employees in terms of using valuable family leave policies. Training programs can teach managers the importance of discussing leave policies with their subordinates and of encouraging employee usage of such policies.

#### Limitations and Future Research

The present study has a few limitations. First, there may be methodological limitations in my conceptualization of leave usage. There are many different ways to operationalize leave usage that could lead to different outcomes. Usage can be considered as past usage of policies or future intentions to use policies. Past usage could be the mean level of all types of usage combined, the mean level of parental leave usage, the mean level of personal leave usage, or the individual level of usage of each policy. There may also be other ways of conceptualizing leave policy usage that would have led to different findings.

Similarly, the present study asked participants whether or not they had used specific types of leave. However, participants were not asked *why* they used the leave. It was assumed that employees who reported using personal leave policies (or future intentions to use these policies) were actually using these policies for themselves. However, it is very likely that those with children are actually using personal leave to care for their children; thus the line between parental policies and personal policies is blurred. In fact, of the employees who had used parental leave in the present study, 63% had also used personal leave. This suggests that employees may first use their personal leave time. If they still need time off, they will then turn to using parental leave. Future research can improve upon the present study by asking participants the type of leave they have used and why they used (or would use) this type of leave.



Since employees in the present study were mainly blue-collar employees, a possible limitation is that results may not generalize to other populations. Future research should focus on the relationship between LMX and leave usage for different types of samples. For example, in the present study, post hoc analyses indicated that the relationship between LMX and the different types of leave differed for men versus women; white collar workers versus blue collar workers; and parents versus non-parents (see Tables 15-24). Future studies should investigate the proposed relationships in a wide array of samples.

Finally, the present study investigated a limited set of mediating variables. It was found that indebtedness can help explain the relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave policies. However, indebtedness did not explain why women who have better relationships with their supervisors are less likely to intend to use parental leave policies than those with medium quality relationships or why white-collar workers with high quality relationships are less likely to intend to use personal leave policies than those with low-quality relationships. Future research should investigate other mediating variables such as type of psychological contract, need for family leave policies, and feelings of guilt.

Future research should also focus on co-worker exchange (CWX) and team-member exchange (TMX) relationships, which were not measured in the present study due to survey length constraints. Coworker exchanges are “exchanges among coworkers who report to the same supervisor” (Sherony & Green, 2002). TMX is similar to LMX, but with the team as the unit of focus rather than the supervisor (Seers, 1989; Seers, Petty, & Cashman, 1995). Since most employees spend more time interacting with peers and team members than with supervisors, understanding team and co-worker exchanges may be an important part of understanding how and why employees utilize family leave policies. In fact, coworkers and team members may play more of a role in an employee’s decision to use family leave policies than a supervisor. In support of this, some research has found that in order to be effective, family-supportive policies such as parental leave must be supported by coworkers (Kossek & Nichol, 1992). Thus, the hypotheses from the present study should also be investigated with coworkers/teammates. It may be that the proposed relationships are stronger for employee-coworker dyads than between employees and supervisors, especially in an environment where employees work closely with their peers.

Future research should also investigate the effects of gender role beliefs on the proposed relationships. For example, in a population where participants hold traditionally masculine beliefs (e.g., the man should be the primary breadwinner and women should stay home with children) we would expect gender differences in actual leave usage as well as future intentions to use leave. However, these differences may be less salient in individuals with less traditional gender role beliefs.

### Conclusion

The current study extended work-family research by combining research on leader-subordinate relationships with research on usage of family leave policies. Instead of focusing on supervisor support for family, as previous researchers have done (e.g., Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999) I looked at the broader construct of supervisor support for work (LMX) and investigated the relationship between LMX and past usage of and future intentions to use family leave policies. Furthermore, the present study investigated potential mediators of the relationship in order to understand *why* leader-subordinate relationships may affect past or future leave usage. Other research has failed to investigate explanatory mechanisms for found relationships.

In this study, I established that there is a relationship between employee-supervisor relationships and employee intentions to use personal leave policies and this relationship is due to indebtedness for those with high levels of LMX; however, this relationship is not linear. A better understanding of this relationship as well as the shape of the relationship in various samples could have an important impact on future manager training programs and employee leave policy utilization rates.

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## Appendix A: Tables and Figures

Table 1  
*Study Hypotheses*

<i>Number</i>	<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Results</i>
<i>1a</i>	LMX is positively related to leave policy usage. As LMX increases, leave policy usage will increase.	No Support
<i>1b</i> <i>Competing</i>	LMX is negatively related to leave policy usage. As LMX increases, leave policy usage will decrease.	Partial Support
2	Career consequences will mediate the relationship between LMX and leave policy usage. High LMX leads to less perceived negative career consequences, which leads to greater leave policy usage.	No Support
3	Informal support will mediate the relationship between LMX and leave policy usage. High LMX leads to more informal support, which leads to less leave policy usage	No Support
4	Indebtedness will mediate the relationship between LMX and use of formal leave policies. Employees with high LMX will feel more indebted to their supervisors, which leads to less leave policy usage	Partial Support
<i>Additional Variables</i>	Employee sex Occupational status	

Table 2  
*Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Study Variables*

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>15</i>
1. Gender	--	--	--														
2. Marital Stat.	--	--	-.01	--													
3. Children	1.19	5.24	.042	.403**	--												
4. Occup. Status	--	--	-.009	.132*	.004	--											
5. Work Hours	43.62	7.10	.207**	.133*	.100	.163**	--										
6. LMX	3.39	.89	.043	.026	.049	.226**	.107*	.89									
7 Career Consq.	2.42	.80	-.002	.054	.147**	.013	.040	-.334**	.85								
8. Informal Sup.	3.15	.76	.011	.030	.006	.211**	.158**	.688**	-.290**	.75							
9. Indebtedness	3.10	.83	.129*	.023	0.85	.108*	.049	.430**	-.098	.368**	.70						
10. Overall Intentions	2.27	.78	.087	.167**	-.086	-.091	-.047	-.102	.069	-.072	-.133*	.81					
11. Intentions Parental Leave	1.93	.90	.123*	.027	-.033	-.029	.024	.028	.008	.075	.039	.505**	.85				
12 Intentions Personal Leave	3.07	1.14	.072	.135**	-.028	-.113*	-.060	-.150**	.082	-.113*	-.191**	.891**	.168**	.82			
13. Usage (Yes/No)	.456	.499	.008	.177**	.092	-.041	.042	-.069	.067	-.087	.001	.085	.030	.177**	--		
14. Usage Parental Leave	.082	.275	.124*	.067	.027	-.007	-.010	-.005	-.023	-.020	.122*	-.006	-.019	-.022	.198**	--	
15. Usage Personal Leave	.426	.495	-.019	.137**	.088	-.059	.044	-.063	.076	-.086	-.017	.162**	.006	.189**	.471**	.126*	--

Note: Scale reliabilities are presented on the diagonal.

\* Correlation significant at the .05 level. \*\* Correlation significant at the .01 level.

Table 3

*Frequencies of Past Leave Policy Usage*

Leave Type	N Total Sample	% Total Sample	N Parents	% Parents	N Non-parents	% Non-parents
<b>Parental Leave Policies</b>						
FMLA child care	14	4%	13	7%	1	.5%
Unpaid maternity/paternity	13	4%	10	6%	0	0%
Paid maternity/paternity	10	3%	13	7%	0	0%
FMLA elder care*	5	1%	3	2%	1	.5%
<b>Personal Leave Policies</b>						
Personal days	109	30%	64	36%	45	24%
FMLA personal illness	52	14%	28	16%	24	13%
Personal sick days	49	13%	23	13%	26	14%
Family sick days	17	5%	6	3%	11	6%

*Note:*

Total sample includes % of individuals in total sample who used each type of policy (N = 368).

Parents includes % of parents who used each type of policy (N = 178).

Non-parents includes % of non-parents who used each type of policy (N = 190).

\*FMLA elder care did not load on either factor and was not grouped into personal leave policies or parental leave policies.

Table 4

*Frequencies of Participants who are “Somewhat Likely” or “Very Likely” to Intend to Use Leave Policies*

Leave Type	N Total Sample	% Total Sample	N Parents	% Parents	N Non-parents	% Non-parents
<b>Parental Leave Policies</b>						
FMLA child care	120	33%	87	49%	34	18%
Unpaid maternity/paternity	31	9%	16	9%	15	8%
Paid maternity/paternity	37	10%	17	10%	20	11%
FMLA elder care*	67	18%	36	20%	31	16%
<b>Personal Leave Policies</b>						
Personal days	237	65%	122	69%	115	61%
FMLA personal illness	128	35%	76	43%	52	27%
Personal sick days	165	45%	87	49%	78	41%
Family sick days	121	33%	75	42%	46	24%

*Note:*

Total sample includes % of individuals in total sample who intended to use each type of policy (N = 368).

Parents includes % of parents who intended to use each type of policy (N = 178).

Non-parents includes % of non-parents who intended to use each type of policy (N = 190).

\*FMLA elder care did not load on either factor and was not grouped into personal leave policies or parental leave policies.

Table 5

*Mediation Analysis of Linear Relationship Between LMX and Leave (Informal Support)*

<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.065	.073	.073
Marital Status	.160**	.158**	.158**
Work Hours	-.052	-.041	-.040
Occupational Status	-.143**	-.115*	-.114*
LMX		-.131*	-.120
Informal Support			-.017
R <sup>2</sup>	.049	.065	.065
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.049	.016*	.000

*Note.* β = standardized Beta weights

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01



Table 6

*Mediation Analysis of Linear Relationship Between LMX and Leave (Indebtedness)*

<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.062	.069	.088
Marital Status	.146**	.145**	.147**
Work Hours	-.054	-.043	-.039
Occupational Status	-.146**	-.121*	-.119*
LMX		-.118*	-.050
Indebtedness			-.168**
R <sup>2</sup>	.046	.059	.082
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.046	.013*	.023**

*Note.* β = standardized Beta weights

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 7

*Moderation of Gender on the Linear Relationship Between LMX and Leave*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.084	.089	.093	.064	.072	.069	.118*	.116*	.132*
Marital Status	-.186**	.184**	.184**	.162**	.160**	.160**	.015	.016	.014
Work Hours	-.045	-.038	-.035	-.052	-.041	-.043	-.014	-.016	-.006
Occupational Status	-.123*	-.105 <sup>a</sup>	-.104 <sup>a</sup>	-.141**	-.113*	-.113*	.050	.025	.027
LMX		-.088	.035		-.133	-.230		.024	.586*
LMX X Gender			-.129			.102			-.592*
R <sup>2</sup>	.054	.061	.063	.049	.065	.066	.016	.016	.047
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.054*	.007	.001	.049*	.017*	.001	.016*	.001	.031**

Note. β = standardized Beta weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 7 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.027	-.009	.011	-.160	-.139	-.135	1.049*	1.057*	1.035*
Marital Status	.213	.242	.242	.201*	.200*	.200*	.191	.190	.196
Work Hours	.011	.012	.013	.010	.012	.012	.009	.010	.013
Occupational Status	-.267	-.223	-.222	-.322	-.272	-.272	-.012	.004	.009
LMX		-.128	.201		-.147	-.068		-.047	1.031
LMX X Gender			-.286			-.069			-.844 <sup>a</sup>
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.031	.034	.036	.025	.029	.029	.019	.019	.028
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.042	.046	.048	.034	.039	.039	.043	.043	.062

Note. β = standardized Beta weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 8

*Moderation of Gender on the Linear Relationship Between LMX and “Mediators”*

	<i>Career Consequences</i>			<i>Informal Support</i>			<i>Indebtedness</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.034	.052	.055	.034	-.007	-.009	.133*	.107*	.113*
Marital Status	.054	.051	.054	-.009	-.001	-.001	.011	.014	.013
Work Hours	.032	.064	.064	.137*	.080	.079*	.057	.019	.023
Occupational Status	-.014	.066	.066	.197**	.054	.054	.101*	.012	.013
LMX		-.374**	-.360**		.668**	.599**		.412**	.657**
LMX X Occupational Status			-.015			.072			-.258
R <sup>2</sup>	.005	.137	.137	.064	.483	.484	.030	.189	.195
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.005	.132**	.000	.064*	.420**	.000	.030*	.159**	.006

Note. β = standardized Beta weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 9

*Moderation of Occupational Status on the Linear Relationship Between LMX and Leave*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Intentions Personal Leave</i>			<i>Intentions Parental Leave</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.084	.089	.091	.064	.072	.075	.118*	.116*	.116*
Marital Status	.186**	.184**	.185**	.162**	.160**	.161**	.015	.016	.016
Work Hours	-.045	-.038	-.036	-.052	-.041	-.038	.014	-.016	-.016
Occupational Status	-.123*	-.105*	-.067	-.141**	-.113*	-.056	.030	.025	.026
LMX		-.088	.053		-.133*	.077		.024	.025
LMX X Occupational Status			-.165			-.246 <sup>a</sup>			-.002
R <sup>2</sup>	.054	.061	.065	.049	.065	.073	.016	.016	.016
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.054	.007	.004	.049	.017*	.007 <sup>a</sup>	.016	.000	.000

Note. β = standardized Beta weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 9 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	-0.27	-.009	-.019	-.160	-.139	-.144	1.049*	1.057*	1.029*
Marital Status	.243	.242	.242	.201*	.200*	.200*	.191	.190	.190
Work Hours	.011	.012	.012	.010	.012	.011	.009	.010	.008
Occupational Status	-.267	-.223	-.340	-.322	-.272	-.329	-.012	.004	-.383
LMX		-.128	-.398		-.147	-.282		-.047	-.725
LMX X Occupational Status			.237			.119			.594
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.031	.034	.042	.025	.029	.030	.019	.019	.025
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.042	.046	.057	.034	.040	.040	.043	.043	.055

Note.  $\beta$  = standardized Beta weights

<sup>a</sup>  $p < .10$

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .01$

Table 10

*Moderation of Occupational Status on the Linear Relationship Between LMX and “Mediators”*

	<i>Career Consequences</i>			<i>Informal Support</i>			<i>Indebtedness</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.034	.052	.053	.034	-.007	-.007	.133*	.107*	.107*
Marital Status	.054	.051	.051	-.009	-.001	-.001	.011	.014	.014
Work Hours	.032	.064	.064	.137*	.080*	.080*	.057	.019	.020
Occupational Status	-.014	.066	.079	.197**	.054	.050	.101 <sup>a</sup>	.012	.027
LMX		-.374**	-.326**		.668**	.653**		.412**	.468**
LMX X Occupational Status			-.056			.018			-.066
R <sup>2</sup>	.005	.137	.137	.064	.483	.483	.030	.189	.190
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.005	.132**	.000	.064*	.420**	.000	.030*	.159**	.001

Note. β = standardized Beta weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 11

*Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.206	.218	.229 <sup>a</sup>	.205	.229	.254	.348*	.343*	.331*
Marital Status	.117**	.117**	.115**	.134**	.132**	.129**	.001	.001	.001
Work Hours	.000	.000	-.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Occupational Status	-.192*	-.163 <sup>a</sup>	-.156 <sup>a</sup>	-.286*	-.229*	-.214 <sup>a</sup>	.005	.004	.004
LMX		-.008	.330		-.172*	1.295**		.002	-.643
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.009 <sup>a</sup>			-.223**			.103
R <sup>2</sup>	.054	.061	.071	.049	.065	.097	.016	.016	.024
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.054*	.007	.010 <sup>a</sup>	.049**	.017*	.032**	.016	.001	.008 <sup>a</sup>

Note. unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01



Table 11 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	-.027	-.009	.018	-.160	-.139	-.112	.1049*	1.057*	1.057*
Marital Status	.243**	.242**	.241**	.201*	.200*	.198*	.191	.190	.190
Work Hours	.011	.012	.016	.010	.012	.016	.009	.010	.010
Occupational Status	-.267	-.223	-.209	-.322	-.272	-.259	-.012	.004	.005
LMX		-.128	1.430 <sup>a</sup>		-.147	1.546 <sup>a</sup>		-.047	-.034
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.239*			-.260*			-.002
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.031	.034	.045	.025	.029	.042	.019	.019	.019
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.042	.046	.060	.034	.039	.056	.043	.043	.043

Note. unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 12

*Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave For High LMX Individuals (Indebtedness)*

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.335	.280	.305	.376	.327	.418	.205	.183	.312
Marital Status	.255	.287	.290	.226	.259	.270	.073	.105	.126
Work Hours	.075	.058	.056	.049	.030	.027	-.014	-.032	-.036
Occupational Status	.203	.435	.421	.104	.355	.323	-.384 <sup>a</sup>	-.223	-.300
LMX		-2.133 <sup>a</sup>	-1.969		-2.353 <sup>a</sup>	-1.898		-1.835**	-1.246*
Indebtedness			-.147			-.440			-.549**
R <sup>2</sup>	.090	.131	.133	.049	.100	.119	.056	.181	.019
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.126	.184	.187	.070	.143	.170	.056	.125**	.110**

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 13

*Moderation of Gender on the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>				<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>				<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>			
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>
Gender	.100	.104	.106*	.351	.082	.081	.085	.516	.124*	.138*	.136*	-1.317*
LMX	-.102	.045	.746*	.362	-.149**	-.219	.992**	.315	.025	.584**	.001	2.299*
LMX x Gender		-.155	-.144	.253		.073	.092	.791		-.586**	-.598**	-2.974*
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.720*	-.334			-1.244**	-.563			.601	-1.707
LMX <sup>2</sup> x Gender				-.482				-.850				2.882*
R <sup>2</sup>	.020	.022	.034	.035	.028	.029	.066	.068	.016	.047	.056	.069
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.020*	.002	.013*	.001	.028*	.001	.037	.002	.016*	.030**	.009	.014*

Note. unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 13 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>				<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>				<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>			
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>
Gender	-.033	-.017	-.010	3.444	-.162	-.159	-.147	5.193	1.034*	.996*	.996*	5.761
LMX	-.125	.197	1.672 <sup>a</sup>	-.455	-.152	-.065	4.556 <sup>a</sup>	-1.728	-.039	.995	1.232	-1.968
LMX x Gender		-.280	-.270	1.564		-.076	-.060	2.808		-.801	-.819	1.641
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.227 <sup>a</sup>	.099			-.251*	.250			-.033	.468
LMX <sup>2</sup> x Gender				-.281				-.437				-.391
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.003	.005	.016	.018	.005	.006	.018	.022	.014	.022	.022	.024
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.004	.007	.021	.024	.007	.007	.024	.030	.033	.050	.050	.055

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 14

*Moderation of Occupational Status on the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>				<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>				<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>			
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>
Occupation Status	-.060	-.012	-.019	-.117	-.065	-.004	-.014	-.343	.006	.008	.014	.489
LMX	-.080	.133	.687*	.784	-.129*	.149	1.141**	1.465**	.038	.045	-.491	-.964*
LMX x Occupation Status		-.245	-.181	-.304		-.319*	-.205	-.619		-.008	-.071	.530
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.618	-.765			-1.107**	-1.600**			.600	1.317*
LMX <sup>2</sup> x Occupation Status				.225				.755				-1.093
R <sup>2</sup>	.012	.020	.029	.029	.024	.038	.066	.039	.002	.002	.010	.016
R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$	.012	.008	.009	.000	.024*	.014*	.028*	.003	.002	.000	.008	.006

Note. unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 14 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>				<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>				<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>			
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 4</i>
Occupation Status	-.319	-.475	-.553	1.106	-.360	-.412	-.478	.230	-.074	-.936	-.999	8.044
LMX	-.075	-.338	1.321	.688	-.101	-.192	1.493	1.221	-.012	-.924a	-.244	-3.562
LMX x Occupation Status		.266	.397	.992		.078	.241	.498		.794a	.900 <sup>a</sup>	4.103
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.284*	-.137			-.287*	-.224			-.123	.679
LMX <sup>2</sup> x Occupation Status				-.139				-.060				-.780
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.005	.007	.022	.024	.007	.007	.022	.022	.000	.009	.010	.014
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.006	.009	.029	.032	.009	.009	.029	.030	.000	.021	.023	.033

Note. unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 15

*Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Men Only*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Marital Status	.177*	.176*	.175*	.176*	.175*	.173	-.029	-.028	-.028
Occupational Status	-.087	-.070	-.068	-.080	-.047	-.043	-.017	-.042	-.043
Work Hours	-.032	-.028	-.018	-.057	-.048	-.031	.040	.033	.028
LMX		-.080	.520		-.161*	.911*		.119*	-.156
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.609			-1.087*			.279
R <sup>2</sup>	.036	.042	.051	.036	.060	.088	.002	.016	.018
R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$	.036*	.006	.009	.036*	.024*	.028*	.002	.014*	.004

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup>  $p < .10$

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .01$

Table 15 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Marital Status	.278**	.277**	.278**	.253*	.252*	.252*	.327	.333	.333
Occupational Status	-.300	-.274	-.269	-.312	-.264	-.260	.028	-.040	-.044
Work Hours	.011	.011	.015	.011	.012	.015	-.001	-.003	-.004
LMX		-.079	1.238		-.140	1.195		.208*	-.262
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.202			-.205			.070
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.042	.043	.050	.036	.039	.047	.012	.014	.044
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.082	.057	.067	.048	.052	.063	.030	.030	.035

Note. unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01



Table 16

*Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave For High LMX Men (Indebtedness)*

*Personal Leave Intentions for Males with High LMX*

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Marital Status	.018	.086	.120
Work Hours	-.024	-.111	-.134
Occupational Status	-.162	-.096	-.133
LMX		-.319*	-.215
Indebtedness			-.374**
R <sup>2</sup>	.028	.120	.246
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.028	.092*	.127**

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 17

*Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Women Only*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Marital Status	.271	.271	.255	.165	.165	.129	.092	.092	.139
Occupational Status	-.333*	-.305*	-.288	-.444**	-.450**	-.411**	.171	.252	.201
Work Hours	-.070	-.046	-.046	-.054	-.059	-.060	-.129	-.057	-.056
LMX		-.119	.436		.026	1.299		-.346*	-2.004
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.567			-1.300			1.692*
R <sup>2</sup>	.144	.156	.165	.188	.188	.232	.068	.175	.250
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.144*	.012	.009	.188*	.000	.044	.068	.107*	.075*

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 17 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Marital Status	-.029	-.027	-.079	-.194	-.192	-.288	-.155	-.139	-.149
Occupational Status	.056	.197	.352	-.137	-.077	.068	.157	.397	.444
Work Hours	-.006	.004	.004	.018	-.014	-.017	-.001	.012	.014
LMX		-.402	2.849		-.173	.417		-.672	1.456
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.499			-6.96 <sup>a</sup>			.346
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.001	.029	.079	.020	.025	.104	.005	.054	.067
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.001	.039	.105	.028	.035	.142	.009	.089	.111

Note. unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 18

*Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave For High LMX Women (Indebtedness)*

*Parental Leave Intentions for Females with High LMX*

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Marital Status	-1.055	-1.044	-1.265
Work Hours	-.085	-.086	-.054
Occupational Status	1.965	1.943	2.971
LMX		.087	-.845
Indebtedness			2.352
R <sup>2</sup>	.404	.405	.639
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.404	.000	.234

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 19

*Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Blue Collar Only*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Marital Status	.237**	.235**	.230**	.166**	.163**	.154**	.031	.032	.036
Work Hours	-.072	-.067	-.060	-.011	-.009	-.007	-.004	-.005	-.007
Gender	.123*	.126*	.129*	.377*	.392*	.409*	.261	.253	.242
LMX		-.045	.565		-.119	1.415**		.058	-.834 <sup>a</sup>
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.618			-.236**			.138 <sup>a</sup>
R <sup>2</sup>	.075	.077	.086	.060	.069	.104	.011	.013	.027
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.075*	.002	.009	.060*	.009	.035*	.011	.002	.014 <sup>a</sup>

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 19 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	-.179	-.164	-.147	-.244	-.228	-.211	1.054*	1.074*	1.081*
Marital Status	.242*	.239*	.233*	.201*	.198*	.192*	.152	.149	.146
Work Hours	-.007	-.006	-.002	-.006	-.004	.000	.009	.011	.012
LMX		-.111	1.629a		-.121	1.698		-.133	.351
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.269*			-.282*			-.076
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.029	.031	.044	.021	.023	.038	.018	.019	.019
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.038	.041	.059	.028	.031	.051	.040	.042	.043

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 20

*Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave For High LMX Blue Collar Workers (Indebtedness)*

	<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.460	.390	.531	-.382	-.371	-.359
Marital Status	.162	.186	.182a	.050	.046	.046
Work Hours	-.035	-.057a	-.069*	.010	.014	.013
LMX		-2.398**	-1.565*		.391	.460
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.663**			-.055
R <sup>2</sup>	.054	.274	.451	.026	.032	.034
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.054	.220**	.177**	.026	.006	.001

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 20 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.614	.507	.520	.653	.538	.600
Marital Status	.531*	.532*	.530*	.494a	.496a	.493a
Work Hours	.058	.044	.043	.044	.028	.023
LMX		-1.274	-1.141		-1.467	-.986
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.086			-.316
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.129	.143	.144	.102	.102	.130
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.185	.204	.205	.148	.174	.188

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup>  $p < .10$

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .01$



Table 21

*Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for White Collar Only*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	-.363	-.270	-.267	-1.069 <sup>a</sup>	-.917	.556	1.201*	1.225*	1.233*
Marital status	-.028	-.010	-.009	.016	.045	.148	-.155	-.151	-.146
Work Hours	-.003	-.002	-.002	-.017	-.016	.024	.007	.007	.008
LMX		-.289	-.200		-.470*	1.323		-.072	.266
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.013			.184			-.048
R <sup>2</sup>	.020	.080	.080	.080	.175	.176	.147	.150	.152
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.020	.060	.000	.080	.095*	.001	.147 <sup>a</sup>	.003	.002

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 21 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	1.514	1.526	1.729	.616	.675	.802	.498	.204	.198
Marital Status	.324	.330	.331	.286	.305	.318	16.084	15.948	15.792
Work Hours	.172*	.172*	.192*	.126 <sup>a</sup>	.127 <sup>a</sup>	.139*	.004	-.010	-.021
LMX		-.047	3.226		-.181	2.484		.802	9.554
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.448			-.372			-.1.054
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.201	.201	.222	.129	.132	.150	.068	.089	.095
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.275	.275	.303	.179	.184	.209	.158	.206	.220

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 22

*Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Parents Only*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.267	.267	.252	.339	.340	.291	-.032	-.033	.005
Marital Status	.053	.053	.055	.062	.060	.069	-.017	-.014	-.021
Work Hours	-.009	-.008	-.007	-.012	-.009	-.005	-.007	-.009	-.013
Occupational Status	-.362**	-.345**	-.336**	-.466**	-.416*	-.389*	-.119	-.174	-.196
LMX		-.048	.485		-.136	1.617*		.144	-1.221*
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.081			-.266**			.209*
R <sup>2</sup>	.086	.088	.095	.080	.090	.132	.006	.019	.049
R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$	.086**	.002	.007	.080	.010	.043**	.006	.013	.030*

Note. unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 22 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.196	.206	-.196	-.196	-.195	-.196	1.239*	1.240*	1.291*
Marital Status	.069	.064	.063	-.006	-.013	-.013	-.200	-.200	-.214
Work hours	-.003	.001	.000	-.008	-.004	-.003	.002	-.003	.000
Occupational Status	-.220	-.127	-.130	-.403	-.301	-.300	.250	-.278	.251
LMX		-.251	.464		-.280	-.239		-.074	-1.400
LMX <sup>2</sup>			.032			-.006			.205
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.006	.017	.017	.013	.026	.026	.047	.048	.052
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.008	.022	.023	.017	.035	.035	.083	.083	.091

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

- <sup>a</sup> p < .10
- \* p < .05
- \*\* p < .01

Table 23

*Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave For High LMX Parents (Indebtedness)*

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.113	-.645	.101	-1.792	-1.952	-1.894
Marital Status	-.780*	-.579*	-.498*	-.656 <sup>a</sup>	-.615	-.600
Work Hours	.075	.036	.013	.032	.024	.019
LMX		-3.165**	-2.075*		-.668	-.467
Indebtedness			-.706**			-.130
R <sup>2</sup>	.281	.533	.674	.150	.158	.161
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.281*	..252*	.141*	.150	.008	.003

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 24

*Test of the Curvilinear Relationship Between LMX and Leave for Non-Parents Only*

	<i>Overall Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Personal Leave Intentions</i>			<i>Parental Leave Intentions</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.019	.057	.100	-.082	-.018	.068	.670**	.698**	.708**
Marital Status	.085 <sup>a</sup>	.081	.076	.124 <sup>a</sup>	.118 <sup>a</sup>	.108	.001	-.001	-.002
Work Hours	-.006	-.005	-.005	-.008	-.008	-.006	.001	.001	.002
Occupational Status	.002	.034	.034	-.083	-.029	-.028	.179	.202	.202
LMX		-.113	.394		-.189 <sup>a</sup>	.832		-.085	.027
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.078			-.157 <sup>a</sup>			-.017
R <sup>2</sup>	.020	.033	.040	.024	.045	.062	.067	.072	.072
R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.020	.013	.007	.024	.021 <sup>a</sup>	.017 <sup>a</sup>	.067*	.005	.000

Note. unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

Table 24 Continued

	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>			<i>Parental Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	-.549	-.551	-.337	-.470	-.470	-.242	-18.647	-18.500	-18.384
Marital Status	.424*	.243*	.224 <sup>a</sup>	.228 <sup>a</sup>	.228 <sup>a</sup>	.209 <sup>a</sup>	.755 <sup>a</sup>	.767 <sup>a</sup>	.758 <sup>a</sup>
Work Hours	.015	.015	.021	.019	.019	.025	-.060	-.060	-.057
Occupational Status	-.201	-.202	-.219	-.172	-.171	-.189	.171	.126	.108
LMX		.006	3.367*		-.001	3.518*		.246	2.900
LMX <sup>2</sup>			-.573*			-.537*			-.390
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.034	.034	.073	.031	.031	.073	.030	.031	.033
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup>	.046	.046	.101	.042	.042	.101	.152	.157	.165

Note. unstandardized b weights

- <sup>a</sup> p < .10
- \* p < .05
- \*\* p < .01

Table 25

*Mediation Analysis of the Relationship Between LMX and Leave For High LMX Non-Parents (Indebtedness)*

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Overall Leave Usage</i>			<i>Personal Leave Usage</i>		
	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>	<i>Step 1</i>	<i>Step 2</i>	<i>Step 3</i>
Gender	.009	.095	.091	.009	.095	.091
Marital Status	.306	.370	.370	.306	.370	.370
Work Hours	.039	.024	.024	.039	.024	.024
Occupational Status	.802	.982	.984	.802	.982	.984
LMX		-2.087	-2.035		-2.087	-2.035
Indebtedness			.013			.013
Cox & Snell R <sup>2</sup>	.098	.123	.123	.098	.123	.123
Nagelkerke R <sup>2</sup> Δ	.135	.206	.206	.135	.206	.206

*Note.* unstandardized b weights

<sup>a</sup> p < .10

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01



### Figure Captions

*Figure 1.* The proposed model of leave policy usage

*Figure 2.* The curvilinear relationship between LMX and intentions to use personal leave policies

*Figure 3.* The curvilinear relationship between LMX and overall past usage of leave policies

*Figure 4.* The curvilinear relationship between LMX and past usage of personal leave policies

Figure 1.

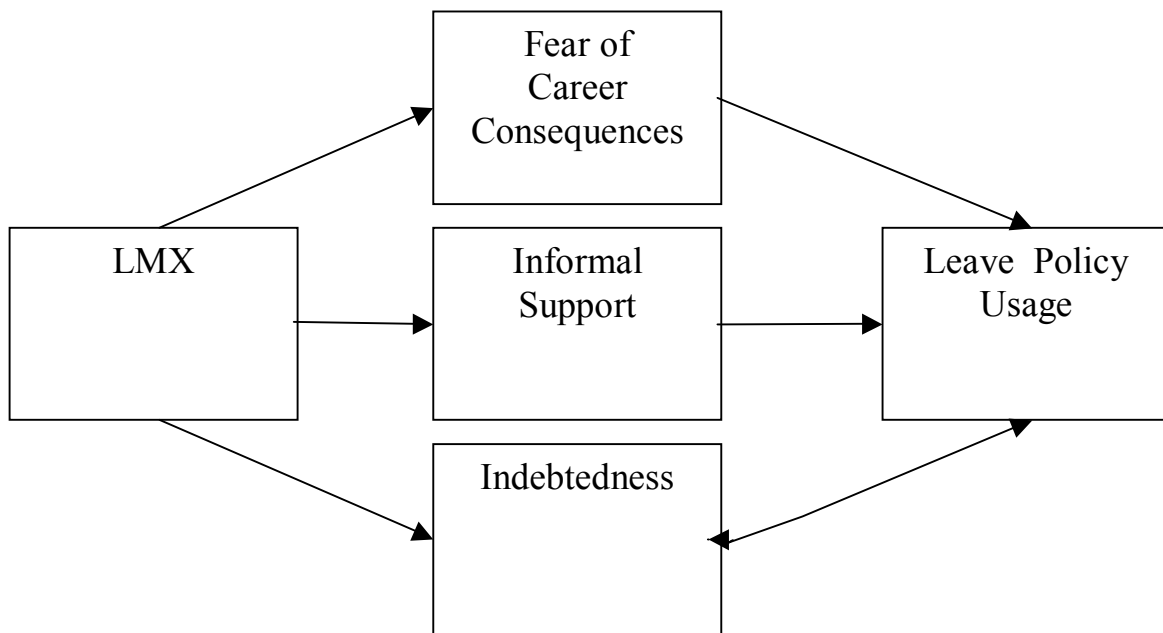


Figure 2

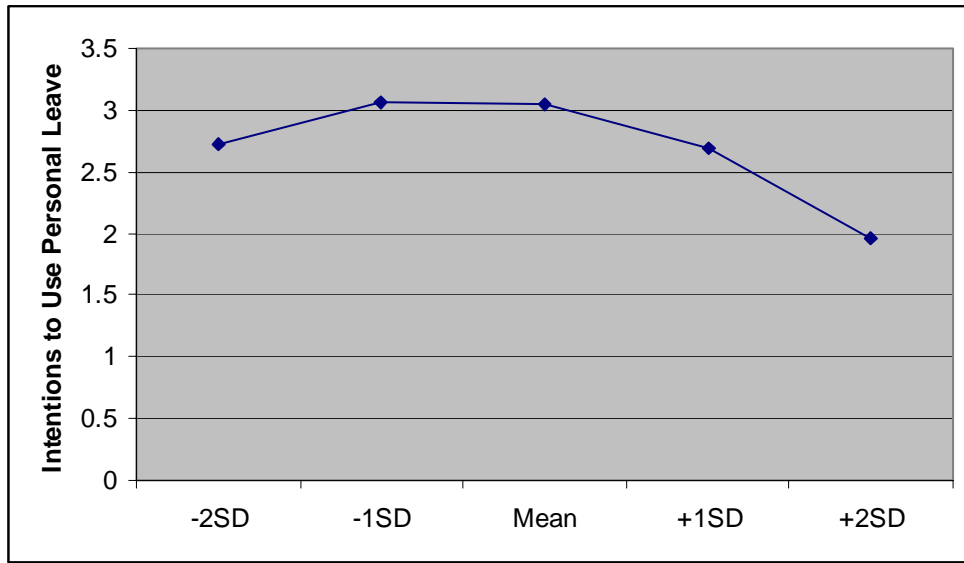


Figure 3

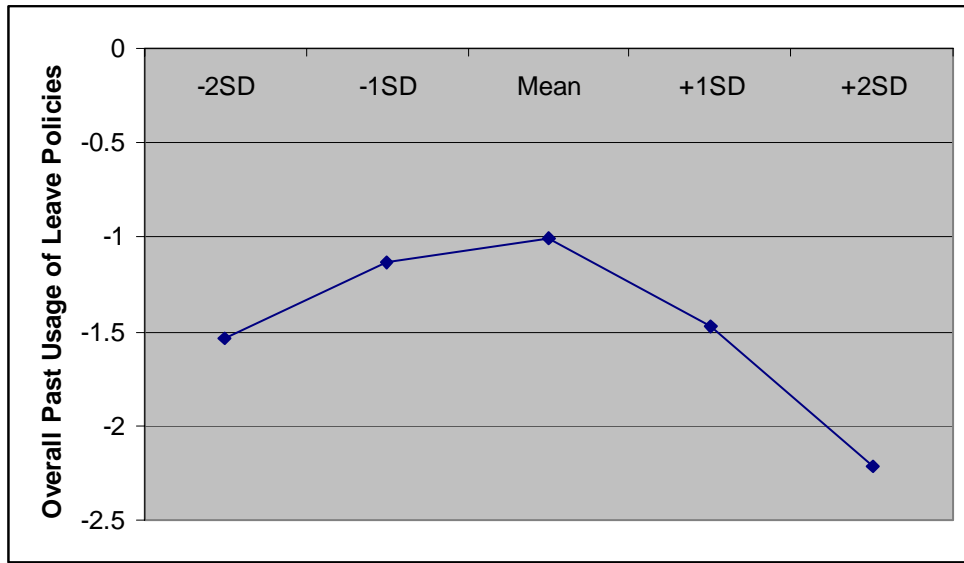
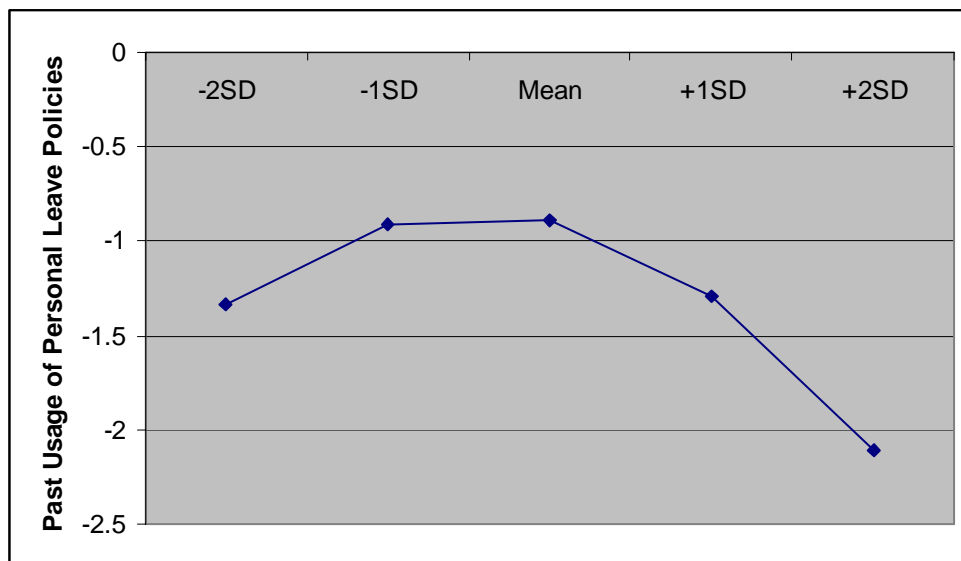


Figure 4



## Appendix B: Scales Used in Present Study

### *Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)*

***Please answer the following questions regarding the relationship that you have with your supervisor.***

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader...do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with you (**1 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 5 = very often**)
2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs (**1 = not a bit; 3 = a fair amount; 5 = a great deal**)
3. How well does your leader recognize your potential (**1 = not at all, 3 = moderately; 5 = fully**)
4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your leaders would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work (**1 = none; 3 = moderate; 5 = very high**)
5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out" as his/her expense (**1 = none; 3 = moderate; 5 = very high**)
6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so (**1 = strongly disagree; 3 = neutral; 5 = strongly agree**).
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader (**1 = extremely ineffective; 3 = average; 5 = extremely effective**)

### *Informal Support*

***Please answer the following questions about your relationship with your supervisor (1 = never, 3 = neutral; 5 = very often)***

#### **How often in the last 2 months did your supervisor...**

1. switch schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate your family responsibilities.
2. listen to your problems.
3. act critical of your efforts to combine work and family.
4. juggle tasks or duties to accommodate your family responsibilities.
5. share ideas or advice.
6. . hold your family responsibilities against you.
7. help you to figure out how to solve a problem.
8. act understanding or sympathetic.
9. show resentment of your needs as a working parent.

### *Fear of Negative Career Consequences*

***Please indicate the extent to which you agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your organization (1 = strongly disagree; 3 = neither agree or disagree; 5= strongly agree).***

1. There is an unwritten rule at my place of employment that you cannot take care of family needs on company time.
2. At my place of employment, employees who put their family or personal needs ahead of their jobs are not looked on favorably.
3. If you have problems managing your work and family responsibilities, the attitude at my place of employment is, "you mad your bed, now lie in it."
4. At my place of employment, employees have to choose between advancing their jobs or devoting attention to their families or personal lives.

### *Indebtedness*

***Please indicate the extent to which you agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your organization (1 = strongly disagree; 3 = neither agree or disagree; 5= strongly agree).***

1. I do not believe that a person must be loyal to his/her supervisor
2. One of the major reasons that I continue to work for this supervisor is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain with this supervisor.
3. If I got another offer for a better job working with a different supervisor, I would not feel it was right to leave my current supervisor.
4. I was taught to believe in the value of being a loyal employee to my supervisor.
5. I think that people these days take too much time off and are not supportive of their supervisors.
6. I would feel guilty if I felt that I was not being loyal to my supervisor.
7. If I left this supervisor, I would feel a sense of guilt.

## Appendix C: Actual Study Measure

# [Company Name] Employee Survey

**All information you provide is COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL. The surveys will be collected directly from you by the research team and removed from the facility today.**



**PSU Letterhead**

<b>ORP USE ONLY: IRB# 20932 Doc. #1</b> The Pennsylvania State University Office for Research Protections Approval Date: 5/6/05 – J. Mathieu Expiration Date: 5/2/06 – J. Mathieu Social Science Institutional Review Board
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July 18, 2005

Dear [insert company name here] Employee,

Employees at your company are invited to participate in a study conducted by researchers at Penn State University titled “Employee Perceptions of Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships and Usage of Organizational Policies.” The purpose of this research is to understand how employee-supervisor relationships affect important employee outcomes such as job satisfaction and family policy usage. You will be asked to complete a survey about these work experiences

*Procedures.* Survey completion will occur in groups at your work site during your work shift. This survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. When you are finished with the survey, it will be collected by the research investigators and secured until the final session is complete. No management or other employees will have access to your responses. The investigators will transport the surveys off-site after the final session.

*Benefits/Risks.* The results of this study will inform your organization, as well as organizations more generally, about how the quality of employee-supervisor relationships impacts employees’ work and non-work roles. Since you are providing responses about your relationship with your supervisor, completing the survey may create discomfort. However, the survey does not ask for any information that would identify who the responses belong to. To make certain your participation is confidential, questionnaires do not ask for any information that would identify individual respondents. The Office for Research Protections and the Social Science Institutional Review Board may review records related to this project. In the event of any publication or presentation resulting from the research, no personally identifiable information will be shared because your name is in no way linked to your responses.

*Other important information.* You can ask **questions** about this research. Contact Bryanne Cordeiro at (814) 863-1717 with questions. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact The Pennsylvania State University’s Office for Research Protections at (814) 865-1775. Your decision to be in this research is **voluntary**. You can stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer. You must be **18 years of age or older** to consent to take part in this research study. There is no compensation for survey completion.

Completion and return of the survey implies that you have read the information in this form and consent to take part in the research.

Please keep this form for your records or future reference.

Sincerely,

**Bryanne Cordeiro, M.S., Doctoral Student, Principal Investigator**

429 Moore Building, University Park, PA 16802 (814) 863-1717, [blc194@psu.edu](mailto:blc194@psu.edu)

**Alicia Grandey, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Advisor and Co-Investigator** (if you have me on the IRB form)

520 Moore Building, University Park, PA 16802 (814) 865-1867, [aag6@psu.edu](mailto:aag6@psu.edu)

**Judd Michael, Ph.D. Associate Professor, Co-Investigator**

301 FRL, University Park, PA 16802 (814) 863-2976, [jh-michael@psu.edu](mailto:jh-michael@psu.edu)

1. Recall your usage of family leave policies *while at this company*, and fill in the information as instructed. If the answer is zero, please write in 0 as your response – do not leave blank.

	Is this type of leave offered by your plant?	Total # times have used this type of leave	Total # of days took this leave
FMLA leave for child illness	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days
FMLA leave for eldercare	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days
FMLA leave for personal illness	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days
Paid maternity/paternity leave	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days
Paid adoption leave	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days
Unpaid maternity/paternity leave	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days
Unpaid adoption leave	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days
Personal sick days	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days
Family sick days	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days
Personal days	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know	___ times	___ days

2. Please completely fill in the circle to indicate how likely you are to use each type of family leave in the future.

	Very unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Neither likely or unlikely	Somewhat likely	Very likely
FMLA leave for child illness	3	3	3	3	3
FMLA leave for eldercare	3	3	3	3	3
FMLA leave for personal illness	3	3	3	3	3
Paid maternity/paternity leave	3	3	3	3	3
Paid adoption leave	3	3	3	3	3
Unpaid maternity/paternity leave	3	3	3	3	3
Unpaid adoption leave	3	3	3	3	3
Personal sick days	3	3	3	3	3
Family sick days	3	3	3	3	3
Personal days	3	3	3	3	3

Has your direct supervisor ever discussed any of the above options with you directly?  Yes  No

If yes... Was the information provided helpful to you?  Not at all  Somewhat  Very much

If yes... Was the interaction itself helpful to you?  Not at all  Somewhat  Very much

Whether yes or no... Is this a discussion that you wanted/have wanted to have?  Yes  No

How long have you worked with your current supervisor? \_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_ months

What is the gender of your direct supervisor?  Male  Female

3. Please answer the following questions regarding the relationship that you have with your supervisor.

Do you know where you stand with your supervisor?	Rarely 3	Occasionally 3	Sometimes 3	Fairly Often 3	Very Often 3
How well does your supervisor understand your job problems and needs?	Not at all 3	A little 3	A fair amount 3	Quite a bit 3	A great deal 3
How well does your supervisor recognize your potential?	Not at all 3	A little 3	Moderately 3	Mostly 3	Fully 3
What are the chances that your supervisor would use his/her power to help you solve your problems at work?	None 3	Small 3	Moderate 3	High 3	Very high 3
What are the chances that your supervisor would bail you out at his/her expense?	None 3	Small 3	Moderate 3	High 3	Very high 3
I would defend and justify my supervisor's decisions if he/she were not present to do so.	Strongly disagree 3	Disagree 3	Neutral 3	Agree 3	Strongly agree 3
How would you characterize your working relationship with your supervisor?	Extremely ineffective 3	Worse than average 3	Average 3	Better than average 3	Extremely effective 3

4. How often in the last 2 months did your supervisor...

	Never	Occasionally	Neutral	Somewhat Often	Very Often
...switch schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation), to accommodate your family responsibilities.	3	3	3	3	3
...listen to your problems.	3	3	3	3	3
...act critical of your efforts to combine work and family.	3	3	3	3	3
...juggle tasks or duties to accommodate your family responsibilities.	3	3	3	3	3
...share ideas or advice.	3	3	3	3	3
...hold your family responsibilities against you.	3	3	3	3	3
...help you to figure out how to solve a problem.	3	3	3	3	3
...act understanding or sympathetic.	3	3	3	3	3
...show resentment of your family needs.	3	3	3	3	3

5. Now a few questions about your work relationships. Please completely fill in the circle indicating the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I do not believe that a person must be loyal to his/her supervisor.	3	3	3	3	3
One of the major reasons that I continue to work for this supervisor is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain with this supervisor.	3	3	3	3	3
If I got another offer for a better job working with a different supervisor I would not feel it was right to leave my current supervisor.	3	3	3	3	3
I was taught to believe in the value of being a loyal employee to my supervisor.	3	3	3	3	3
I think that if I took too much time off then I would not be supportive of my supervisor.	3	3	3	3	3
I would feel guilty if I felt that I was not being loyal to my supervisor.	3	3	3	3	3
If I left this supervisor, I would feel a sense of guilt.	3	3	3	3	3
My supervisor is resentful when men in this plant take extended leave to care for newborn or adopted children.	3	3	3	3	3
My supervisor is resentful when women in this plant take extended leave to care for newborn or adopted children.	3	3	3	3	3
Employees who participate in available work-family programs (e.g., flextime, family leave) are viewed by my supervisor as less serious about their careers than those who do not participate in these programs.	3	3	3	3	3
Turning down a promotion or transfer for family-related reasons will seriously hurt one's career progress with my supervisor.	3	3	3	3	3
My supervisor believes that employees who use family leave are less likely to advance their careers than those who do not use family leave.	3	3	3	3	3

Other comments you would like to add?

6. How long do you expect to remain with your current employer? (fill one circle)

<i>Less than one year</i>	<i>About 1 year</i>	<i>2 years</i>	<i>3 years</i>	<i>4 years</i>	<i>More than 5 years</i>
3	3	3	3	3	<b>3</b>

7. Please completely fill in the circle that best matches how much you agree with the following statements regarding your work and home life.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting work done on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

Other comments you would like to add?

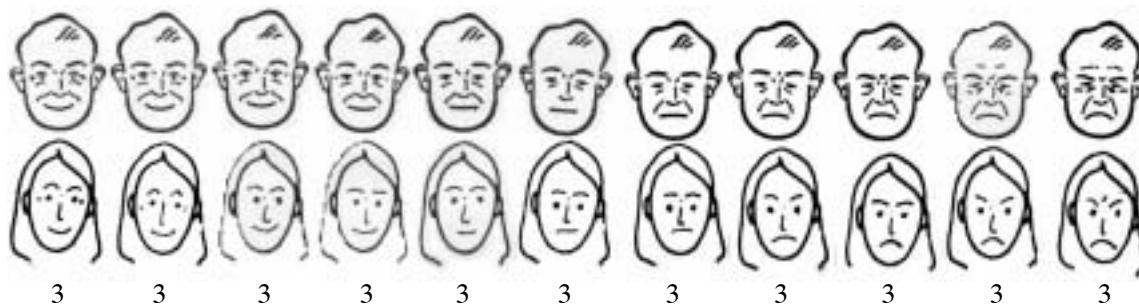
8. Please completely fill in the circle that best matches how much you agree with the following statements about your job performance.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I think my overall job performance is better than average.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
My supervisor would probably rate my overall job performance as above average.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

9. Please completely fill in the circle indicating the extent to which you agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your organization.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Work should be the primary priority in a person's life.	3	3	3	3	3
Long hours inside the plant/office are the way to achieve advancement.	3	3	3	3	3
It is best to keep family matters separate from work.	3	3	3	3	3
At work, it is considered taboo to talk about life outside of work.	3	3	3	3	3
Expressing involvement and interest in nonwork matters is viewed as healthy.	3	3	3	3	3
Employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to work.	3	3	3	3	3
Attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children, is frowned upon.	3	3	3	3	3
Employees should keep their personal problems at home.	3	3	3	3	3
The way to advance in this company is to keep nonwork matters out of the workplace.	3	3	3	3	3
Individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work.	3	3	3	3	3
It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life.	3	3	3	3	3
Employees are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities well.	3	3	3	3	3
Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business.	3	3	3	3	3
The ideal employee is the one who is available 24 hours a day.	3	3	3	3	3

10. Please completely fill in the circle below the face that best represents how you feel about your job.



11. Please answer the following background questions about yourself.

**Gender:**  Male  Female

**Age:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Education:**  Some high school  High school degree  Some college  College degree  
 Post-college degree

**Race:**  Caucasian  African American  Hispanic  Asian  Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Marital Status:**  Single  Divorced  Married but separated  Married/Cohabiting

If married/cohabiting:

My spouse/partner...  is not employed  is employed part-time  is employed full-time  
 My spouse/partner...  has better leave benefits  has similar leave benefits  has worse leave benefits

Please indicate the number of children that you have in each of the following categories (if you do not have any children, please proceed to the next question below):

<u>Live With You</u>		<u>Do Not Live With You</u>	
under 1 year of age	_____	under 1 year of age	_____
1-2 years old	_____	1-2 years old	_____
3-5 years old	_____	3-5 years old	_____
6-9 years old	_____	6-9 years old	_____
10-14 years old	_____	10-14 years old	_____
15-18 years old	_____	15-18 years old	_____
over 18 years old	_____	over 18 years old	_____

How many others currently live with you for whom you have primary care-giving responsibility (e.g., elderly parents, ill adults, handicapped adults): \_\_\_\_\_

How many others do you have care-giving responsibilities for that do not live with you? \_\_\_\_\_

Do you have family living in the area?  Yes  No

If yes, does your family help with child/elder care?  Yes  No

**Job Category:**  Hourly worker  First-level supervisor  Middle manager or professional

How many hours do you usually work in a week? \_\_\_\_\_ hours

How long have you worked for this plant? \_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION! HAVE A GREAT DAY!**

# Vita

## Bryanne L. Cordeiro

### EDUCATION

**Pennsylvania State University**, University Park, PA

Ph.D. in Psychology, emphasis in Industrial/Organizational Psychology, May 2006

Master of Science, December 2002

**Wake Forest University**, Winston-Salem, NC

Bachelor of Arts, May 2000, *Magna Cum Laude*

### HONORS

Wake Forest University Honors Program in Psychology

### SELECTED PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

Cordeiro, B. L., Grandey, A. A., & Michael, J. (2006). Intentions to Use Family Leave Policies: Do Gender, Occupational Status, and LMX Matter? In J. Cleveland (Chair), *Non Traditional, Under-Studied Populations in Work-Family Research*. Symposium conducted at the 22<sup>nd</sup> Annual Conference for the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychologists, Dallas, TX.

Grandey, A. A., Cordeiro, B. L., & Crouter, A. C. (2005). Work-family conflict and job satisfaction: A test of the robustness of a relationship. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78(3), 305-323.

Cordeiro, B. L., & Grandey, A. A. (2004, April). Co-chairs of *Holding multiple roles and using family policies: Benefits and costs*. Symposium presented at the 19<sup>th</sup> Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Chicago, IL.

Cordeiro, B. L., Grandey, A. A., & Crouter, A. C. (2003, April). A longitudinal study of personality and work role overload on working husbands' and wives' work-family conflict. In T. Allen (Chair), *New directions in work-family conflict*. Symposium conducted at the 18<sup>th</sup> Annual Conference for the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Orlando, FL.

Wayne, J. H., & Cordeiro, B. L. (2003). Who is a good organizational citizen? Social perception of male and female employees who use family leave. *Sex Roles*, 49(5-6), 233-246.

Grandey, A. A., & Cordeiro, B. L. (2002). *Family-friendly policies and organizational justice: A Sloan work and family encyclopedia entry*.

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