

How Important Are Work–Family Support Policies? A Meta-Analytic Investigation of Their Effects on Employee Outcomes

Marcus M. Butts and Wendy J. Casper
University of Texas at Arlington

Tae Seok Yang
Western Illinois University

This meta-analysis examines relationships between work–family support policies, which are policies that provide support for dependent care responsibilities, and employee outcomes by developing a conceptual model detailing the psychological mechanisms through which policy availability and use relate to work attitudes. Bivariate results indicated that availability and use of work–family support policies had modest positive relationships with job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay. Further, tests of differences in effect sizes showed that policy availability was more strongly related to job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay than was policy use. Subsequent meta-analytic structural equation modeling results indicated that policy availability and use had modest effects on work attitudes, which were partially mediated by family-supportive organization perceptions and work-to-family conflict, respectively. Additionally, number of policies and sample characteristics (percent women, percent married-cohabiting, percent with dependents) moderated the effects of policy availability and use on outcomes. Implications of these findings and directions for future research on work–family support policies are discussed.

Keywords: work–family policies, dependent care, meta-analysis

Workforce demographic trends have increased firms' awareness of the need to provide support for employees' families. In 2010, 58% of married employees were in dual-earner couples, and 64% of mothers with children under the age of 18 were employed (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010a). The proportion of men and women in the workforce is now almost equal at 53% and 47%, respectively (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). In 2010, 44% of all children lived in single-parent homes (Child Trends, 2011). More workers also care for elders, with about 42% of employees providing elder care in the past 5 years (Aumann, Galinsky, Sakai, Brown, & Bond, 2010). Elder care concerns will likely rise in the future, given people over age 65 are a growing segment of the U.S. population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

In light of these workforce trends, some organizations offer formal policies to help employees manage work and family. These

discretionary policies go beyond legal mandates (Swody & Powell, 2007), and they share the goal of supporting employees' family demands. Many large firms offer one or more work–family policies, including flexible spending accounts for dependent care (46%), elder care resource and referral (39%), child care resource and referral (35%), and on-site child care (9%; Galinsky, Bond, & Sakai, 2008).

It has been argued that work–family policies help attract and retain human capital and improve employee attitudes (Barney, 1991; Kossek & Friede, 2006). Despite this, research has not consistently found a positive relationship between work–family policies and employee attitudes (Kelly et al., 2008). Some studies have found that work–family policies relate to higher organizational commitment (Grover & Crooker, 1995) and intentions to stay (Thompson & Prottas, 2006) and lower work–family conflict (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). However, other studies failed to find relationships with job satisfaction (Thomas & Gaster, 1995), intentions to stay (Glass & Riley, 1998), and work–family conflict (Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990).

Explanations for these inconsistent findings may lie in how work–family policies are studied. First, some studies examine perceptions of policy availability, others explore policy use, and some examine both. Availability and use are unique constructs and may relate to employee attitudes differently. Second, measures of availability and use often differ across studies. For example, some studies focus on availability or use of one policy, whereas others examine a bundle of policies (Kelly et al., 2008). This is an important distinction because more policies may lead to better or different outcomes (Arthur, 2003; Casper & Buffardi, 2004). Third, it is not clear how work–family policies relate to employee work attitudes because most research examines outcomes without considering possible mediators. However, work–family policy

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Marcus M. Butts and Wendy J. Casper, Department of Management, University of Texas at Arlington; Tae Seok Yang, Department of Management and Marketing, Western Illinois University.

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Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Marcus M. Butts, University of Texas at Arlington, Department of Management, Box 19467, 701 South West Street, Suite 212, Arlington, TX 76019-0467. E-mail: mbutts@uta.edu

availability may enhance work attitudes through greater family-supportive organizational perceptions, whereas policy use may relate to attitudes through reductions in work-to-family conflict (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Glass & Finley, 2002). To our knowledge, no research has simultaneously examined the processes through which policy availability and use relate to employee work attitudes.

Finally, qualitative differences between policies are often ignored, despite the fact that there are distinct types of work–family policies (Glass & Finley, 2002; Kossek & Friede, 2006). Policies categorized as work–family programs include both work–family “support” initiatives that provide resources for dependent care and “flexibility” initiatives offering alternative work arrangements such as telecommuting and flextime. This is an important distinction because flexibility policies can be used to manage various nonwork and personal concerns, whereas family support policies are useful only to those with current or future dependents. Because inconsistent findings may be a function of different policy types, in the current study we focus solely on work–family support policies (i.e., policies that provide some form of dependent care support), as flexibility policies have been summarized in past meta-analyses (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

Our purpose in the current study is to examine the degree to which availability and use of work–family support policies relate to employee attitudes. In doing so, we aim to make three key contributions to the literature. First, we quantitatively summarize available findings to help build consensus about whether policy availability and use relate to work attitudes and the magnitude of these effects. Second, we develop and test a model of the mediators that link policy availability and use to work attitudes. This model (see Figure 1) draws on signaling (Spence, 1973) and self-interest (Lind & Tyler, 1988) theories to propose distinct mechanisms through which policy availability and use relate to work attitudes. We test this model with meta-analytic correlations from this study and past meta-analyses and compare competing

models of these relationships. Finally, we explore number of policies and sample characteristics as moderators of observed effect sizes.

Work–Family Support Policies: Key Concepts and Theoretical Extensions

Work–family support policies provide tangible support in the way of time, services, or financial benefits that ease the burden of dependent care (Glass & Finley, 2002; Kossek, 2005; Lobel & Kossek, 1996; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Thus, these policies are useful only for caring for family and dependents. Example policies include on-site child care (Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Youngblood & Chambers-Cook, 1984), dependent care resource and referral services (Grover & Crooker, 1995), financial assistance for dependent care (P. Wang & Walumbwa, 2007), paid family leave (Grover, 1991), and elder care assistance (Goodstein, 1995).

Disentangling Policy Availability and Use

Historically, few frameworks have existed in the work–family literature for understanding how work–family policies relate to employee outcomes (Yasbek, 2004). However, Kossek and colleagues (Kossek, 2005; Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006) suggested that availability and use of work–family policies may relate to different outcomes. Moreover, Beauregard and Henry (2009) recently conducted a narrative review and developed a conceptual model of how work–life policies relate to organizational performance, suggesting that policy availability relates to work attitudes through perceptions of support and that policy use improves employee outcomes through reductions in work–life conflict. The current study examines the effects of a specific type of work–life policy, work–family support policies, on work attitudes. In doing so, we draw from signaling (Spence, 1973) and self-interest (Lind & Tyler, 1988) theories as well as Beauregard and Henry’s (2009) model to identify distinct mediators that may link availability and use to work attitudes.

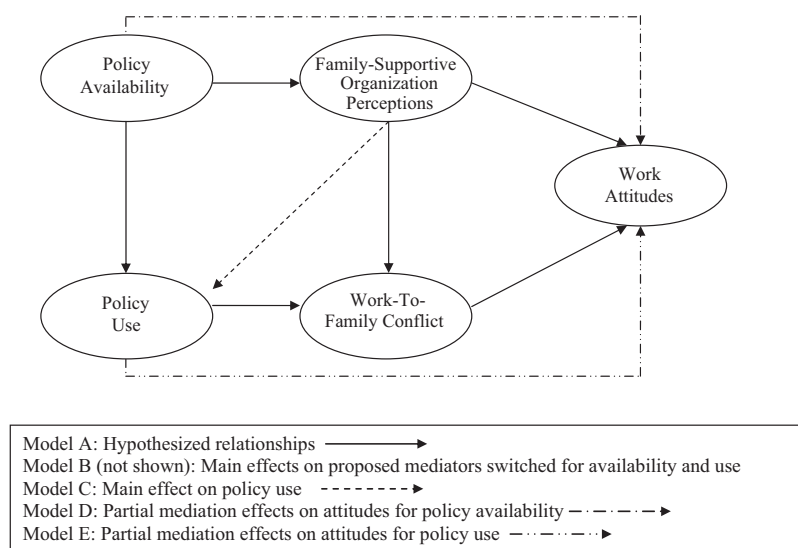


Figure 1. Models linking work–family support policies with employee outcomes.

Effects of Policy Availability: A Signaling Theory Perspective

Signaling theory (Spence, 1973) asserts that people interpret an organization's observable actions as signals of less observable firm characteristics, thereby forming impressions about a firm's motives (Goldberg & Allen, 2008). Most applications of signaling theory focus on how people outside the organization (e.g., investors, customers, job candidates) view the firm (Connelly, Certo, Ireland, & Reutzel, 2011). However, signaling theory can also help explain how intraorganizational actions influence employee attitudes. For example, Suazo, Martínez, and Sandoval (2009) used signaling theory to propose that a firm's allocation of funds to training demonstrates a commitment to the long-term employment of its employees, causing employees to develop relational psychological contracts.

Grover and Crooker (1995) argued, consistent with signaling theory, that the availability of work-family support policies might be interpreted as symbolic of corporate concern. Moreover, social exchange theory suggests that the relationship between employee and employer may be based on nonmaterial exchanges (Blau, 1964). This suggests that when employees perceive that their organization cares about them and their family, they may reciprocate their felt debt through more positive work attitudes. Casper and Harris (2008) used signaling theory to suggest that work-life policies (flexibility and work-family support policies) influence work attitudes through signaling perceived organizational support and found support for this notion. Similarly, Beauregard and Henry's (2009) conceptual model posited that work-life policies influence work attitudes through perceived organizational support. However, because our study includes only work-family support policies, these may result in family-specific rather than general support perceptions. Recent meta-analytic work (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011) confirms the importance of distinguishing between general and family-specific support perceptions by demonstrating that perceived organizational support exhibits weaker relationships with work-family constructs (i.e., work-to-family conflict) than do family-specific perceptions of organizational support.

Family-supportive organization perceptions (FSOP) are defined as the extent to which employees view their organization as supportive of family life (T. D. Allen, 2001). When work-family support policies are visibly available, employees may interpret this as a signal that their organization is supportive of their family life (Spence, 1973). Because policy availability may be perceived as a symbol of corporate concern for family well-being, employees may seek to reciprocate this concern by developing more favorable work attitudes (Grover & Crooker, 1995). Therefore, we expect FSOP will serve as a mechanism through which the availability of work-family support policies relates to more positive work attitudes.

Hypothesis 1: Policy availability is positively related to work attitudes (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay).

Hypothesis 2: Policy availability is positively related to FSOP.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship of policy availability with work attitudes (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay) is mediated by FSOP.

Effects of Policy Use: A Self-Interest Theory Perspective

Signaling theory asserts that because informational exchanges involve one party (i.e., the organization) being more privy to information than the other party (i.e., the employee), signals given by the organization are interpreted by the employee as indicators of the organization's intentions (Spence, 1973). Signaling theory explains how employees who know that a work-family support policy is available but have little or no experience using it might still develop more positive work attitudes in response to its symbolic value. However, employees who use policies extensively have more direct knowledge about policy characteristics (e.g., quality of services, ease of use) than do those who use them infrequently or not at all. Because this allows users to possess more complete information about the policy, the effects of policy use likely reflect actual policy characteristics. Also, as their policy use increases, employees likely become more aware of the policy's instrumental value (i.e., how much the policy helps lower work-to-family conflict). Because people act out of self-interest (Lind & Tyler, 1988), the personal benefits they receive due to policy use are likely to be more salient than any symbolic value associated with policy availability, which provides a more probable explanation for how policy use relates to work attitudes.

Self-interest theory (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Sears & Funk, 1991) suggests that employee behaviors and attitudes are driven by their own personal gains and benefits. Thus, use of work-family support policies should relate to more positive work attitudes because of the direct benefits gained from policy use. Grover and Crooker (1995) argued that employees who stand to benefit the most from work-family support policies through lower work-family conflict will have more positive work attitudes. Similarly, Beauregard and Henry (2009) suggested that use of work-life policies relates to employee outcomes through lower work-life conflict. Supporting this, Kossek and Nichol (1992) found that users of on-site child care reported great success managing work-family demands (i.e., lower work-family conflict) than did nonusers. Further, research has shown that work-to-family conflict is negatively related to job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to remain (T. D. Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). Taken together, self-interest theory and past literature suggest that work-family support policy use may relate to work attitudes through reduced work-to-family conflict. Hence, we expect the following:

Hypothesis 4: Policy use is positively related to work attitudes (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay).

Hypothesis 5: Policy use is negatively related to work-to-family conflict.

Hypothesis 6: The relationship of policy use with work attitudes (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay) is mediated by work-to-family conflict.

Differential Effects on Work Attitudes

Previous research suggests that when there is a disconnection between the written “rhetoric” (availability) and employees’ actual “reality” (use) of human resources (HR) policies, employees are dissatisfied with their experiences using HR policies (Gratton & Truss, 2003; Khilji & Wang, 2006). Employees using work–family support policies may not be fully satisfied with the policies because of operational inefficiencies and/or because the policies do not adequately meet their family needs (Sutton & Noe, 2005). Employees may also fear backlash and negative career consequences from using work–family support policies (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999; Kirby & Krone, 2002; Rothausen, Gonzalez, Clarke, & O’Dell, 1998). For example, coworkers and managers may believe users of work–family support policies are less devoted to their organizations, create additional work for supervisors, and receive unfair benefits at the expense of others (Grover, 1991; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). T. D. Allen and Russell (1999) found that participants in an experiment perceived employees who took parental leave to be less committed to their work than those who did not take leave. Perceptions that policy users are less committed may also result in lower rewards and fewer advancement opportunities for those employees (Kirby & Krone, 2002). Thus, although there are instrumental benefits of work–family support policy use, there may also be drawbacks of use that affect work attitudes. However, there are likely few negative consequences of merely making policies available. Therefore, the effects of availability (which has symbolic benefits but few negative consequences) may be stronger than the effects of use (which has instrumental benefits but also potentially negative consequences). Accordingly, we expect availability will have stronger positive effects on work attitudes than will use.

Hypothesis 7: Policy availability yields stronger effects on work attitudes (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay) than does policy use.

Hypothesized Model

As noted earlier, outcomes of work–family support policies have not been examined in a meta-analysis. Further, little research has examined how policy availability and use relate to work attitudes. Signaling and self-interest theories each imply distinct mechanisms through which availability and use relate to work attitudes. In our hypothesized model (see Figure 1), we suggest that availability of work–family support policies relates to favorable work attitudes through signaling that the organization supports employees’ families (i.e., FSOP). FSOP should be related to more positive work attitudes because employees who perceive their firm as caring for their personal well-being (and that of their family) reciprocate with improved attitudes such as higher commitment and intent to remain (Sinclair, Hannigan, & Tetrick, 1995). Our model also posits that policy use relates to reduced work-to-family conflict, which in turn relates to positive work attitudes.

Two additional links are included in our hypothesized model but are not specified as hypotheses (see Figure 1). First, because a policy must be available in order to be used, we include a link from policy availability to use. Second, research suggests that FSOP is related to lower work-to-family conflict irrespective of work–

family policies (T. D. Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999), perhaps because employees feel that they are not expected to sacrifice family for their jobs and can discuss family concerns at work (Kossek, Noe, & Colquitt, 2001). As such, we expect, FSOP will be negatively related to work-to-family conflict.

Alternative Models

We tested four alternative models (see Figure 1) in addition to our hypothesized model. In Model B (not shown), the hypothesized paths from availability and use to the mediators are switched: Availability relates to work attitudes through work-to-family conflict, and use relates to attitudes through FSOP. We tested this alternative model to rule out the possibility that use operates through signaling support for employees’ families (i.e., FSOP) and availability operates through reduced work-to-family conflict. Model C adds a direct path from FSOP to policy use, to test whether support perceptions relate to increased policy use. Theory (cf. Beauregard & Henry, 2009) suggests use should be higher when employees believe use will not damage their career prospects (i.e., high FSOP). Model D and Model E add direct paths from (a) policy availability to work attitudes and (b) policy use to work attitudes, respectively. These two models reflect Barney’s (1991) view that HR (work–family) policies not only relate to employee outcomes indirectly through mediators but also relate directly to employee outcomes.

Moderator Relationships

We also examined number of policies and sample characteristics as potential moderators of the relationships of availability and use with employee outcomes.

Number of Policies

Several theories suggest that multiple work–family support policies should more strongly relate to positive employee outcomes than should a single policy. For instance, signaling theory contends that signal effectiveness is enhanced by increasing the number of observable signals (*signal frequency*; Connelly et al., 2011). Thus, a firm that makes two distinct work–family support policies available sends two signals of corporate concern, which should result in more positive work attitudes than those for a firm that offers only a single policy. Also, both strategic human resources management (SHRM) theory (Delery, 1998) and systems theory (Corning, 1998) suggest that increased value and synergies occur when multiple HR policies reinforce one another. For example, using both paid parental leave and on-site child care may reduce a family’s child care costs and ameliorate family demands, resulting in more positive attitudes than if a single policy was used. Taken together, signaling theory (Spence, 1973), SHRM theory (Delery, 1998), and systems theory (Corning, 1998) suggest that policy availability and use should be more strongly related to employee outcomes as the number of policies increases. Past studies have supported this idea by finding that work–life policy availability is more strongly related to positive outcomes when there are multiple policies, rather than a single policy, available (Arthur, 2003; Casper & Buffardi, 2004). Thus, we propose:

Hypothesis 8: Number of policies moderates the policy availability–attitudes relationship and use–attitudes relation-

ship such that these relationships become stronger as the number of work-family support policies increases.

Sample Characteristics

Signaling theory asserts that signals are more likely to be observed and acted on when there is *receiver attention*—vigilance by receivers in scanning the environment for signals (Connelly et al., 2011). Employees who have greater family demands should scan the environment for signals of work-family supports more than those who have fewer family demands, and those demands should also increase the likelihood of policy use. Thus, we examined sample characteristics associated with family demands that may strengthen or temper our predicted effects. First, women typically have more caregiving responsibilities than men (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010b). Second, employees who are married-cohabiting and those that have responsibility for dependents likely have higher family demands. Hence, work-family support policies may have stronger effects in samples that include more employees who are women, who are married-cohabiting, or who have dependents.

Method

Literature Search and Inclusion Criteria

We used several techniques to search for pertinent research. First, we searched published articles in PsycINFO (1804–2011), Academic Search Complete (1865–2011), and Business Source Complete (1821–2011) databases using keywords such as *child/elder care*, *child/elder AND financial support*, and *work/life/family policy*. Second, we searched abstracts from journals that publish work-family research and reviewed references from reviews of work-family literature (e.g., Eby et al., 2005). Third, we searched for unpublished papers in ProQuest Digital Dissertations and conference programs from the Academy of Management, the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, and the Southern Management Association. We posted messages on four listservs and contacted 31 work-family researchers and eight research firms for unpublished papers and technical reports. This process yielded 342 potentially relevant studies available through September 2011.

To be included in the meta-analysis, the study had to examine a relationship between availability or use of work-family support policies and at least one of our outcome variables. Both individual family support policies and bundles of policies were included. Policies were deemed family support policies if they supported dependent care or another family-specific need (i.e., dependent care referral, on-site child care, paid parental leave, financial assistance for dependent care). However, more general work-life policies (i.e., flextime, telecommuting) that may aid nonwork needs other than family were excluded. Bundles of policies had to comprise family support policies only. When bundles comprised both family support and work-life policies, we contacted the author(s) and requested secondary data on a single, randomly chosen family support policy in the bundle rather than all family support policies. We adopted this approach to maximize the likelihood that authors would comply with our request. We excluded studies that used gestalt measures of availability instead of asking about specific policies (e.g., “My organization provides policies to

assist in balancing demands of families with children”) and studies that did not comprise employed adults. Based on these criteria, 57 studies (34 single policies, 23 bundles) with 61 separate samples were included in our meta-analysis. There were 41 published and 16 unpublished studies. Detailed coding information on each study, including descriptions of the work-family support policies examined, is provided in Appendix A. Each study was independently coded by two researchers, with discrepancies resolved through discussion. Interrater agreement was 99%.

Coding of Key Constructs

Policy availability and use. Each study was coded by describing the policy; coding policy availability or use, indicating whether it was a bundle or a single policy; and reporting the scale of measurement. For bundles, we coded number of policies in the bundle. For single policies, number of policies was coded as 1.

Policy availability must be observed by employees to be used (Thompson, Jahn, Kopelman, & Prottas, 2004). Therefore, policy availability was assessed as an individual-level measure of perceived availability rather than actual availability at the organizational level. This fits the assumption of signaling theory that individuals differ in their interpretation of organizational signals (Connelly et al., 2011). For single policies, availability was dichotomous (0 = not available, 1 = available) in all studies except one where it was continuous (1–10). In all studies using bundles, availability was treated as a count variable (i.e., sum of policies available). All measures were self-report and were treated as exhibiting perfect reliability.

Policy use was dichotomous (0 = don’t use, 1 = use) in all studies with single policies, except for three studies that measured frequency of use. For bundles of policy use, all studies measured use as a count variable (i.e., sum of policies used), except one study that measured frequency of use (i.e., frequency of use on a scale from 1 to 3 for each policy, averaged across eight policies). All studies utilized self-report measures and were coded as having perfect reliability.

Outcome variables. In coding outcome variables, we followed accepted definitions from the literature. The mediators included FSOP and work-to-family conflict; the latter was defined as conflict due to work demands interfering with family (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). Following T. D. Allen (2001), FSOP was defined as perceptions of family supportiveness from the organization rather than supervisors, management, or coworkers. Studies that used T. D. Allen’s measure and those that used items that paralleled T. D. Allen’s definition with the organization as the referent were included. We excluded measures that used supervisors, management, or coworkers as the referent and those that combined global perceptions of organizational family support with perceptions of managerial family support (i.e., the Thompson et al., 1999, composite measure). In line with other meta-analyses (e.g., Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007), work attitudes were an aggregate latent construct. This included separate effects for job satisfaction (work satisfaction, morale) defined as an emotional state resulting from evaluating one’s job experiences (Locke, 1969), affective commitment defined as an emotional attachment to the organization (N. J. Allen & Meyer 1990, 1996), and intentions to stay (likelihood of changing jobs, turnover intentions; both reverse coded) defined as a

conscious and deliberate willfulness to stay with (leave) the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Moderators. Because policy availability and use were both operationalized as a self-reported dichotomy (individual policy) or count of policies (bundle), we coded the number of policies examined in each study ($\bar{X} = 3.11$, $SD = 3.04$) and explored it as a moderator. We also examined sample characteristics as moderators. Gender was coded as the percentage of women in the sample. If a study reported results separately for women and men, it was coded as two separate effect sizes, with 100 and 0 as the percentage of women, respectively. Marital status was coded as the percentage of the sample that was married-cohabiting. Percentage of the sample with dependents (i.e., children under age 18 or an elderly relative) was our proxy for responsibility for dependents. Finally, we examined publication status (published vs. unpublished) and geographic location (U.S. vs. non-U.S.) as study-level moderators when the number of studies (k) was sufficient. Because we found no systematic differences for these last two moderators (i.e., the 95% confidence intervals between groups overlapped), results are not provided.

Meta-Analytic Techniques

We used Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) random effects meta-analytic procedures. We first transformed reported statistics such as means, standard deviations, t tests, and F tests into correlations. Four correlations were derived from standardized betas with Peterson and Brown's (2005) formula. When multiple forms of outcome variables (e.g., time-based and strain-based work-to-family conflict) were included in the same study, we calculated composite effect sizes using Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) formula to account for within-study correlations. We estimated the population effect size by adjusting for unreliability in observed correlations due to measurement error in the outcome variables and then computed sample-weighted means of corrected correlations. For studies not reporting reliabilities, we imputed reliability from the sample-weighted mean reliability of studies with the same construct (see Appendix B). A corrected correlation was judged significant ($p < .05$) when its 95% confidence interval did not include zero.

Both availability and policy use were assumed to be measured without error. However, correlations for availability and use were corrected for ceiling effects in point biserial correlations when the policy variable was dichotomous. When availability or use is dichotomous, the point biserial correlations suffer from ceiling effects restricting their maximum value to .79. Thus, when availability or use deviates from 50%, the observed point biserial correlation (but not Cohen's d) is likely attenuated (McGrath & Meyer, 2006). To account for suboptimal base rates for availability and use, we used Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) correction formulas based on the percentage of employees reporting that a policy was available or used in each study to correct the correlations. We chose Hunter and Schmidt's correction formulas over other approaches because they best account for the nonnormal distribution of policy availability and use found in organizational samples.

Model Testing

We estimated the fit of our models with structural equation modeling (SEM) following Viswesvaran and Ones (1995) and Shadish (1996). Our structural models used a latent construct to represent

work attitudes, where job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to stay served as manifest indicators. Other constructs were represented by single-item indicators without correction for measurement error. To produce the correlation matrix for use in SEM, we combined corrected population correlation coefficients from the current study with previously published meta-analytic correlations that were derived with the same techniques and artifact corrections (i.e., corrected correlations derived from random effects meta-analysis with study-level corrections for unreliability).¹ Because no published meta-analyses were available for the four relationships with FSOP, we performed a separate meta-analysis using our pool of initial studies to estimate these relationships (see Appendix C). Also, because the sample sizes in each cell of the matrix varied considerably, we used the smallest sample size ($N = 2,253$) in the matrix rather than the harmonic mean. Although this conservative approach is consistent with existing research (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003), we acknowledge that this practice still leads to a sample size based on dependent correlations that can bias standard errors and model fit (Naragon-Gainey, 2010).

Moderator Analyses

To test the effects of moderators, we ran a series of weighted least squares (WLS) regressions on the Fisher- z -transformed corrected correlations, weighting each effect size by the inverse of its variance (Hedges & Olkin, 1985), as this is the most accurate test for continuous moderators in meta-analysis (Steel & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2002). For each regression, a pseudo $F(Q_R)$ and associated beta (β) is calculated. If the latter is significant, this indicates that the variability in effect sizes is explained by the moderator (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Said another way, a significant beta indicates that the moderator is a significant predictor of the effect size. To illustrate, we used the percentage of women in the sample as the independent variable in a WLS regression predicting the correlation coefficient for the availability–use relationship. If results showed that the percentage of women in the sample is a significant predictor, gender moderated the relationship. A positive beta indicates that the availability–use relationship becomes more positive (less negative) at higher levels of the moderator. In contrast, a negative beta indicates that the relationship becomes less positive (more negative) at higher levels of the moderator. Because WLS regression yields biased standard errors by relying on sample size rather than number of studies (k), we adjusted results following Lipsey and Wilson (2001).

Results

Bivariate Relationships

Table 1 presents meta-analytic results for the effects of policy availability and use on FSOP, work-to-family conflict, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay. Hypothesis 1 was supported. Availability was positively related to job satisfaction ($\rho = .19$), affective commitment ($\rho = .20$), and intentions to stay ($\rho = .19$). Supporting Hypothesis 2, availability was also related to FSOP ($\rho = .19$). Hypothesis 3 is considered later in reporting of the SEM results.

¹ We thank an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.

Table 1

Meta-Analytic Results for Bivariate Relationships Between Work-Family Support Policy Availability, Use, and Employee Outcomes

Relationship	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	ρ	<i>SD</i> ρ	% <i>SE</i>	95% CI		90% CV	
							Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Policy availability with										
Family-supportive organization perceptions	16	16,037	.12	.19	.11	30.36	.14	.23	.00	.36
Work-to-family conflict	20	16,261	-.05	-.08	.07	50.91	-.05	-.11	.04	-.19
Job satisfaction	21	21,883	.13	.19	.05	65.99	.17	.22	.11	.28
Affective commitment	18	8,394	.13	.20	.02	94.83	.17	.23	.16	.23
Intentions to stay	19	14,562	.12	.19	.04	82.31	.16	.21	.12	.25
Policy use	12	3,754	.34	.48	.12	49.62	.42	.54	.28	.67
Policy use with										
Family-supportive organization perceptions	13	3,381	.03	.04	.07	76.82	-.01	.10	-.07	.16
Work-to-family conflict	14	4,331	-.11	-.16	.13	47.52	-.10	-.22	.04	-.37
Job satisfaction	11	3,612	.09	.13	.00	100.00	.11	.16	.13	.13
Affective commitment	11	3,174	.09	.13	.10	60.99	.06	.20	-.02	.29
Intentions to stay	9	2,253	.08	.11	.00	100.00	.06	.16	.11	.11

Note. *k* = the number of effect sizes; *N* = the total sample size; *r* = the sample-weighted mean correlation; ρ = the mean estimate of the corrected population correlation; *SD* ρ = the standard deviation of the mean estimate of the corrected population correlation; % *SE* = the percentage of variance attributable to sampling and measurement error; 95% CI = the 95% confidence interval; 90% CV = the 90% credibility interval.

Supporting Hypothesis 4, policy use was positively related to job satisfaction ($\rho = .13$), affective commitment ($\rho = .13$), and intentions to stay ($\rho = .11$), and confidence intervals did not include zero. Supporting Hypothesis 5, policy use was negatively related to work-to-family conflict ($\rho = -.16$). Policy use was not significantly related to FSOP ($\rho = .04$), as confidence intervals included zero. Finally, there was a strong positive relationship between availability and policy use ($\rho = .48$). Hypothesis 6 is discussed in the SEM results provided below.

Comparison of Effects

Hypothesis 7 predicted that availability would yield stronger relationships with work attitudes than would use. As shown in Table 1, the effect sizes of availability on job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay were generally larger than the effect sizes of use. However, differences in effect sizes were relatively modest. To test whether the effect sizes for availability and use were significantly different, we conducted Steiger's (1980) *z* tests, also referred to as a Hotelling-Williams test (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). These analyses take into account dependence in the effect sizes compared due to the common outcome variable and have been used in several meta-analyses (e.g., Ilies et al., 2007; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Q. Wang, Bowling, & Eschleman, 2010).

Results supported Hypothesis 7. In particular, Steiger's (1980) test showed that availability had significantly stronger positive effects than use for the relationship with job satisfaction ($z = 3.59$, $p < .01$), affective commitment ($z = 3.94$, $p < .01$), and intentions to stay ($z = 3.77$, $p < .01$). Also, in line with our proposed model, availability had a stronger positive relationship with FSOP ($z = 8.64$, $p < .01$) and a weaker negative relationship with work-to-family conflict ($z = -4.85$, $p < .01$) than did use.

Model Testing

We tested our proposed model with SEM, using the meta-analyzed correlation matrix shown in Table 2 and maximum likelihood estimation in LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993).

A latent work attitudes construct used indicators for job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to remain; and all other variables were defined by single indicators. We used the chi-square and the following indices to assess model fit: comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR), and Akaike's information criteria (AIC). To compare nested models (i.e., our proposed model and alternative Models C-E), we examined differences in chi-square to assess whether changes in model fit were statistically significant (Hu & Bentler, 1999). However, because chi-square is overly sensitive in large samples (Rigdon, 1998) and has shown some bias in meta-analytic SEM (Furrow & Beretvas, 2005), models were considered to differ in fit only if the AIC also supported this conclusion. The AIC also rewards model parsimony (i.e., degrees of freedom relative to model fit), and it has been used by others to compare models in meta-analytic SEM (i.e., Naragon-Gainey, 2010). Further, the AIC can be used to evaluate non-nested models, which was necessary for comparing our hypothesized model to Model B.

Our hypothesized model (Model A; see Figure 1) proposed that effects of policy availability and use on attitudes are mediated by separate paths through FSOP and work-to-family conflict, respectively. As shown in Table 3, this model was a good fit to the data ($\chi^2_{(12)} = 159.38$, CFI = .97, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .05, AIC = 195.65), and all proposed paths were significant ($p < .01$). However, to rule out alternative explanations for relationships among the observed data (Williams, Edwards, & Vandenberg, 2003), we examined several alternative models (see Figure 1): a non-nested main effects model with paths from policy availability and use to the proposed mediators switched (Model B), a nested main effects model with a direct path added from FSOP to use (Model C), and two nested partial mediation models with direct paths added from (a) availability to attitudes (Model D) and (b) use to attitudes (Model E). With the exception of Model B, all models fit the data well (see Table 3). Based on the AIC, Model B fit much worse than our proposed model (Δ AIC = 123.53), and the direct paths from availability to work-to-family conflict ($\beta = .00$, $p >$

Table 2
Meta-Analytic Correlations Between Work–Family Support Policy Availability, Use, and Employee Outcomes

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Policy availability	—					
2. Policy use	.48 ^a	—				
<i>k</i> studies	12					
<i>N</i> total observations	3,754					
3. FSOP	.19 ^a	.04 ^a	—			
<i>k</i> studies	16	13				
<i>N</i> total observations	16,037	3,381				
4. Work-to-family conflict	-.08 ^a	-.16 ^a	-.41 ^b	—		
<i>k</i> studies	20	14	17			
<i>N</i> total observations	16,261	4,331	12,336			
5. Job satisfaction	.19 ^a	.13 ^a	.48 ^b	-.26 ^c	—	
<i>k</i> studies	21	11	12	54		
<i>N</i> total observations	21,883	3,612	12,334	25,114		
6. Affective commitment	.20 ^a	.13 ^a	.35 ^b	-.17 ^c	.65 ^d	—
<i>k</i> studies	18	11	21	14	69	
<i>N</i> total observations	8,394	3,174	8,910	7,400	23,656	
7. Intentions to stay	.19 ^a	.11 ^a	.32 ^b	-.21 ^c	.58 ^e	.56 ^d
<i>k</i> studies	19	9	12	24	88	51
<i>N</i> total observations	14,562	2,253	8,687	10,961	35,494	17,282

Note. All correlations are corrected for unreliability and are derived from random effect meta-analytic techniques. The superscripts indicate the source of the meta-analytic correlations. FSOP = family-supportive organization perceptions.

^a Current analyses of primary studies detailed in Table 1. ^b Results from separate meta-analyses conducted. ^c Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, and Semmer (2011). ^d Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnysky (2002). ^e Tett and Meyer (1993).

.05) and from use to FSOP ($\beta = .04, p > .05$) were not significant. Model C fit significantly better than our hypothesized model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 7.97, p < .01; \Delta AIC = 5.86$). However, the coefficient for the path added in Model C ($\beta = -.05, p < .05$) was opposite in direction from the bivariate relationship ($r = .04$), suggesting a spurious relationship due to availability as a direct common antecedent. When we removed the path from availability to use, the relationship between FSOP and use was in the expected direction and was not significant ($\beta = .04, p > .05$). These results suggest that availability has a direct effect on policy use that is not even partially accounted for by FSOP.² However, in testing partial mediation for availability we found Model D fit the data better than our hypothesized model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 53.04, p < .01; \Delta AIC = 54.95$), with a significant direct path from availability to attitudes ($\beta = .15, p < .01$). Finally, the model specifying a main effect from policy use to attitudes (Model E) fit better than Model D ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 10.05, p < .01; \Delta AIC = 7.55$), and the path from use to attitudes was significant ($\beta = .07, p < .01$). In short, Model E best explained the mechanisms through which policy availability and use relate to attitudes, as indicated by chi-square difference tests and the lowest AIC value (133.15).

Standardized parameter coefficients for Model E are presented in Figure 2. The model explained 23% of the variance in policy use, 4% of the variance in FSOP, 19% of the variance in work-to-family conflict, and, notably, 30% of the variance in work attitudes. In Table 4, we report the direct, indirect, and total effects for Model E.³ Although availability had stronger direct and indirect effects than did use, Sobel (1982) tests for the specific indirect effects of availability and use on work attitudes through their respective mediators (FSOP, work-to-family conflict) were both significant (availability: $z = 8.23, p < .01$; use: $z = 2.96, p < .01$). We also used the Monte Carlo method for testing mediation by constructing 95% confidence intervals around our unstandardized

specific indirect effects (Preacher & Selig, 2012; Selig & Preacher, 2008). Both indirect effects were significant given neither of the confidence intervals included zero (availability lower limit [LL] = .058, upper limit [UL] = .094; use LL = .003, UL = .015).

When our tests of alternative models and coefficients from the final model are combined, two results are apparent. First, in support of Hypotheses 3 and 6, respectively, FSOP partially mediated the effects of availability on attitudes and work-to-family conflict partially mediated the effects of policy use on work attitudes. However, availability and use also had direct effects on attitudes. Second, expected relationships were found for the direct effects of availability on use and FSOP on work-to-family conflict (see Figure 2). Overall, our results are consistent with the hypothesized mechanisms through which policy availability and use relate to work attitudes.

Moderator Analyses

For many of the bivariate relationships, there was considerable variability in effect sizes as indicated by the percentage of variance (<75%) accounted for by artifacts. This variability implied possible moderators. Therefore, to examine whether number of policies, gender (percent women), marital status (percent married-cohabiting), and responsibility for dependents (percent with dependents) were related to our effect sizes, we conducted WLS

² As a post hoc analysis, models were tested with additional direct paths from availability and use to work-to-family conflict and FSOP, respectively. Due to possible spuriousness regression resulting from the common antecedent of availability, we ran models for availability and use separately. No support was found for either of these models. Neither the path coefficient from availability to work-to-family conflict ($\beta = .00, p > .05$) nor the path coefficient from use to FSOP ($\beta = .04, p > .05$) was significant.

³ We thank an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.

Table 3
Fit Statistics for Hypothesized and Alternative Model Comparisons

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	$\Delta\chi^2$
Model A: Hypothesized	159.38**	12	.97	.95	.07	.05	195.65	
Model B: Main effects on mediators switched for availability and use	295.18**	12	.95	.90	.10	.09	319.18	
Model C: Main effect on use-FSOP	151.41**	11	.97	.95	.08	.05	189.79	7.97 ^{a**}
Model D: Main effects on attitudes-availability	106.34**	11	.98	.97	.06	.03	140.70	53.04 ^{b**}
Model E: Main effects on attitudes-use	96.29**	10	.98	.97	.06	.03	133.15	10.05 ^{c**}

Note. A difference in chi-square test was not conducted for comparing Model A and Model B because these models are not nested. $N = 2,253$; df = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual; AIC = Akaike's information criteria; FSOP = family-supportive organization perceptions.

^a Difference in model fit comparing Model C with Model A. ^b Difference in model fit comparing Model D with Model A. ^c Difference in model fit comparing Model E with Model D.

** $p < .01$.

regression analyses. To maximize k , we conducted separate WLS regressions for each moderator. Results are provided in Table 5.

Number of policies. Hypothesis 8, that relationships would be stronger as the number of work-family support policies increased, received mixed support (see Table 5). As expected, the positive relationships between availability and intentions to stay ($\rho = .19, \beta = .22, p < .01, R^2 = .05$) as well as availability and use ($\rho = .58, \beta = .43, p < .01, R^2 = .19$) were stronger when more policies were included. Opposite of predictions, the positive relationship of availability with job satisfaction ($\rho = .20, \beta = -.28, p < .01, R^2 = .08$) became weaker when more policies were included. Number of policies also moderated the negative relationship between availability and work-to-family conflict, and the standardized regression coefficient was positive ($\rho = -.08, \beta = .45, p < .01, R^2 = .20$). Because the corrected correlation between availability and work-to-family conflict was negative, a positive beta indicates that effect sizes become smaller as number of policies increases. Thus, contrary to predictions, the negative relationship between availability and work-to-family conflict was lessened as number of policies increased.

A similar pattern was found for policy use. As predicted, the positive relationships between use and job satisfaction ($\rho = .14, \beta = .56, p < .01, R^2 = .31$) and between use and affective commitment ($\rho = .13, \beta = .67, p < .01, R^2 = .45$) were stronger when the number of policies was larger. Opposite of predictions,

the negative relationship between use and work-to-family conflict ($\rho = -.18, \beta = .22, p < .01, R^2 = .05$) was weaker when the number of policies was larger.

Significant WLS regression results were followed by subgroup analyses to interpret effects of the moderator, number of policies. In all studies, policies were either single policies or bundles of at least three policies. We followed previous meta-analyses on HR practices and made a distinction between studies focusing on single policies versus bundles (Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006). This allowed us to explore the potential synergistic effects of multiple policies. We adopted the most common practice in testing dichotomous moderators (Cortina, 2003) and conducted subgroup analyses to confirm and better understand our initial moderation results.

Our subgroup moderator analyses (see Table 6) generally supported findings from the WLS regressions. When we divided studies into two groups (number of policies = 1 vs. number of policies ≥ 3), differences in mean corrected correlations similar to our WLS regression results were obtained, and many of the 95% confidence intervals did not overlap, suggesting significant differences between groups. However, although results were in the same direction as the WLS regression findings, the availability-job satisfaction and availability-intentions to stay relationships demonstrated considerable overlap in 95% confidence intervals between groups. In particular, the availability-job satisfaction mod-

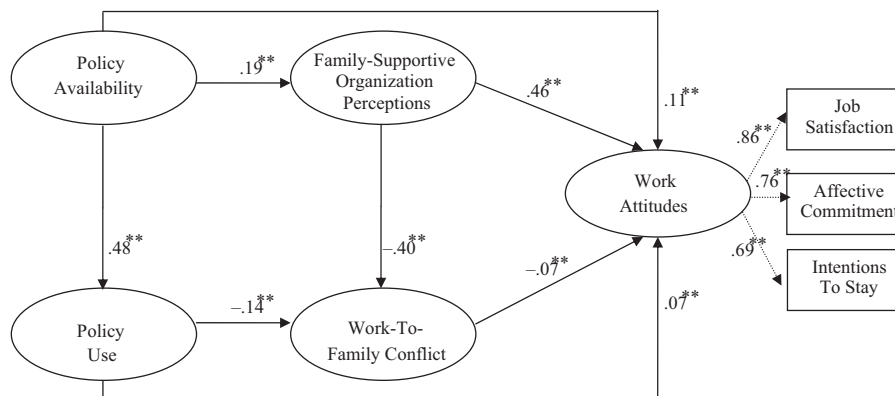


Figure 2. Final model linking work-family support policies with employee outcomes. Values represent standardized coefficients. Variance explained in endogenous variables (R^2): policy use = 23%, family-supportive organization perceptions = 4%, work-to-family conflict = 19%, work attitudes = 30%. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4
Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects for Work Attitudes

Predictor	Direct effects	Indirect effects	Total effects
Policy availability	.11	.13	.24
Policy use	.07	.01	.08
Family-supportive organization perceptions	.46	.03	.49
Work-to-family conflict	-.07	—	-.07

eration results should be interpreted with caution because the subgroup analysis found that the 95% confidence intervals completely overlapped (.14–.25 vs. .15–.20), suggesting no significant differences between studies focusing on single policies and those investigating bundles of policies.

Gender. The percentage of women in the sample moderated several relationships. The positive relationship between availability and job satisfaction weakened as the percentage of women in the sample increased ($\rho = .20, \beta = -.27, p < .01, R^2 = .07$). Also, the negative relationship between use and work-to-family conflict was weaker in samples with more women ($\rho = -.16, \beta = .73, p < .01, R^2 = .53$). The positive relationship between use and affective commitment was stronger in samples with more women ($\rho = .13, \beta = .13, p < .01, R^2 = .16$). The positive relationship between availability and use was also stronger in samples with more women ($\rho = .59, \beta = .19, p < .01, R^2 = .04$).

Marital status. Samples with more married-cohabiting employees had weaker positive effects of policy availability on job satisfaction ($\rho = .20, \beta = -.52, p < .01, R^2 = .27$) and intentions to stay ($\rho = .20, \beta = -.31, p < .01, R^2 = .10$). Samples with more married-cohabiting employees had stronger negative effects of use on work-to-family conflict ($\rho = -.16, \beta = -.25, p < .05, R^2 = .06$) and stronger positive effects of use on job satisfaction ($\rho = .14, \beta = .54, p < .05, R^2 = .29$) and affective commitment ($\rho = .12, \beta = .59, p < .01, R^2 = .34$). The positive effects of avail-

ability on use were also stronger in samples with more married-cohabiting employees ($\rho = .58, \beta = .24, p < .01, R^2 = .06$).

Responsibility for dependents. Strong moderating effects were found for responsibility for dependents. In samples where more employees had dependents, availability had weaker positive effects on FSOP ($\rho = .11, \beta = -.32, p < .01, R^2 = .11$), job satisfaction ($\rho = .21, \beta = -.40, p < .01, R^2 = .16$), and affective commitment ($\rho = .20, \beta = -.41, p < .01, R^2 = .17$). Samples with more employees with dependents showed stronger negative effects of policy use on work-to-family conflict ($\rho = -.18, \beta = -.16, p < .05, R^2 = .03$) and stronger positive effects of use on job satisfaction ($\rho = .15, \beta = .47, p < .05, R^2 = .22$) and affective commitment ($\rho = .13, \beta = .61, p < .01, R^2 = .37$). Finally, a stronger positive relationship between availability and use ($\rho = .58, \beta = .34, p < .01, R^2 = .11$) was found in samples where more employees had dependents.

Discussion

The overarching goal in the current study was to resolve the question of whether work–family support policies relate to employee work attitudes. Achieving this goal involved three primary objectives. First, we conducted a quantitative review of the relationships between work–family support policies and work attitudes to help build consensus about these relationships and the possible differential effects of availability and use. This is an important contribution to HR practice because firms often desire evidence of policy benefits when making implementation decisions (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). Our second objective was to enhance theoretical understanding of how availability and use of work–family support policies relate to work attitudes. We accomplished this by developing and testing a model of the distinct mediators (FSOP and work-to-family conflict) that link availability and use to work attitudes. Our final objective was to better understand variability in effect sizes of policy availability and use by examining number of policies and sample characteristics as moderators.

Table 5
WLS Regression Results for Continuous Moderators of Work–Family Support Policy Availability and Use Effects

Relationship	Number of policies				% women				% married-cohabiting				% with dependents			
	k	ρ	β	EV	k	ρ	β	EV	k	ρ	β	EV	k	ρ	β	EV
Policy availability with																
FSOP	16	.19	-.05	.00	15	.11	-.13	.02	14	.11	.08	.01	13	.11	-.32**	.11
Work-to-family conflict	20	-.08	.45**	.20	20	-.08	.00	.00	18	-.04	-.19	.04	15	-.03	.17	.03
Job satisfaction	21	.20	-.28**	.08	19	.20	-.27**	.07	19	.20	-.52**	.27	14	.21	-.40**	.16
Affective commitment ^a	17	.21	.14	.02	17	.21	-.05	.00	16	.21	.17	.03	13	.20	-.41**	.17
Intentions to stay	19	.19	.22**	.05	17	.19	-.07	.01	17	.20	-.31**	.10	13	.20	.12	.01
Policy use	12	.58	.43**	.19	12	.59	.19**	.04	10	.58	.24**	.06	11	.58	.34**	.11
Policy use with																
FSOP	13	.05	.05	.00	13	.05	.00	.00	12	.05	-.08	.00	13	.05	-.10	.01
Work-to-family conflict	14	-.18	.22**	.05	13	-.16	.73**	.53	13	-.16	-.25*	.06	14	-.18	-.16*	.03
Job satisfaction	11	.14	.56**	.31	10	.14	.40	.16	10	.14	.54*	.29	10	.15	.47*	.22
Affective commitment	11	.13	.67**	.45	11	.13	.40**	.16	10	.12	.59**	.34	11	.13	.61**	.37
Intentions to stay	9	.12	-.25	.06	9	.12	.26	.07	9	.12	.08	.01	8	.12	.32	.10

Note. WLS = weighted least squares; k = the number of effect sizes; ρ = the mean estimate of the Fisher-z-transformed corrected population correlation for the effect sizes cumulated; β = the standardized beta weight for the respective moderator; EV = the explained variance in effect sizes attributable to the moderator; FSOP = family-supportive organization perceptions.

^a Following recommendations by Steel and Kammeyer-Mueller (2002), Roehling et al. (2001) was dropped from these analyses because the sample size and associated sampling error variance were extreme outliers, which affected the magnitude of some results.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 6
Subgroup Moderator Analyses for Policy Availability and Use by Number of Policies

Relationship	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	ρ	<i>SD</i> ρ	95% CI	
					Lower	Upper
Availability-work-to-family conflict						
Number of policies = 1	10	6,296	-.13	.04	-.09	-.17
Bundle: Number of policies \geq 3 (3-8)	10	9,965	-.04	.06	.00	-.08
Availability-job satisfaction						
Number of policies = 1	10	11,393	.21	.07	.17	.25
Bundle: Number of policies \geq 3 (3-12)	11	10,490	.17	.00	.15	.20
Availability-intentions to stay						
Number of policies = 1	7	4,629	.16	.04	.12	.21
Bundle: Number of policies \geq 3 (3-12)	12	9,933	.20	.04	.16	.22
Availability-use						
Number of policies = 1	7	1,602	.42	.00	.36	.48
Bundle: Number of policies \geq 3 (6-8)	5	2,152	.54	.17	.46	.61
Use-work-to-family conflict						
Number of policies = 1	10	3,213	-.19	.13	-.12	-.27
Bundle: Number of policies \geq 3 (4-10)	4	1,118	-.07	.03	.01	-.16
Use-job satisfaction						
Number of policies = 1	7	2,238	.12	.00	.09	.14
Bundle: Number of policies \geq 3 (4-10)	4	1,374	.16	.00	.11	.22
Use-affective commitment						
Number of policies = 1	5	1,285	.03	.00	-.05	.10
Bundle: Number of policies \geq 3 (4-10)	6	1,889	.20	.07	.12	.28

Note. Subgroup analyses were conducted only on relationships that exhibited significant WLS regression results. Numbers in parentheses represent the range of policies included in bundles. *k* = the number of effect sizes; *N* = total sample size; ρ = the mean estimate of the corrected population correlation; *SD* ρ = the standard deviation of the mean estimate of the corrected population correlation; 95% CI = the 95% confidence interval; WLS = weighted least squares.

Relationships Between Work-Family Support Policies and Work Attitudes

Although many studies have examined outcomes associated with work-family support policies, their findings do not consistently show relationships with employee attitudes (Kelly et al., 2008). Thus, our meta-analytic review set out to provide a convincing answer to the question, are work-family support policies related to more positive work attitudes? Our meta-analytic findings suggest that availability and use of work-family support policies are related to more positive work attitudes. Using Cohen's (1988) benchmarks for point biserial correlations when base rates are equal (small = .10, medium = .24, and large = .37; see Lipsey & Wilson, 2001; McGrath & Meyer, 2006), we found that both policy availability and use exhibited small positive relationships with job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intentions to stay. However, the effects associated with policy availability were generally stronger than were those associated with use. Thus, one factor that may contribute to differences in past study findings is whether the study assessed policy availability or use. For example, among studies that examined family leave, some measured the availability of paid leave (e.g., Giffords, 2009; Grover & Crooker, 1995) and some examined use of leave (e.g., Breaugh & Frye, 2007; Kim, 2001). By using meta-analytic techniques, we were able to summarize the effects for both use and availability so that a comparison of effect sizes was possible.

Understanding How Availability and Use Relate to Work Attitudes

Drawing on signaling (Spence, 1973) and self-interest (Lind & Tyler, 1988) theories, we developed and found support for a model

specifying unique mechanisms linking policy availability and use to work attitudes. Availability showed both direct effects on work attitudes and indirect effects through increased FSOP. Use related to work attitudes not only directly but also indirectly through reduced work-to-family conflict. Our proposed model drew from Grover and Crooker's (1995) early work suggesting that work-family support policies might operate through both a symbolic mechanism by signaling corporate concern and an instrumental path by reducing work-family conflict. Although this work was critical in developing theory about how work-family support policies might operate, Grover and Crooker (1995) measured only policy availability and not use or proposed mediators. Thus, our meta-analysis makes a contribution by providing a direct, large-scale test of Grover and Crooker's ideas through the inclusion of studies that measured the key variables they suggested.

Our findings also emphasize the important role of FSOP in understanding how work-family support policies relate to employee outcomes. Availability had small effects on FSOP ($\rho = .19$), but FSOP had medium effects on job satisfaction ($\rho = .48$), affective commitment ($\rho = .35$), intentions to stay ($\rho = .32$), and work-to-family conflict ($\rho = -.41$). Because FSOP generally exhibited stronger relationships with work attitudes than did availability, offering policies without also creating a family-supportive environment may yield few benefits. Beyond the practical relevance of these effects, by identifying FSOP as a mechanism linking policy availability to work attitudes, we (a) extend the literature on FSOP and (b) support the idea that organizational actions can signal employees to view a firm as caring and supportive of family.

There were also small direct effects of policy availability that cannot be explained by signaling theory alone. However, these direct effects on attitudes are consistent with legitimacy theory (Arthur,

2003), which suggests that organizational actions foster positive reactions from employees when they are perceived as legitimate. Work-family policies are considered legitimate because they are desired by society and fit with established beliefs (Cook, 2009). Also, organizational actions are viewed as valuable by both advantaged groups (i.e., policy users) and disadvantaged groups (i.e., nonusers) if they are perceived as legitimate (Major, 1994).

Moderator Relationships

An important factor that accounted for variance in observed effect sizes was whether a study examined a single policy or multiple policies. Consistent with the suggested additive benefits of HR policies (Huselid, 1995), the positive effects of availability and use on work attitudes typically increased in magnitude as the number of policies in the study increased. Interestingly, number of policies did not moderate the relationship between policy availability and FSOP, suggesting that support perceptions may be enhanced by offering just a single policy. Also, opposite of predictions, number of policies weakened the negative effects of policy use on work-to-family conflict. However, this finding may be an artifact of the type of policy represented in single-policy studies. Of studies that examined use of a single policy, the largest portion of them (33%) examined family leave. Thus, our findings may indicate that family leave policies are particularly useful in reducing work-to-family conflict. Of course, to assess whether this explains why a single policy was more strongly related than multiple policies to reduced work-to-family conflict, studies comparing the effects of different policy types are needed to determine which work-family support policies are associated with distinct outcomes (Sutton & Noe, 2005).

The percentage of women in the sample also moderated a few of the relationships of availability and use with work attitudes. The positive relationship between use and affective commitment was stronger in samples with more women, suggesting policy use may enhance loyalty among women more than men. In contrast, having more women in the sample weakened the positive relationship between availability and job satisfaction and the negative relationship between use and work-to-family conflict. Because women have more caregiving responsibilities than do men (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010b), the stronger availability-job satisfaction and use-work-to-family conflict relationships in samples with more men may reflect the fact that policies available to and used by men easily meet their needs due to lower family demands. However, work-family support policies may not adequately alleviate conflict for women, given their greater family demands. Supporting this, Buffardi, Smith, O'Brien, and Erdwins (1999) found that men were more satisfied with their parental leave benefits than were women.

The percentage of the sample that was married-cohabiting and the percentage of the sample with dependents also explained variability in the effect sizes. Availability had a stronger positive relationship with FSOP and work attitudes in samples where fewer employees were married-cohabiting or had dependents. One possible explanation for this finding is that the symbolic value of work-family support policies is greater among employees with few family demands because the firm is viewed as going above and beyond their current needs for dependent care by merely making policies available. In contrast, effects of policy use on work-to-family conflict and work attitudes were stronger in samples where more employees were married-

cohabiting or had dependents. This suggests that when employees have high family demands, symbols of concern may become less important and instrumental support to manage those demands may become more important. Of course, our findings should be interpreted with caution because our measures (percentage of the sample married-cohabiting, percentage of the sample with dependents) may be poor indicators of true family demands. For example, our measures did not assess whether a dependent is a responsibility versus part of a support system. Preteen age children may increase family demands because they need child care, but older children may care for younger children, providing a support system rather than a demand.

Finally, when a higher percentage of the sample was women, was married-cohabiting, or had dependents, employees were more likely to use the available policies. Employees with higher family demands (i.e., women and those who are married-cohabiting or have dependents) may pay more attention to signals about work-family support policies out of their need to relieve the burden of dependent care, leading to greater awareness of available policies and higher use. The stronger positive relationship between availability and use in samples with a higher percentage of women is consistent with the traditional notion that women handle more caregiving and have a greater need for supportive policies. In contrast, Ford, Heinen, and Langkamer's (2007) meta-analysis on cross-domain spillover between work and family found that the percentage of women in the sample explained variance in only one effect size, and Ford et al. concluded that there may be diminishing asymmetry in the work and family responsibilities for men and women. To help shed light on these discrepant findings, research is needed that investigates the role of gender in the decision-making process underlying policy use and possible differences in the work and family antecedents of policy use for men and women.

Practical Implications

Although our meta-analytic results suggest beneficial effects for work-family support policies, effects sizes of "true" relationships were rather small and even smaller for observed effects. Thus, there is some merit in questioning the business case for these policies (Christensen, 1998; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). However, our estimated effect sizes are conservative because correlations were not corrected for measurement error in availability or use. Also, the effects are comparable in size to those found in meta-analyses on telecommuting (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007) and alternative work schedules (Baltes et al., 1999), and even modest effects can have an important impact for organizations (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). In our meta-analytic model, the amount of variance explained in work-to-family conflict (19%) and work attitudes (30%) was also not negligible. Nonetheless, the small effects should be considered in making practical recommendations. Because effects were modest, organizations may have greater potential for return on investment if they invest in policies that are inexpensive and easy to implement. For example, offering dependent care resource and referral or turning an empty room into a lactation room costs very little but may adequately meet some employees' needs and improve attitudes for all employees if the action is perceived as showing concern for employees' families. Although we agree with Kossek (2005) that work-family policies should perhaps be evaluated more broadly by considering their benefit to multiple stakeholders (i.e., society, employees, families),

organizations that must justify their return on investment might choose inexpensive options to maximize their benefit.

Our findings also suggest that there is utility in providing work-family support policies even when use is low, as availability was more strongly related to work attitudes than was use. As noted by Grover and Crooker (1995), availability of work-family support policies may improve attitudes regardless of whether employees personally use the policies. Thus, organizations that foster employee perceptions of corporate concern by offering policies that support employees' family needs are likely to have employees with more positive attitudes.

It is also notable that FSOP had medium effects on work attitudes, which were larger than the effects of availability or use. These findings, along with those of other studies (e.g., Behson, 2005), suggest that organizational support for family may be more important in enhancing employee attitudes than formal policies. However, availability of work-family support policies may serve as a necessary condition for FSOP, as it is unlikely that an organization can be viewed as family supportive if no formal policies are available to employees. Thus, there is practical value in knowing if work-family support policies are an antecedent of FSOP. To disentangle the causal direction of the policy availability-FSOP relationship, longitudinal quasi-experimental research is needed to determine whether FSOP increases after work-family policies are implemented or, alternatively, if organizations where FSOP is high are more likely to implement policies. Future research can also examine other factors that organizations might use as levers to increase FSOP (e.g., supervisor and co-worker support for family) and whether those factors predict FSOP above and beyond the presence of work-family support policies.

Because policy use was higher when more policies were offered, organizations should consider that employees' unique dependent care needs are unlikely to be met by a single policy. Also, making multiple policies available was more strongly related to work attitudes than was a single policy. This aligns with findings from research on high-performance work practices (HPWP) that HR systems have stronger effects than individual HR practices (Wright & Boswell, 2002). Offering "cafeteria style" benefits—where employees select from many options—may be an effective way for organizations to meet employees' diverse nonwork needs. However, given that a single policy was just as strongly related as multiple policies to FSOP, firms with limited resources may benefit from investing in a single policy that employees find desirable (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). Thus, although work attitudes improve with more work-family support policies, firms can limit costs by tailoring programs around a single policy that employees most desire and supplementing it with a few inexpensive policies that address more diverse dependent care needs.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

As with all studies, limitations exist in our work. Although we tested a multistage model of effects, most studies in our meta-analysis used cross-sectional data. Thus, causality cannot be inferred. Reverse causality is possible given that work-to-family conflict and FSOP may increase the likelihood that employees will use work-family support policies. Also, our results may be attenuated due to range restriction, as people with more dependent care duties or high work-family conflict may seek jobs in firms with

better work-family support policies (Rau & Hyland, 2002). Within-person, longitudinal work on antecedents and outcomes of policy availability and use is needed to disentangle causality.

Studies in our meta-analysis did not consistently examine a single policy (rather than a bundle), and some policies were included in only a few studies (e.g., elder care). All studies included comprised either single policies or bundles that solely focused on dependent care, giving us confidence that our results reflect work-family support policies. However, given limitations of the studies included in the meta-analysis, we could not compare the effects of different policies. Thus, we recommend that future studies report correlations for individual policies rather than (or as well as) for policy bundles, so effects of specific policies can be explored in future meta-analytic work. Policies that are more visible (i.e., on-site child care) may gain greater attention than those that are less visible (i.e., dependent care resource and referral policies), creating stronger signals and more benefits. Future research should help clarify (a) the unique effects of availability and use of different policies on attitudes, (b) which policies exhibit greater benefit to organizations, and (c) how effects may differ depending on employee characteristics (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000).

The effects of policy use were partially mediated by work-to-family conflict, but the direct and indirect effects of use were small. Although use may have only modest effects on work attitudes, use may relate more strongly to health-related outcomes such as burnout and psychological strain or stress. We could not include health outcomes in our meta-analysis because few studies examined them. Thus, future research might draw from the job demands-resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) or conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) to extend our model and include health outcomes as mediators of the policy use-work attitude relationship. Finally, future studies may also explore whether the small effects of policy use may be due to low-quality policies or backlash and negative career consequences associated with using policies.

Following T. D. Allen (2001), our conceptualization of FSOP did not include supervisor support for family. Although availability should relate conceptually to perceptions of organizational support more than should support from supervisors, studies on how supervisor support relates to the availability and use of work-family policies are clearly needed. Supervisor support for family is distinct from perceptions of organizational family support (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009), and research has found that supervisor support may be important to work-family policy use (Casper, Fox, Sitzmann, & Landy, 2004). Supervisors can influence employee awareness of policies and whether use impairs career progress, which can affect FSOP, policy use, and subsequent work attitudes. Social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) suggests supervisors are more likely to help employees with work-family issues when they personally identify with these employees (i.e., they have similar family situations). Additional research that draws on identification in organizations (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010) to examine supervisor support for family and FSOP in the context of work-family support policies may help clarify the positive and negative outcomes of policy use and availability.

Finally, our findings have implications for research on HPWP, which typically examines actual availability of HR practices at the organizational-level rather than individual-level perceptions of policies (for an exception, see Liao, Toya, Lepak, & Hong, 2009).

Studies could extend research on HPWP by examining individual-level policy use, the perceived availability–use relationship, and mechanisms that link use and perceived availability to employee outcomes.

Conclusion

Our results suggest that availability and use of work–family support policies exhibit small but favorable relationships with work attitudes, and relationships are stronger for availability than for use. Further, greater availability of work–family support policies was associated with higher FSOP and that, in turn, related to more positive attitudes. Policy use partially related to work attitudes through reduced work-to-family conflict. Although additional research is needed to understand moderators of these relationships, we believe that considering the unique mechanisms through which availability and use operate has provided a richer and broader investigation of how work–family support policies relate to employee outcomes. We hope that this will lead to future investigations of processes by which specific work–family support policies can most benefit employees and organizations.

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Appendix A

Main Codes and Values for Primary Studies Included in the Meta-Analysis

Study	Policy	Policy type	Number of policies	Outcome	N	r	r _{yy}	Nationality	% B	% W	% M	% D
Aletraris (2010) ^b	Family emergency and sick leave	A	1	JS	3,854	.15	0.76	Non-U.S.	80	49	59	50
Allen (2001) ^c	On-site child care, child care subsidies, information and referral for child care, paid maternity leave, paid paternity leave, elder care	A	6	FSOP	498	.06	0.91	U.S.	17	73	84	79
		A	6	WFC	498	-.07	0.89	U.S.	17	73	84	79
		A	6	JS	498	.05	0.88	U.S.	17	73	84	79
		A	6	AC	498	.05	0.88	U.S.	17	73	84	79
		A	6	IS	498	.02	0.91	U.S.	17	73	84	79
		A	6	USE	498	.38	1.00	U.S.	17	73	84	79
		U	6	FSOP	498	-.05	0.91	U.S.	3	73	84	79
		U	6	WFC	498	.01	0.89	U.S.	3	73	84	79
		U	6	JS	498	.04	0.88	U.S.	3	73	84	79
		U	6	AC	498	.04	0.88	U.S.	3	73	84	79
U	6	IS	498	.05	0.91	U.S.	3	73	84	79		
Aycan & Mehmet (2005, Sample 1) ^c	Day care at work, day care subcontracted by the organization, contribution to the expenses of day care, child care resource and referral, training on child care, child care education classes, child care seminars	A	7	WFC	197	-.16	0.90	Non-U.S.	42	0	100	100

(Appendices continue)

Appendix A (continued)

Study	Policy	Policy type	Number of policies	Outcome	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r_{yy}</i>	Nationality	% B	% W	% M	% D
Aycan & Mehmet (2005, Sample 2) ^c	Day care at work, day care subcontracted by the organization, contribution to the expenses of day care, child care resource and referral, training on child care, child care education classes, child care seminars	A	7	WFC	237	-.02	0.90	Non-U.S.	35	100	100	100
Batt & Valcour (2003) ^c	Dependent care resource and referral, parenting seminars and assistance, child care center, sick child care center	A	4	WFC	557	.04	0.54	U.S.	40	53	94	72
Behson (2005) ^c	Child care resource and referral, elder care resource and referral, employer-sponsored child care center, child care subsidies, pretax contributions to pay for child or other dependent care	A	5	WFC	2,248	-.06	0.85	U.S.	24	49		
		A	5	JS	2,248	.12	0.80	U.S.	24	49		
		A	5	IS	2,248	.08	0.83	U.S.	24	49		
Boz (2012) ^a	Reduced work hours to care for dependents	A	1	FSOP	264	.09	0.88	Non-U.S.	62	30	95	58
		A	1	WFC	269	-.18	0.85	Non-U.S.	62	30	95	58
		A	1	USE	264	.15	1.00	Non-U.S.	62	30	95	58
		U	1	FSOP	255	.01	0.88	Non-U.S.	5	30	95	58
		U	1	WFC	260	-.15	0.85	Non-U.S.	5	30	95	58
Breaugh & Frye (2007) ^c	Family leave	U	1	JS	187	.09	0.90	U.S.	23			100
Breaugh & Frye (2008) ^c	Family leave	U	1	WFC	96	-.54	0.93	U.S.	76			100
Bresin (1995) ^a	Work-family educational seminars	U	1	JS	709	.01	0.87	U.S.		38	87	100
Brough et al. (2005) ^b	Family savings/insurance plan	U	1	WFC	650	-.03	0.92	Non-U.S.		55	82	53
		U	1	JS	393	.07	0.85	Non-U.S.		55	82	53
Butler et al. (2004) ^b	Day care/elder care resource and referral	A	1	WFC	194	-.02	0.74	U.S.	18	62	88	99
		A	1	USE	194	.48	1.00	U.S.	18	62	88	99
		U	1	WFC	35	-.23	0.74	U.S.		62	88	99
		U	1	WFC	35	-.23	0.74	U.S.		62	88	99
Casper & Harris (2008) ^c	On-site child care, sick child care, dependent care resource and referral, flexible spending account for dependent care, child or elder care subsidies, financial assistance for adoption, extended paternity/maternity leave, paid paternity/maternity leave	A	8	AC	284	.14	0.84	U.S.	30	62	52	18
		A	8	IS	283	.14	0.85	U.S.	30	62	52	18
		A	8	USE	249	.28	1.00	U.S.	30	62	52	18
		U	8	AC	250	-.04	0.84	U.S.		62	52	18
		U	8	IS	249	.05	0.85	U.S.		62	52	18
Chan Hak Fun (2007) ^a	Reduced hours work hours to care for dependents, compassionate leave, extended paid maternity leave, paid leave to care for sick family members	A	4	JS	112	.12	0.72	Non-U.S.	32	57	21	19
		A	4	IS	112	.24	0.80	Non-U.S.	32	57	21	19

(Appendices continue)

Appendix A (continued)

Study	Policy	Policy type	Number of policies	Outcome	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i> _{yy}	Nationality	% B	% W	% M	% D
Colton (2004, Sample 1) ^a	Family health insurance, pretax dollars for child care, pretax dollars for elder care, on-site child care, child care resource and referral, elder care resource and referral, unpaid family leave, paid family leave, on-site support groups, work and family seminars	U	10	FSOP	234	.14	0.87	U.S.	12	95	100	100
		U	10	AC	234	.19	0.91	U.S.	12	50	100	100
Colton (2004, Sample 2) ^a	Family health insurance, pretax dollars for child care, pretax dollars for elder care, on-site child care, child care resource and referral, elder care resource and referral, unpaid family leave, paid family leave, on-site support groups, work and family seminars	U	10	FSOP	234	.03	0.87	95	12	50	100	100
		U	10	AC	234	.19	0.92	U.S.	12	50	100	100
Cook (2009) ^b	Child care resource and referral	A	1	FSOP	2,634	.07	0.74	U.S.	20	52	61	51
		A	1	JS	2,655	.10	0.68	U.S.	20	52	61	51
		A	1	IS	2,651	.05	0.83	U.S.	20	52	61	51
Cordeiro et al. (2006) ^a	Parental leave	U	1	FSOP	368	.02	0.85	U.S.	8	15	53	49
Dijkers et al. (2005) ^c	Financial assistant for child care costs	U	1	&WFC	269	-.08	0.60	Non-U.S.	3	13	85	57
		U	1	AC	269	-.04	0.84	Non-U.S.	3	13	85	57
Dijkers et al. (2004) ^c	Financial assistant for child care costs	U	1	&WFC	638	-.05	0.72	Non-U.S.	11	44	69	34
		U	1	AC	638	.03	0.78	Non-U.S.	11	44	69	34
Dijkers et al. (2007) ^c	Child care subsidies	U	1	WFC	414	-.12	0.73	Non-U.S.	30	31	80	100
		U	1	FSOP	414	-.04	0.77	Non-U.S.	30	31	80	100
Dolcos (2007, Sample 1) ^a	Child care resource and referral, elder care resource and referral, on/near-site child care, child care financial subsidies, pretax account for child/dependent care	A	5	JS	717	.13	0.67	U.S.	25	63	66	
		A	5	IS	717	.07	0.83	U.S.	25	63	66	
Dolcos (2007, Sample 2) ^a	Child care resource and referral, elder care resource and referral, on/near-site child care, child care financial subsidies, pretax account for child/dependent care	A	5	JS	1,943	.09	0.67	U.S.	24	52	62	
		A	5	IS	1,943	.11	0.83	U.S.	24	52	62	
Giffords (2009) ^c	Paid maternity/paternity leave	A	1	AC	214	.20	0.92	U.S.		85	65	
Grover & Crooker (1995) ^c	Paid maternity/paternity leave with full reemployment rights	A	1	AC	745	.11	0.80	U.S.	36	53	54	66
		A	1	IS	745	.22	0.83	U.S.	36	53	54	66

(Appendices continue)

Appendix A (continued)

Study	Policy	Policy type	Number of policies	Outcome	N	r	r _{yy}	Nationality	% B	% W	% M	% D
Hammer et al. (2005) ^c	Family health insurance, pretax dollars for child care, pretax dollars for elder care, on-site child care, child care resource and referral, unpaid leave, paid leave, elder care resource and referral, on-site support groups, work and family seminars	U	10	WFC	203	-.14	0.91	U.S.	15	0	100	100
		U	10	JS	203	.17	0.72	U.S.	15	0	100	100
Judge & Colquitt (2004) ^b	Child care assistance	A	1	WFC	229	-.04	0.83	U.S.	23	42	98	54
		A	1	JS	229	-.05	0.93	U.S.	23	42	98	54
Kane (2003) ^a	Dependent care leave	U	1	IS	92	.14	0.85	Non-U.S.		91	67	79
Kim (2001) ^c	Family emergency and sick leave	U	1	FSOP	279	.05	0.77	U.S.	29	54	66	52
Kimpel (1998) ^a	Near- or on-site child care center, child care subsidies, child care pretax account, child care resource and referral	U	4	WFC	287	-.04	0.77	U.S.	21	45	92	100
		U	4	JS	389	.05	0.78	U.S.	21	45	92	100
		U	4	AC	389	.07	0.83	U.S.	21	45	92	100
King & Botsford (2009) ^c	Elder care	A	1	WFC	389	.00	0.77	U.S.	15	65	56	40
		A	1	JS	389	.03	0.81	U.S.	15	65	56	40
		A	1	IS	391	.08	0.72	U.S.	15	65	56	40
		A	1	USE	391	.28	1.00	U.S.	15	65	56	40
		U	1	WFC	389	-.02	0.77	U.S.	1	65	56	40
		U	1	JS	389	.01	0.81	U.S.	1	65	56	40
		U	1	IS	391	.03	0.72	U.S.	1	65	56	40
Lyness et al. (1999) ^c	Job security after maternity leave	A	1	&FSOP	86	.09	0.77	U.S.	83	100	88	
		A	1	AC	86	.14	0.85	U.S.	83	100	88	
McCausland et al. (2011) ^a	Family emergency and sick leave	A	1	JS	774	.19	0.76	U.S.	49	58	100	45
		A	1	AC	774	.21	0.84	U.S.	49	58	100	45
Mennino et al. (2005) ^c	Child care assistance	A	1	FSOP	2,334	.07	0.74	U.S.	24	53	62	
		A	1	WFC	2,334	-.04	0.86	U.S.	24	53	62	
		A	1	JS	2,334	.12	0.76	U.S.	24	53	62	
		A	1	FSOP	174	.13	0.88	U.S.	24	75	66	40
Odle-Dusseau et al. (2010) ^a	Sick or emergency care for child	A	1	WFC	174	-.18	0.79	U.S.	24	75	66	40
		A	1	JS	174	.06	0.87	U.S.	24	75	66	40
		A	1	AC	174	.10	0.85	U.S.	24	75	66	40
		A	1	IS	174	.08	0.87	U.S.	24	75	66	40
		A	1	FSOP	317	.00	0.89	Non-U.S.	58	31	67	71
O'Driscoll et al. (2003) ^b	Child care subsidies	A	1	WFC	317	-.01	0.85	Non-U.S.	58	31	67	71
		A	1	USE	317	.24	1.00	Non-U.S.	58	31	67	71
		U	1	FSOP	317	-.01	0.89	Non-U.S.	3	31	67	71
		U	1	WFC	317	-.05	0.85	Non-U.S.	3	31	67	71
Ollier-Malaterre (2009) ^a	Elder care	A	1	FSOP	73	.18	0.77			53		52
		A	1	AC	73	.26	0.84			53		52
		A	1	USE	73	.53	1.00			53		52
		U	1	FSOP	73	.15	0.77			53		52
		U	1	AC	73	.22	0.84			53		52

(Appendices continue)

Appendix A (continued)

Study	Policy	Policy type	Number of policies	Outcome	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r_{yy}</i>	Nationality	% B	% W	% M	% D
Orthner & Pittman (1986) ^c	Marriage and family enrichment seminars, parent education seminars, adolescent services, child care facilities, family financial counseling, family financial management education, single parent seminars, premarital seminars, handicapped family services, services for families during separation, family crisis referral services, spouse employment services	A	12	FSOP	751	.21	0.81	U.S.	49		100	100
		A	12	JS	751	.13	0.71	U.S.	49		100	100
		A	12	IS	751	.11	0.83	U.S.	49		100	100
Parker & Allen (2001) ^c	On-site child care center, subsidized local child care, child care resource and referral, paid maternity leave, paid paternity leave, elder care	A	6	USE	255	.20	1.00		21	68		54
Premeaux et al. (2007) ^c	On- or near-site child care, child care subsidies, child care resource and referral, after school and/or holiday child care, sick child care, elder care, elder care resource and referral, flexible spending accounts for dependent care expenses	A	8	&FSOP	526	-.10	0.50	U.S.	11	72	67	68
		A	8	WFC	564	-.09	0.98	U.S.	11	72	67	68
		A	8	JS	552	.08	0.74	U.S.	11	72	67	68
		A	8	AC	543	.06	0.80	U.S.	11	72	67	68
Protas et al. (2007) ^b	Flexible spending account for child care expenses	A	1	FSOP	309	.02	0.94	U.S.	8	60	55	37
		A	1	WFC	307	-.04	0.76	U.S.	8	60	55	37
		A	1	AC	310	.03	0.86	U.S.	8	60	55	37
Roehling et al. (2001) ^c	Child care resource and referral, pretax contributions to pay for child or other dependent care, on-site child care, near-site child care, financial assistance for child care	A	5	FSOP	2,894	.20	0.77	U.S.	30	54	59	41
		A	5	AC	2,894	.10	0.81	U.S.	30	54	59	41
Rothausen et al. (1998) ^c	On-site child care	U	1	JS	271	.04	0.90		27	69	79	
		U	1	IS	271	.03	0.88		27	69	79	
Rothbard et al. (2005) ^c	On-site child care	A	1	JS	460	-.01	0.88	U.S.		66	89	
Schandl (1991) ^a	On-site child care	U	1	JS	127	.19	0.76	U.S.		85	88	100

(Appendices continue)

Appendix A (continued)

Study	Policy	Policy type	Number of policies	Outcome	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r_{yy}</i>	Nationality	% B	% W	% M	% D	
Sinclair et al. (1995, Sample 1) ^c	Paid maternity leave, extended maternity leave, paid paternity leave, extended paternity leave, adoption leave, on-site child care, off-site child care, child care resource and referral services, child care subsidies, family illness leave	A	10	AC	48	.32	0.86	U.S.		45	59		
		A	10	IS	48	.23	0.74	U.S.		45	59		
Sinclair et al. (1995, Sample 2) ^c	Paid maternity leave, extended maternity leave, paid paternity leave, extended paternity leave, adoption leave, on-site child care, off-site child care, child care resource and referral services, child care subsidies, family illness leave	A	10	AC	48	.41	0.86	U.S.		48	59		
		A	10	IS	48	.35	0.74	U.S.		48	59		
Smith & Gardner (2007) ^b	Paid dependent care leave	A	1	FSOP	142	.23	0.91	Non-U.S.		30	70	60	
		A	1	WFC	145	-.16	0.90	Non-U.S.		30	70	60	
		A	1	AC	143	.08	0.83	Non-U.S.		30	70	60	
		A	1	IS	144	.05	0.94	Non-U.S.		30	70	60	
		A	1	USE	144	.51	1.00	Non-U.S.		30	70	60	
		U	1	FSOP	145	.13	0.91	Non-U.S.		30	70	60	
		U	1	WFC	145	-.07	0.90	Non-U.S.		30	70	60	
		U	1	AC	143	.02	0.83	Non-U.S.		30	70	60	
Tang (2005) ^a	Family emergency and sick leave	U	1	IS	144	.05	0.94	Non-U.S.		30	70	60	
		A	1	JS	224	.18	0.83	U.S.	85	93	71	62	
		A	1	IS	224	.14	0.89	U.S.	85	93	71	62	
		A	1	USE	224	.24	1.00	U.S.	85	93	71	62	
		U	1	JS	162	.08	0.83	U.S.	34	93	71	62	
		U	1	IS	162	.10	0.89	U.S.	34	93	71	62	
Tay & Quazi (2007) ^c	Paid family leave (3 forms of paid family leave)	A	3	WFC	200	.03	0.83		68	61	70	58	
		A	3	JS	200	.16	0.90		68	61	70	58	
		A	3	AC	200	.14	0.86		68	61	70	58	
		A	3	IS	200	.15	0.72		68	61	70	58	
Thomas & Ganster (1995) ^c	Child care resource and referral, care for sick children, on-site parenting seminars, written materials about parenting, special care services for elderly or handicapped individuals	A	5	JS	398	-.01	0.76	U.S.	11	99	89		
Thompson & Prottas (2006) ^c	Child care resource and referral, elder care resource and referral, pretax contributions to pay for child or other dependent care, on-site child care, near-site child care, family health insurance, child care subsidies	A	7	FSOP	2,810	.05	0.71	U.S.	36	51	64	72	
		A	7	WFC	2,804	.04	0.82	U.S.	36	51	64	72	
		A	7	JS	2,810	.07	0.71	U.S.	36	51	64	72	
		A	7	IS	2,801	.16	0.83	U.S.	36	51	64	72	
Voydanoff (2004) ^c	Paid parental leave	A	1	FSOP	1,938	.20	0.74	U.S.	63	53			
		A	1	WFC	1,938	-.16	0.86	U.S.	63	53			
Wagner & Hunt (1994) ^c	Elder care resource and referral	U	1	FSOP	115	.20	0.77			67	59	100	

(Appendices continue)

Appendix A (continued)

Study	Policy	Policy type	Number of policies	Outcome	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r_{yy}</i>	Nationality	% B	% W	% M	% D
Wang et al. (2011) ^c	Child care resource and referral, child care subsidies, on-site child care	A	3	AC	615	.10	0.88	Non-U.S.	54	42	71	62
Wang & Walumbwa (2007) ^c	Child care resource and referral, child care subsidies, on-site child care	A	3	AC	475	.14	0.88	Non-U.S.	17	47	73	60
Wayne et al. (2006) ^b	Child care resource and referral	U	1	&FSOP	165	.16	0.56	U.S.		68	74	66
		U	1	AC	162	.00	0.83	U.S.		68	74	66
		U	1	IS	162	.07	0.72	U.S.		68	74	66
Winkler (1997) ^a	On-site day care, off-site day care, child care subsidies, child care resource and referral	U	4	WFC	130	-.15	0.87	U.S.		26	100	100
Young et. al (2005) ^a	Drop-in emergency or back-up child care	A	1	JS	300	.05	0.76		30			
		A	1	IS	300	.11	0.83		30			
Youngcourt et al. (2005) ^c	Counseling for family members, stress management seminars for families, marital and child support groups, family orientation services, family crisis services, new hire work-family seminars, on-going work-family seminars, emergency child care	A	8	USE	866	.39	1.00	U.S.	30	8	100	
Zagorski (2004) ^a	Paid birth/adoption leave, dependent care sick time, family tuition assistance, child care subsidies, financial aid for birth/adoption, on-site child care	A	6	FSOP	284	.15	0.76	U.S.	26	67	67	48
		A	6	JS	284	.20	0.87	U.S.	26	67	67	48
		A	6	AC	284	.24	0.89	U.S.	26	67	67	48
		A	6	IS	284	.16	0.87	U.S.	26	67	67	48
		A	6	USE	284	.49	1.00	U.S.	26	67	67	48
		U	6	FSOP	284	.06	0.76	U.S.	10	67	67	48
		U	6	JS	284	.05	0.87	U.S.	10	67	67	48
		U	6	AC	284	.09	0.89	U.S.	10	67	67	48
		U	6	IS	284	-.05	0.87	U.S.	10	67	67	48

Note. Policy type: A = availability; U = use; *N* = sample size; *r* = uncorrected correlation coefficient; *r_{yy}* = criterion reliability; % B = percentage of the sample reporting use or availability of policy, used for attenuation of point-biserial correlations; % W = percentage of women in the sample; % M = percentage married-cohabiting in the sample; % D = percentage with dependents in the sample; & = composite correlation; JS = job satisfaction; FSOP = family-supportive organization perceptions; WFC = work-to-family conflict; AC = affective commitment; IS = intentions to stay; USE = policy use. ^a Unpublished primary studies. ^b Secondary data from published primary studies. ^c Published primary studies.

Appendix B

Reliability Estimates Used for Artifact Corrections

Outcome	Reliability estimates
Family-supportive organization perceptions	.74; .77; .76; .91; .71; .74; .81; .88; .88; .94; .89; .74; .87; .87; .88; .91; .85
Work-to-family conflict	.86; .83; .54; .85; .82; .98; .83; .79; .85; .90; .76; .74; .85; .77; .90; .90; .86; .91; .73; .92; .85; .93; .77; .90; .74; .85; .77; .87; .89
Job satisfaction	.88; .90; .67; .67; .80; .80; .87; .88; .71; .68; .74; .71; .72; .93; .87; .83; .81; .72; .90; .85; .90; .78; .87
Affective commitment	.80; .86; .88; .81; .80; .86; .86; .85; .83; .86; .88; .92; .85; .91; .92; .89; .88; .78; .84; .84; .83; .83
Intentions to stay	.88; .87; .91; .85; .72; .94; .89; .72; .85; .74; .74; .72; .80; .87

(Appendices continue)

Appendix C

Meta-Analytic Results for Family-Supportive Organization Perceptions (FSOP)

Relationship	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	ρ	<i>SD</i> ρ	% <i>SE</i>	95% CI		90% CV	
							Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
FSOP with										
Work-to-family conflict	17	12,336	-.32	-.41	.08	21.08	-.37	-.45	-.28	-.54
Job satisfaction	12	12,334	.36	.48	.10	11.31	.42	.54	.32	.65
Affective commitment	21	8,910	.28	.35	.10	24.78	.31	.40	.20	.51
Intentions to stay	12	8,687	.25	.32	.06	33.99	.27	.36	.22	.42

Note. *k* = the number of effect sizes; *N* = the total sample size; *r* = the sample-weighted mean correlation; ρ = the mean estimate of the corrected population correlation; *SD* ρ = the standard deviation of the mean estimate of the corrected population correlation; % *SE* = the percentage of variance attributable to sampling and measurement error; 95% CI = the 95% confidence interval; 90% CV = the 90% credibility interval.

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