Journal of Business Research 82 (2018) 46–55

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Business Research

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jbusres

How context matters: The relationship between family supportive supervisor behaviours and motivation to work moderated by gender inequality

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
FSSB
Prosocial motivation
Extrinsic motivation
Gender equality
Cross-cultural

ABSTRACT

This study examines relationships between family-supportive supervisor behaviour (FSSB) and individuals' prosocial and extrinsic motivation at work in four countries: Brazil, Kenya, the Netherlands and the Philippines. With a sample of 2046 employees from these four countries, we use national levels of gender inequality, measured by the United Nations Gender Inequality Index (GII), to examine whether differences in men's and women's achievements in society moderate the relationship between FSSB and individuals' motivation at work. The study reveals that FSSB is positively associated with prosocial motivation and extrinsic motivation, and that the level of gender inequality in a country is relevant, given that GII moderates the effects of FSSB on prosocial motivation. Our results show that when GII is low, the positive effects of FSSB on prosocial motivation are stronger. We discuss the implications for theory and practice.

1. Introduction

We often hear that the world is flat, and that because of globalisation and migration geographical differences are becoming irrelevant (Adame, Caplliure, & Miquel, 2016). However, employees' personal motivation (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007), organisational work-family policies (Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006) and societal norms in regard to the gender division of labour (Eagly & Wood, 1999) are heterogeneous and differ across societies. Despite these differences, work-family scholars have only touched upon the study of how national contexts influence the relationships between workplace factors designed to help employees achieve a better work-family balance, as well as social support, and individual work- and family-related outcomes (for some exceptions, see Den Dulk, Peper, Kanjuo Mrčela, & Ignjatović, 2016; Haar, Russo, Suñe, & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014; Las Heras, Trefalt, & Escribano, 2015; Russo, Buonocore, Carmeli, & Guo, 2015).

In this article, we contribute to filling this research gap by examining the relationship between family-supportive supervisor behaviour (FSSB) and individual prosocial and extrinsic motivation at work through a cross-national examination. FSSB is an important workplace resource (Voydanoff, 2005) that has been shown to help employees fulfil their work-family responsibilities (Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, & Crain, 2013; Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007). We use the United Nations Gender Inequality Index (GII), which captures countries' levels of gender inequality, to examine the moderating effects of cross-country differences on the relationship between FSSB and prosocial and extrinsic motivation (see Fig. 1). We test our hypotheses in four countries that vary substantially in terms of their levels of gender inequality: Brazil, Kenya, the Netherlands and the Philippines.

Our study advances the research on FSSB in at least two ways. First, we examine the effects of FSSB on individual motivation at work. We test this relationship in previously unexplored cultural contexts, including African and Latin American countries. This has both theoretical and practical relevance. Research shows that FSSB is associated with higher levels of work-family enrichment, job satisfaction and thriving at work among employees (Bagger & Li, 2014; Russo et al., 2015), as well as lower levels of anxiety and depression (Snow, Swan, Raghavan, Connell, & Klein, 2003), work-family conflict (Breaugh & Frye, 2008) and turnover intention (Li & Bagger, 2011). No previous studies appear to have investigated the relationship between FSSB and individuals'

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.08.026
Received 10 November 2016; Received in revised form 22 August 2017; Accepted 23 August 2017
Available online 05 September 2017
0148-2963/

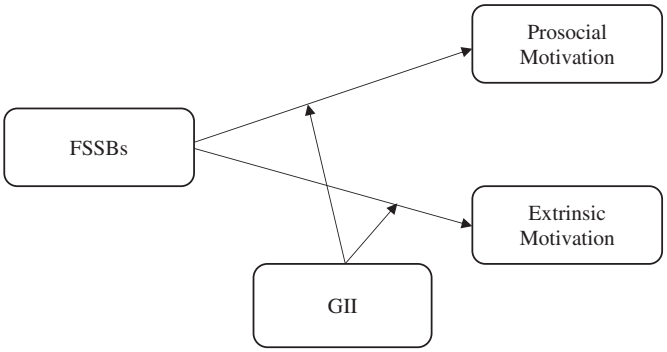

Fig. 1. Hypothesised research model.

motivation at work. This link is important because motivation is a powerful personal resource that enables employees to perform better, and consequently represents a source of competitive advantage for companies (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008).

Second, we test these relationships in four very distinct cultural contexts: Brazil, Kenya, the Netherlands and the Philippines. This is theoretically important because most of the previous studies on FSSB have been conducted in Anglo-Saxon countries (for some exceptions, see Las Heras, Bosch, & Raes, 2015; Russo et al., 2015). For this reason, numerous researchers (e.g. Matthews, Mills, Trout, & English, 2014; Shor, Greenhaus, & Graham, 2013) have called for a finer-grained analysis of the effects of family-supportive supervisors in different contexts. Third, we consider GII as a potential moderator of the effects of FSSB on individual motivation at work. We believe that studying the role of gender inequality may help us understand the influence of national context and gender dynamics (Karkoulian, Srour, & Sinan, 2016) on the relationship between work–family resources and employee outcomes, an area that is receiving increasing scholarly attention (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017). A country's level of gender (in) equality may influence individuals' affective reactions to the presence of a family-supportive supervisor, and consequently their desire to reciprocate the positive treatment received. Thus, we contribute to elucidating the boundary conditions through which FSSB is likely to generate more positive outcomes in the workforce, an aspect that has been overlooked in previous research (Straub, 2012).

2. Theoretical background and hypotheses

2.1. Theory of reciprocity in social exchange

From childhood and through myriad social experiences we are socialised to "do to others what you would have them do to you" (Matthew 7:12) and to "do in Rome as the Romans do" (Bertram, 1993). These two behavioural prescriptions reflect humans' conscious and unconscious desires to reciprocate and emulate others in positive and/or negative ways. Social exchange theory (SET) (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958) is the theoretical framework that best captures the socio-emotional dynamics underlying reciprocal relationships at work, and it has been defined as one of "the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behaviors" (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 874). It posits that employees regulate their efforts, dedication and intentions to reciprocate towards other actors at work, not only in exchange for tangible assets such as salary and perks (economic principle), but also in exchange for socio-emotional assets such as caring and esteem (social principle; Blau, 1964; Eisenberg, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Economic exchange refers mainly to *tangible* as well as specific transactions, whereas social exchange refers mainly to *unspecific* and often intangible transactions.

Molm, Collett, and Schaefer (2007) offer a finer-grained examination of the mechanism of reciprocity through their *theory of reciprocity in social exchanges*. They identify two main types of reciprocity in social exchanges: direct (or restricted) and indirect (or generalised). Direct reciprocity refers to the extent to which two parties in a relationship exchange resources to benefit each other. There are two types of direct reciprocity: negotiated exchange and reciprocal exchange. *Direct negotiated exchange* refers to situations in which "actors jointly negotiate the terms of an agreement that benefits both parties, either equally or unequally" (Molm, Collett, & Schaefer, 2007, p. 209). *Direct reciprocal exchange* refers to situations in which actors "perform individual acts that benefit another, such as giving assistance or advice, without negotiating and without knowing whether or when or to what extent the other will reciprocate" (Molm, Collett, & Schaefer, 2007, p. 209).

Indirect reciprocity refers to the extent to which a receiver of positive treatment decides to reciprocate to other parties in the social network with no specific intent. Molm et al. (2007) identify two types of indirect reciprocity: chain-generalised reciprocity and fairness-based selective reciprocity. *Chain-generalised reciprocity* describes situations in which those who have received positive treatment decide to reciprocate it to other people not involved in the initial exchange, building a chain of reciprocity. For example, employees who have received social support from their boss may decide to help other colleagues who are in need, activating a virtuous cycle of solidarity. *Fairness-based selective reciprocity* refers instead to situations in which people select those to whom they will reciprocate positive treatment received on the basis of their perceptions of how fair these people have been with them in the past.

In this study, we contend that direct and indirect reciprocity are two important mechanisms that may help to explain employees' responses to family-supportive supervisors. FSSB refers to a set of discretionary behaviours undertaken by a supervisor with the goal of aiding employees to fulfil their work and family commitments (Hammer et al., 2007, 2015). When enacting such supportive behaviours, supervisors may be unsure whether these behaviours will be reciprocated, which is the essence of direct reciprocal exchange. Moreover, as previous research demonstrates, recipients of FSSB do not reciprocate only to their direct supervisors, but also to the entire organisation through better task performance (Bagger & Li, 2014) and loyalty (Roehling, Roehling, & Moen, 2001), illustrating chain-generalised reciprocity.

Although previous studies show that FSSB may enhance positive individual attitudes and behaviours at work, none has examined the link between FSSB and individual motivation. Previous research indicates the existence of three main types of work motivation: extrinsic, intrinsic and prosocial (Deci & Ryan, 1985). People who are motivated by extrinsic factors seek external rewards for their job, such as salary increases, promotions, and recognition. Those motivated by intrinsic factors are moved by the work itself and feel rewarded by performing the activity even "in the absence of operationally separable consequences" (Deci, 1976, p. 12). Finally, prosocially-motivated people perform actions that make a difference to other people's lives (Grant, 2007). In this article, we focus only on extrinsic and prosocial motivation because we are interested in examining the effects of FSSB on employees' desire to receive rewards at work for what they do (extrinsic motivation) and to contribute to the welfare of others (prosocial motivation). We contend that people might be motivated for extrinsic or prosocial reasons as a response to what they perceive form a third party, in this case their bosses' family-supportive behaviours. In contrast, intrinsically-motivated individuals believe that their jobs are interesting and will satisfy their fundamental psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000), so they are unlikely to be influenced by the reciprocal process determined by SET.

2.2. FSSB and prosocial motivation

FSSB is defined as a set of "behaviors exhibited by supervisors that are supportive of families" (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009, p. 838). Such behaviours include emotional and instrumental support provided by supervisors to their subordinates, role-modelling behaviours, and creative work-family management solutions that may benefit

both the organisation and subordinates (Hammer et al., 2007).

Prosocial motivation is receiving increasing scholarly attention because it is associated with positive workplace behaviours, such as persistence (Grant et al., 2007), a willingness to take initiative (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009), and helping behaviours (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Previous studies have focused on dispositional traits as predictors of prosocial motivation, such as empathy (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987), moral identity (Winterich, Aquino, Mittal, & Swartz, 2013) and conscientiousness (Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006). More recent studies have found that contextual features, such as relational job design (Grant, 2007) and collectivistic norms and rewards (Grant & Berg, 2010), may also influence levels of prosocial motivation.

In this article, we hypothesise that FSSB is positively associated with employees' prosocial motivation at work. We base our reasoning on the SET framework and on previous studies that show that leaders who are considerate towards their collaborators and serve as positive role models (Grant & Berg, 2010), behaviours that are the essence of family-supportive supervisors, are likely to increase their subordinates' prosocial motivation. Receiving family support from supervisors may make employees more willing to reciprocate in an indirect manner (Molm et al., 2007) by treating other actors more positively. Indeed, previous research demonstrates that when employees perceive fair treatment by their supervisors, they tend to reciprocate by engaging more deeply in what they do and by displaying altruistic behaviours that help the organisation to achieve its goals (Grant & Berg, 2010). Moreover, because supervisors are the primary point of contact with the organisation (Greenhaus & Powell, 2017), their supportive behaviours may shape employees' perceptions of the entire organisation's supportive culture. Indirect support for this argument comes from research that reveals a positive relationship between supportive leadership and prosocial motivation (e.g., Kay & Ross, 2003) and between a supportive organisational culture and prosocial motivation (e.g., Perlow & Weeks, 2002; Miller, 1999). In summary, drawing on the indirect reciprocity mechanism of SET and the research outlined above, we contend that supervisors' support for family matters may enhance employees' motivation to reciprocate by treating other organisational actors more positively, or in other words to become more prosocially motivated. Accordingly, we hypothesise that:

H1. FSSB is positively associated with individual prosocial motivation at work.

2.3. FSSB and extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation refers to individuals' desire to receive tangible (e.g., money) as well as intangible (e.g., recognition, support) rewards for performing their jobs (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The interest in extrinsic motivation is so great that many studies are based on a possibly unwitting assumption that extrinsic motivation is the most powerful driver of workplace behaviours and business-related decisions. In this study, we hypothesise that FSSB is positively associated with extrinsic motivation at work. FSSB involves valuable supportive resources (e.g., flexible work schedules and location arrangements), and employees who receive such work-related benefits are likely to feel valued and stimulated and be more dedicated to their work (Rofcanin, Las Heras, & Bakker, 2017). Thus, working with a family-supportive supervisor is likely to encourage employees to increase their work effort in order to continue to receive such benefits (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Indeed, both FSSB and extrinsic motivation are based on "instrumentality" (Ryan & Deci, 2000): extrinsically motivated people are likely to work to receive rewards that have instrumental value, and FSSB mainly involves providing employees with support that is instrumental in enabling them to reconcile work and non-work commitments (Bhave, Kramer, & Glomb, 2010). In summary, drawing on the premise of direct reciprocity from SET and related research on FSSB, we propose that receiving family support from a supervisor strengthens the recipient's desire to continue working to yield more of the desired outcome, i.e. they become highly extrinsically motivated. Accordingly, we hypothesise that:

H2. FSSB is positively associated with individual extrinsic motivation at work.

2.4. The moderating role of GII

Previous research shows that the effects of FSSB on individual outcomes depend on dispositional factors such as the preferences, needs and aspirations of recipients (Matthews et al., 2014; Russo et al., 2015). The effects of FSSB may also depend on situational factors, such as a family-supportive organisational culture (Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012) or perceived organisational fairness (Straub, 2012). Importantly, evidence from previous research indicates that the national context may also shape the effects of FSSB on individual outcomes (e.g., Las Heras et al., 2015). In a study of Latin American countries, Las Heras et al. (2015) found that resources (measured by social expenditure) and demands present in the national context (measured by rates of unemployment) affect the relationship between FSSB and employees' turnover intentions and work performance. They specifically found that the relationship between FSSB and turnover intention became stronger with increasing social expenditure and that the direct relationship between FSSB and job performance was stronger with higher social expenditure and weaker with higher unemployment. These findings suggest that FSSB is more salient for employees and has a stronger impact on employee outcomes in countries where employees receive support in the form of social expenditure and face higher unemployment. This appears plausible, because high social expenditure signals that the welfare and development of employees are valued; hence, in such contexts, employees are more likely to acknowledge and value FSSB in seeking to achieve a better work–life balance. In supportive national contexts (i.e. high social expenditure and a low unemployment rate), employees expect and value support, and thus respond strongly to the presence or absence of FSSB. In contrast, in unsupportive national contexts (i.e. high unemployment and low social expenditure), the presence or absence of supervisory support may go largely unnoticed because employees accept the signals from the national context that work–family issues are their own problem.

In this article, we contend that FSSB will be more salient and beneficial to individual motivation in countries that have low gender inequality than in countries with high gender inequality. We base our reasoning on the following considerations. First, women worldwide are traditionally involved in unpaid work, including domestic and caregiving activities (Giannelli, Mangiavacchi, & Piccoli, 2012), even in countries with a strong gender-egalitarian culture (Keizer & Komter, 2015). This gender gap in the provision of unpaid work tends to be even greater at the parenthood stage (Anxo et al., 2007). It varies across countries depending on the welfare regime, gender-egalitarian culture, family and employment policies, and cultural norms regarding men's and women's roles in society (Anxo et al., 2007). More specifically, the gender gap in the provision of unpaid work tends to be smaller in countries that promote gender equality. Second, women generally work in less prestigious occupations than men. For example, women are more able to break the glass ceiling in high-risk contexts, in leadership roles that are considered precarious, in sectors that offer low wages (e.g., NGOs), in situations of turbulence, or under problematic organisational circumstances (Peterson, 2016). Similarly, when women outnumber men and hold managerial and high-power positions (i.e., when there is feminisation of a profession; Fondas, 1996), people tend to consider such professions less prestigious, and salaries tend to decrease (Bolton & Muzio, 2008).

In contexts characterised by high gender inequality, people tend to perceive unpaid work as less prestigious than paid work, reflecting differing levels of importance attached to men's and women's achievements. Therefore, although in all countries unpaid work is primarily

women's responsibility (Keizer & Komter, 2015), this scenario is even more prevalent in countries characterised by high GII. Thus, we contend that in countries with high GII, supportive workplace resources aimed at helping employees to handle their work-family commitments may be perceived as less salient and important (Bolton & Muzio, 2008). Therefore, in such contexts, employees who benefit from FSSB may be less likely to reciprocate because they are less likely to value FSSB (Molm et al., 2007). This is consistent with a recent review on social exchange (e.g., Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), the authors of which argue that organisational and national contexts are likely to influence how and why employees reciprocate the actions of others.

In contrast, reflecting higher levels of welfare, development and respect for gender equality at work, in countries characterised by low GII, employees may be more likely to value work resources that help them achieve their non-work aspirations. For this reason, we argue that in such contexts, employees will value FSSB more because these resources are more salient and instrumental in enabling them to achieve meaningful goals beyond their work lives. Thus, in countries with low GII, employees are likely to respond more favourably to FSSB by reciprocating with greater prosocial and extrinsic motivation. Accordingly, we hypothesise that:

H3. Gender inequality moderates' relationships between FSSB and both prosocial (H3a) and extrinsic (H3b) motivation, and these relationships are stronger in countries with low rather than high gender inequality.

3. Method

3.1. Research procedure

We collected our data from employees working in Brazil, Kenya, the Netherlands and the Philippines. These four countries vary significantly in term of the rates of participation of men and women in paid and unpaid work. They also represent distinct social realities because they present different levels of human development. The Netherlands ranks among the countries with the highest score for human development; Brazil ranks in a group of countries with high human development; the Philippines belongs to a group of countries with medium human development; and Kenya is in a group of countries with the lowest scores for human development (United Nations, 2015). Also, based on our interest in testing the effects of FSSB in contexts other than the United States, we selected countries on different continents to maximise the comparative differences.

We collected data between 2013 and 2015 as part of a larger research project managed by a leading European business school. Collaborators in this research project in the Netherlands and Brazil translated the questionnaire from its original English version to their local language using back translation (Brislin, 1986). Participation was voluntary and anonymous, and a criterion for inclusion was being employed in a full-time job. The sample included employees working in various industries at different hierarchical levels, in both the public and private sectors. Our collaborators collected the responses in hard copy or electronic format according to the respondents' convenience. The layouts of the hard copy and the electronic survey were identical. Previous research has found no specific effects on response characteristics for different survey media (Simsek & Veiga, 2001).

After deleting observations with missing data, the final sample contained 2046 employees: 1006 in Kenya, 413 in the Philippines, 403 in the Netherlands and 224 in Brazil. Among the respondents, 41.1% were women, with an average age of 43.2 years (SD = 10.9), 68.7% of respondents had children, and the average tenure was 13.4 years (SD = 10.2). Table 1 provides details of the sample broken down by country.

3.2. Measures

All responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). A complete list of items is included in Appendix A.

3.2.1. Family-supportive supervisor behaviours

To measure FSSB, we used a short version of the scale developed by Hammer et al. (2009), which contains four items. A sample item was: "Your supervisor makes you feel comfortable talking to him/her about your conflicts between work and non-work". The four items were averaged to create a scale score ($\alpha = 0.92$).

3.2.2. Prosocial motivation

To measure prosocial motivation, we used Grant's (2008) four-item scale. We asked each person, "Why are you motivated to do your work?" A sample response item was, "Because I care about benefiting others through my work". We averaged the responses to create a scale score, with higher scores reflecting greater individual prosocial motivation ($\alpha = 0.93$).

3.2.3. Extrinsic motivation

To measure extrinsic motivation, we used four items from the Work Preference Inventory developed by Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, and Tighe (1994). This scale has been used extensively in previous research to measure extrinsic motivation (e.g., Vallerand, 1997). We asked participants, "Why are you motivated to do your work?" They were then provided with a list of four items. An example was, "Because other people recognise my good work" ($\alpha = 0.78$).

3.2.4. Gender inequality index[1]

We used an index developed by the United Nations as an objective measure of gender inequality. The GII scores for the countries in our samples were 0.06 for the Netherlands (ranked sixth in the world), 0.41 for the Philippines (ranked 89th), 0.44 for Brazil (ranked 97th) and 0.55 for Kenya (ranked 126th).

3.2.5. Control variables

In line with methodological suggestions regarding a control strategy (Becker et al., 2015), given their influence on the variables of interest, the following demographic variables were included as control variables: gender (male = 0, female = 1), age, tenure, relationship (no = 0, yes = 1) and whether or not the respondents had children (no = 0, yes = 1). For example, previous research suggests that female employees tend to value FSSB more than men (Kossek & Ollier-Malaterre, 2013). A review study of flexible work practices reveals that employees who have been working for organisations longer (tenure) and who are in a relationship are more likely than other employees to ask for family-supportive flexibility from their supervisors (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013). We included the number of children because having children may place additional demands on parents in terms of fulfilling childcare responsibilities, triggering them to negotiate family-friendly policies with their supervisors (Matthews et al.,

[1] The GII is an inequality index, measuring gender inequality in three important aspects of human development: reproductive health, measured by maternal mortality ratios and adolescent birth rates; empowerment, evaluated as the proportion of parliamentary seats occupied by females and the proportion of adult females and males aged 25 years and older with at least some secondary education; and economic status, indicated by labour market participation and measured by the labour force participation rate of the female and male population aged 15 years and older. The GII is a measure of cost; thus, the higher the GII value, the more disparity between females and males, and hence deterioration in terms of human development in that country. The GII includes data for 159 countries and sheds light on gender gaps in important areas of human development. It was developed as a guide for policy intervention and policy making to address systematic disadvantages faced by women. More information on its technical aspects and calculation are available at: http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii.

Table 1
Sample size per country.

	Sample	% of women	Age	% with children	Tenure	GII	Human development countries	Gini index (2013)
Brazil	224	29.0	45.9	83.0	14.8	0.44	high	54.7
The Netherlands	403	44.4	49.8	64.0	16.0	0.06	very high	30.9
Philippines	413	58.8	39.5	50.4	9.3	0.41	medium	43.0
Kenya	1006	35.1	40.1	74.9	11.7	0.55	low	47.7
Total	2046	41.1%	43.2	68.7%	13.4			

Notes. N = 2.046; the Gini index is a measure of the deviation of the distribution of income among individuals or households within a country from a perfectly equal distribution; a value of 0 represents absolute equality, a value of 100 absolute inequality. The Gini coefficient avoids references to a statistical average unrepresentative of most of the population, such as per capita income or gross domestic product (Brown, 1994); for this reason, it can be used as a tool to compare diverse economies.

Table 2
Descriptive statistics, correlations, and Cronbach alphas.

		Alpha	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	FSSB	0.92	4.62	1.66	1								
2	Prosocial motivation	0.93	5.90	1.20	0.212***	1							
3	Extrinsic motivation	0.78	4.96	1.31	0.208***	0.297***	1						
4	GII		0.42	0.18	− 0.019	0.101***	− 0.214***	1					
5	Gender		1.38	0.54	0.044	0.062*	0.065*	− 0.171***	1				
6	Tenure		13.4	10.21	0.029	− 0.017	− 0.013	− 0.296***	0.173***	1			
7	Children		0.69	0.46	− 0.036	0.072*	0.004	0.294***	− 0.143***	− 0.409***	1		
8	Age		43.2	10.86	0.058*	− 0.059*	− 0.034	− 0.136***	0.140***	0.711***	− 0.530***	1	
9	Relationship status		1.96	1.48	0.055	− 0.024	0.056	− 0.325***	0.088**	0.141***	− 0.200***	0.125	1
10	Relationship quality		4.79	1.49	0.721***	0.152***	0.141***	0.030	0.060*	0.034	0.005	0.036	0.034

Note. N = 2.046.
* $p < 0.05$.
** $p < 0.01$.
*** $p < 0.001$.

2014). We also controlled for subordinates' evaluation of their managers (Relationship quality; 1 = terrible, 7 = excellent). Previous research reveals that employees who have better relationships with their managers are more prosocially motivated (e.g., Grant, 2008) and are more likely to perceive their managers as supportive (Rofcanin et al., 2017).

We controlled for the per capita GDP and Gini index of each country, as these two indices capture the level of national wealth and may help avoid spurious effects, as well as providing a more conservative test of our hypotheses (Becker et al., 2015). Table 2 reports descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation), the correlations and the Cronbach alpha values for each variable in the study. As reported in Table 2, the direction and strength of the correlation values were in the expected directions.

3.3. Data analysis

To test our model (illustrated in Fig. 1), we first averaged the results for each variable, broken down by country, to check for any differences between the countries in the means of the variables used in the study. We then tested the difference in country means using an ANOVA test.[2] Second, because our sample had two principal levels of analysis, namely the individual and country levels, we calculated the variance components[3] and intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC)[4] for each variable to check whether we also needed to control for country-level effects. Third, in order to test our model across different countries, we ran a measurement invariance test,[5] which provided information about the consistency of the expected relationships between the study variables across the countries. Fourth, we tested our hypothesised research model through structural equation modelling (SEM)[6] and multigroup analysis with STATA 13 (Rabe-Hesketh & Skrondal, 2008). Using SEM enabled us to test different interrelated relationships together in a unique model. We considered different measures of fit to test our model, including Chi/df ≤ 3, RMSEA ≤ 0.05, CFI ≤ 0.9, and TLI ≤ 0.9 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tathham, 2005). Finally, using AMOS, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs)[7] to assess the fit of our data and explore alternative models to check whether our model fitted the data better.

4. Results

We first checked for the presence of significant differences in the means of each variable across countries. A conventional ANOVA test for each variable was broken down by country and, as shown in Table 3, the differences in country means were found to be significant for FSSB ($F = 11.0$; $p < 0.001$), prosocial motivation ($F = 53.38$, $p < 0.01$), and extrinsic motivation ($F = 1.52$; $p < 0.01$).

Second, Table 4 reports the percentage of variance in our variables that was accounted for by between-level collaborator and country effects.

[2] ANOVA is used to compare means and variances among groups (Freedman, 2005). It is a useful tool, in that it provides a statistical test of whether or not the means of several groups are equal, and therefore generalises the *t*-test to more than two groups.

[3] Variance components analysis is a way to assess the amount of variation in a dependent variable that is associated with one or more random-effects variables (Hsiao, 2003).

[4] The intraclass correlation (or the intraclass correlation coefficient, abbreviated to ICC) is an inferential statistic that is used when quantitative measurements are made on units that are organised into groups (Koch, 1982).

[5] Measurement invariance or measurement equivalence is a statistical measurement that shows that a construct is being measured across specified groups in the same way. Achieving invariance is important because variance may prevent the derivation of accurate interpretations of the results of the study (Chen, Sousa, & West, 2005).

[6] SEM is a statistical approach that is used to test an overall model. An advantage compared with other approaches (e.g., regression) is that it provides more robust findings since all of the hypotheses, and therefore data, are treated and tested simultaneously (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

[7] CFA seeks to explore whether items load into their respective construct. It is used as a statistical technique to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Table 3
ANOVA results for the study variables.

	FSSB	Prosocial motivation	Extrinsic motivation	GII
Brazil	4.25	5.73	5.40	0.44
Kenya	4.57	6.11	4.89	0.55
Netherlands	4.57	5.28	4.30	0.06
Philippines	5.03	6.08	5.52	0.41
ANOVA (F)	11.00***	53.38**	1.52**	
df	3	3	3	

Notes. N = 2.046.
*** $p < 0.01$.
** $p < 0.05$.

Table 4
Variance components and intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC).

	FSSB (%)	Prosocial motivation (%)	Extrinsic motivation (%)
Between-collaborator variance	97.5	89.9	86.4
Between-country variance	2.5	10.1	13.6
ICC country	2.5	10.7	14.2

Note. N = 2.046.

For FSSB, 97.5% of the variance was explained by between-level collaborator effect, and 2.5% of the remaining variance was explained by between-level country effect. For prosocial motivation, 89.9% of the variance was explained by between-level collaborator effect, and 10.1% of the remaining variance was explained by between-level country effect. For extrinsic motivation, 86.4% of the variance was explained by between-level collaborator effect, and 13.6% of the remaining variance was explained by between-level country effect. The ICC for prosocial and extrinsic motivation were above the recommended value of 0.05, suggesting that we also needed to control for country-level effects.

Third, we used multigroup analysis to test our model. To test whether our model was stable across the four countries in our sample (Bollen, 1989; Hox, 2002), we allowed for country differences in means and variance. The results of the goodness-of-fit measures from CFA supported our model (Chi square = 33.504; df = 5; $p < 0.001$; RMSEA = 0.05, CFI = 0.97, TLI = 0.85), suggesting that it fitted our model and that the countries in our sample met the criteria for measurement invariance.

4.1. Hypothesis testing

H1 predicted a positive relationship between FSSB and prosocial motivation. As reported in Table 5, the results show a positive and significant relationship between FSSB and prosocial motivation (B = 0.41; SE = 0.12; $p < 0.01$), supporting H1. H2 predicted a positive relationship between FSSB and extrinsic motivation. The results support this hypothesis because FSSB is positively and significantly related to extrinsic motivation (B = 0.30; SE = 0.15; $p < 0.05$). Finally, H3 hypothesised that GII moderates the relationship between FSSB and both prosocial (H3a) and extrinsic (H3b) motivation. The results shown in Table 5 support H3a (B = −0.73; SE = 0.25; $p < 0.01$), whereas H3b is not supported by the data (B = −0.45; SE = 0.30; $p > 0.10$).

We plotted the moderating effect of GII on the relationship between FSSB and prosocial motivation, as shown in Fig. 2. This shows that the effects of high levels of FSSB on prosocial motivation are significantly stronger in countries with low scores for GII, whereas the variation in employees' prosocial motivation is marginal in countries with high GII scores when FSSB increases from low to high.

Table 5
Results of structural equation modelling for the hypothesised model.

	B	Z
Prosocial motivation		
FSSB	0.412***	3.22
GII moderation	−0.733***	−2.92
GII direct effect	5.760***	21.84
Tenure	0.006*	1.7
Children	0.022	0.28
Gender	0.094*	1.71
Age	−0.006*	−1.64
Relationship status	0.010	0.44
Relationship quality	−0.052**	−2.05
Extrinsic motivation		
FSSB	0.296*	1.92
GII moderation	−0.450	−1.48
GII direct effect	−2.054	−1.34
Tenure	−0.008*	−1.8
Children	0.204**	2.19
Gender	−0.023	−0.35
Age	0.010**	2.17
Relationship status	0.028	1.02
Relationship quality	−0.049	−1.6

Note. N = 2.046.
*** $p < 0.01$.
** $p < 0.05$.
* $p < 0.10$

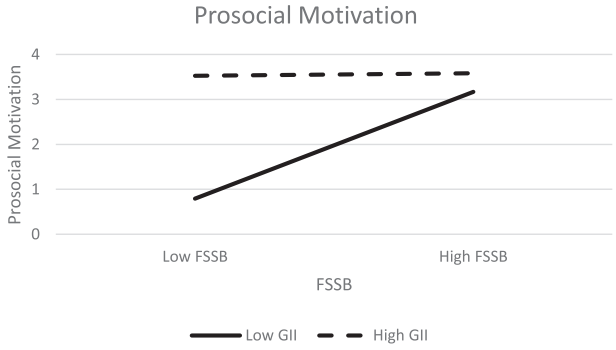

Fig. 2. The moderating role of GII on the relationship between FSSB and prosocial motivation.

Table 6
Comparative summary of fit indices for alternative models.

	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	sig
Model 1	33.50	5	6.70	0.967	0.847	0.057	0.00
Model 2	92.26	7	13.18	0.900	0.673	0.098	0.00
Model 3	5117.96	7	731.14	0.077	−2.033	0.759	0.00
Model 4	60.39	7	3.28	0.938	0.795	0.078	0.00
Model 5	5243.38	7	749.10	0.106	−1.939	0.769	0.00

Notes: Model 1 = measurement model; N = 2.046; df: χ^2 = Chi-square; Df = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI: Tucker Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; Sig = significance.

4.2. Supplementary analyses

We tested alternative models, summarised in Table 6, (i), to test unexplored relationships between our study variables, (ii) to test alternative explanations behind our model, and (iii) to offer a more conservative framework for our findings (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Using SEM, we tested four different models. In the first alternative model, we tested whether prosocial motivation mediated the relationship between FSSB and extrinsic motivation (FSSB → prosocial motivation → extrinsic motivation). We also tested whether GII moderated the relationship between FSSB and prosocial motivation. The results indicate that this model

did not fit the data as well as our hypothesised model (Chi square = 92.26; df = 7; RMSEA = 0.098; CFI = 0.90; TLI = 0.67). In the second alternative model, we again tested whether prosocial motivation mediated the relationship between FSSB and extrinsic motivation (FSSB → prosocial motivation → extrinsic motivation), but this time we considered GII as a moderator of the relationship between prosocial motivation and extrinsic motivation. The results show that this model did not fit the data as well as our hypothesised model (Chi square = 5117.96; df = 7; RMSEA = 0.76; CFI = 0.08; TLI = − 2.033). In the third alternative model, we tested whether extrinsic motivation mediated the relationship between FSSB and prosocial motivation (FSSB → extrinsic motivation → prosocial motivation) and whether GII moderated the relationship between FSSB and extrinsic motivation. The results show that this model did not fit the data as well as our hypothesised model (Chi square = 60.39; df = 7; RMSEA = 0.078; CFI = 0.94; TLI = 0.80). In our fourth alternative model, we tested whether extrinsic motivation mediated the relationship between FSSB and prosocial motivation (FSSB → extrinsic motivation → prosocial motivation), but this time we considered whether GII moderated the relationship between extrinsic motivation and prosocial motivation. The results show that this model did not fit the data as well as our hypothesised model (Chi square = 5243.38; df = 7; RMSEA = 0.769; CFI = 0.106; TLI = − 1.94). These findings show that our measurement model (Model 1) best fitted the data.

5. Discussion

The goal of this study was to test the relationship between FSSB and individual prosocial and extrinsic motivation at work in four countries – Brazil, Kenya, the Netherlands and the Philippines – while also considering the moderating role of GII. This paper advances work–family and motivation research in at least three ways. First, this is the first study to examine the relationship between FSSB and prosocial and extrinsic motivation at work. Previous research demonstrates that FSSB has a positive impact on a range of organisational attitudes and behaviours, including intentional turnover and job satisfaction (Bagger & Li, 2014), thriving at work (Russo et al., 2015) and work performance (Rofcanin et al., 2017). Our study demonstrates empirically the presence of a positive relationship between FSSB and individuals' motivation at work. The results indicate that perceiving that they are working with a family-supportive supervisor is likely to lead employees to reciprocate the positive treatment received with stronger extrinsic and prosocial motivation at work. Importantly, our results demonstrate that the positive effects of FSSB, a valuable contextual resource (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), are manifested not only in individuals' desire to gain greater rewards (i.e., extrinsic motivation), but also in their desire to help others through their work (i.e., prosocial motivation). This result is theoretically important because it shows that FSSB may activate indirect reciprocity mechanisms that lead employees to become more prosocially motivated at work. In building on the direct and indirect reciprocity mechanisms of SET, this study addresses recent calls to apply SET to different contexts (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Our finding that FSSB has a positive impact on employees' motivation also corroborates previous research on the antecedents of prosocial motivation by showing that relational aspects of the job, and particularly relationships with supervisors, may play a crucial role in enhancing individuals' prosocial motivation (e.g., Grant, 2007). From this angle, this research contributes to the current debate focusing on how broader social and relational elements may enhance prosocial motivation (Grant & Parker, 2009).

Second, our results contribute to elucidating the contextual conditions under which the positive effects of FSSB unfold. Previous research demonstrates that not all employees respond to FSSB in the same way (Matthews et al., 2014), but that employees' reactions to FSSB may be shaped by subjective caring needs (Russo et al., 2015), the presence of family-friendly policies in their organisation (Bagger & Li, 2014) or a family-supportive culture (Rofcanin et al., 2017). Our study advances these findings by demonstrating that factors other than individual and organisational factors, relating to the national culture in general and specifically to perceptions of gender inequality, may also shape how employees respond to FSSB. This is relevant, given that national studies (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2012) indicate that nearly all employee demographic groups are finding it increasingly difficult to manage their work and non-work responsibilities. This scenario indicates a critical need for organisations to implement family-supportive behaviours and practices (Kossek, Hammer, Kelly, & Moen, 2014).

This paper also responds to recent calls for a closer examination of how cultural contexts may influence the effects of FSSB on employee outcomes (Kossek & Thompson, 2015). Our focus on GII is novel and important because it is an index closely tied with countries' human development prospects and was developed using a rigorous approach; hence, it provides a realistic and complete picture of the situation of women across countries (UNDP, 2016). Our results show that the association between FSSB and prosocial motivation is stronger in countries with low GII than in those with high GII. Thus, in a country with low gender inequality, FSSB is more valued by employees, which translates into enhanced willingness to aid others at work (i.e., prosocial motivation). In contrast, in countries characterised by high gender inequality, FSSB does not have a significant impact on employees' prosocial motivation at work.

A possible explanation for this finding may relate to the extent to which employees perceive family-supportive resources as useful in the four different countries considered in this study. Kenya, the Philippines and Brazil score high on gender inequality, particularly in comparison with the Netherlands. As previously mentioned, when gender inequality in a country is high, women are less empowered than men, they are more dependent on men as their financial situations are precarious, they are provided with fewer structural and social resources to participate in the labour market, and domestic work is considered to be of less value than paid work (UNDP, 2016). These features of GII may explain why, in Kenya, Brazil and partially in the Philippines, FSSB has a weaker effect on outcomes than it does in the Netherlands. In these countries, home responsibilities are more likely to be perceived as "women's affairs", making FSSB less relevant to a larger proportion of employees. In contrast, in the Netherlands, where gender inequality is lower than in these three countries, women are more likely to hold key roles in organisations, and are also encouraged to develop themselves professionally through structural resources provided by the state, which help them achieve their educational goals and participate in the labour market (UNDP, 2016; Van der Stede, 2003). Family and domestic activities, such as taking care of children or elderly parents or keeping the house in order, are not confined only to women, and both men and women are encouraged to achieve their professional and personal goals. These structural factors (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017) make FSSB a relevant and useful resource for all employees, both men and women, to achieve their ideal work–life balance.

These reflections indicate that gender appears to be a crucial factor in gaining a better understanding of our proposed relationships. We therefore carried out post hoc analyses to understand whether the moderating role of GII varied according to the gender of participants. We tested three-way interaction hypotheses, following Preacher's (2015) recommendations and the commonly-accepted procedures of moderator analysis (Aiken & West, 1991). Additional analyses were carried out, drawing on the following logic: in countries where GII is high and the respondents are male, the relationship between FSSB and employees' motivation to work will not be statistically significant; whereas in countries where GII is high and the participants are female, the relationship between FSSB and motivation will be statistically significant. In countries where GII is low, the relationship between FSSB and motivation was expected to be statistically significant for both men and women. The results demonstrate that a three-way interaction between FSSB, gender and GII was not statistically significant for employees' prosocial and extrinsic motivation. The same pattern of

findings was observed when analyses were carried out separately for each country.

A potential explanation may relate to organisational culture (Bhave et al., 2010; Gupta, 2011). In a company with a highly family-supportive culture, men may value FSSB as much as women. Unique characteristics of the culture of the companies in our sample may explain why the role of gender was insignificant. However, we suggest that future research should explore the impact of gender to understand how employees respond to FSSB in different corporate and national contexts. Indeed, gender research (Keizer & Komter, 2015) suggests that, even in the most gender-egalitarian countries such as the Netherlands, women continue to devote more time than men to unpaid work. Notably, other studies confirm that, even for dual-earner couples with a strongly egalitarian division of labour, partners still behave in a gender-consistent manner (Davis, Greenstein, & Gerteisen Marks, 2007). Thus, even in countries characterised by a low level of gender inequality, women may be more sensitive to FSSB than men, and thus more willing to reciprocate in the presence of supportive leaders.

Finally, a third novelty of this research is that it extends the FSSB research beyond Anglo-Saxon samples. This was a key goal of our research because little previous work has examined the effects of FSSB in non-Anglo-Saxon contexts (for exceptions, see Las Heras et al., 2015; Rofcanin et al., 2017).

5.1. Practical implications

Recent research demonstrates that FSSB impacts positively on employee functioning at work (Adame et al., 2016; Adame-Sánchez, González-Cruz, & Martínez-Fuentes, 2016; Rofcanin et al., 2017). Our results suggest that FSSB has a positive impact on prosocial and extrinsic motivation and that this relationship holds across cultures. However, the notion of the ideal worker as a person totally devoted to work, with a stay-at-home partner (typically the woman), still prevails in many organisations (Dumas & Sanchez-Burks, 2015). Thus, we witness minimal attention paid by supervisors to employees' non-work lives.

There appears to be an important gap between what science knows and what business does (Banks et al., 2016; Las Heras et al., 2015). Therefore, we recommend that organisations organise specific training sessions for managers to encourage them to become more family-supportive, because previous research has demonstrated the effectiveness of this type of training (Hammer et al., 2015). Specific interventions (e.g., flexi-time, flexi-schedule, flexi-location) might be designed to ensure that managers are more family-supportive. Such interventions might ultimately demonstrate a need to make modifications to organisations' HR policies based on the specific needs of units or employees. Moreover, informal events (e.g., work unit lunches or coffee breaks; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001), as well as formal work events (e.g., mentoring, team training and development; Kossek & Hammer, 2008), might be introduced to help encourage family-friendly and resourceful work environments.

5.2. Limitations and future research

Our study has both strengths and limitations. One strength is the size and global breadth of the sample, which included employees working in countries with various levels of gender inequality. Another strength is that our participants worked in a range of organisational settings, and thus represented a variety of levels of FSSB, as called for in previous research (Bagger & Li, 2014). However, one limitation of the data for this study is that we collected data on the independent variable and the outcome variables from the same respondent, which may be especially critical with regard to prosocial motivation, an aspect on which people may tend to overvalue themselves. However, we included GII data from an independent source at the country level to test our hypotheses, which strengthens the reliability of the results by alleviating concerns about common source and method biases. Future research might include longitudinal studies in order to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between FSSB and prosocial and extrinsic motivation.

In this research, we focused on GII as a moderator of the association between FSSB and employee motivation. Future research might explore other potentially interesting indices to understand how family-friendly policies and culture may impact on employee well-being, motivation and performance. For example, it would be interesting to establish the moderating impact of the Global Gender Gap Index (World Economic Forum, 2016) or the Inequality Adjusted Human Development Index (UNDP, 2016) on the relationship between FSSB and individual outcomes.

Appendix A

Family-supportive supervisor behaviours

Please tell us to what extent you agree with the following statements (1 = “strongly disagree” … 7 = “strongly agree”)

My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him/her about my conflicts between work and non-work.
My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviours in how to juggle work and non-work issues.
My supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work.
My supervisor organises the work in my department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company.

Motivation at work

The scales asking about motivation were prompted by the question: Why are you motivated to do your work? (1 = “strongly disagree” … 7 = “strongly agree”)

Because I care about benefiting others through my work. (prosocial motivation)
Because I want to have a positive impact on others. (prosocial motivation)
Because I want to help others through my work. (prosocial motivation)
Because it is important to me to do good to others through my work. (prosocial motivation)
Because I have clear income goals to meet. (extrinsic motivation)
Because I want to be promoted. (extrinsic motivation)
Because other people recognise my good work. (extrinsic motivation)
Because working gives me status. (extrinsic motivation)

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