



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

The Leadership Quarterly

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

Help or hindrance? Work–life practices and women in management



Kateryna Kalysh, Carol T. Kulik*, Sanjeeva Perera

School of Management, University of South Australia Business School, City West Campus, GPO Box 2471, Adelaide 5001, Australia.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 8 April 2015

Received in revised form 23 December 2015

Accepted 28 December 2015

Available online 4 May 2016

Editors: Madeline Heilman and Alice Eagly

Keywords:

Gender

Leadership

Work–life

ABSTRACT

Work–life practices are frequently suggested as a strategy for improving women's representation in management. We predicted that work–life practices would increase the proportion of women in management, but their impact would be most evident when the workforce gender composition makes gender stereotypes less salient. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to analyze the relationship between work–life practices in 2002–2006 and the proportion of women in management in 2010, 2012, and 2014. Overall, work–life practices had a positive effect on the proportion of women in management, but only after an eight-year lag. However, this positive effect was not observed in organizations that were highly male-dominated. Leave arrangements and direct provision of services (e.g., childcare or eldercare) had the strongest associations with women in management. Our findings demonstrate the value of work–life practices in improving women's representation in management, but the effect is not immediate and does not operate across all organizational contexts.

© 2016 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Introduction

Despite their increasing numbers in management roles, women are underrepresented in higher-level management positions (Kulik & Metz, 2015; Wirth, 2001). Whether the statistics come from the U.S.A. (Catalyst, 2013a, 2013b), the U.K. (European Commission, 2013; World Economic Forum, 2013), Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, ABS, 2012; Workplace Gender Equality Agency, WGEA, 2014), or a host of other countries (Catalyst, 2014; World Economic Forum, 2013), the numbers converge on one clear fact: women's careers rarely take them to the top of the organization (Fairchild, 2014; Still, 2006).

Some research explicitly makes a “business case” for improving gender diversity in leadership roles, arguing that female leaders “have unique characteristics that create additional value” to organizations (Carter, D'Souza, Simkins, & Simpson, 2010, p. 397). Evidence supporting the business case is ambivalent and the effect of gender diversity in leadership may depend on contextual variables (e.g., the national context in which a firm is embedded; Post & Byron, 2015). But even if gender diversity in leadership does not deliver economic benefits to an organization, there may be important reputational benefits. A gender diverse leadership can signal to community members and job applicants that the organization is effective in managing diversity (Francoeur, Labelle, & Sinclair-Desgagne, 2008; Olsen, Parsons, Martins, & Ivanaj, 2015).

Organizations are under mounting pressure to increase the numbers of women in leadership roles. This pressure is manifested in stronger legislative requirements and higher internal and external stakeholder expectations. Australia's Workplace Gender Equality Act imposed stricter gender reporting obligations for large organizations in 2012 (Workplace Gender Equality Agency, WGEA, 2012). Investors are now encouraged to consider gender diversity initiatives as part of their organizational assessments

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +61 8 8302 7378; fax: +61 8 8302 0512.

E-mail addresses: kateryna_kalysh@yahoo.com (K. Kalysh), carol.kulik@unisa.edu.au (C.T. Kulik), sanjee.perera@unisa.edu.au (S. Perera).

(Calvert Investments, 2015; Vigeo, 2014). In Australia, the Male Champions of Change have cascaded their own commitment to gender diversity through their supply chains via a “no women, no work” initiative (Smith, 2013).

In the ongoing debates around gender diversity, work–life practices are frequently mentioned as a strategy for speeding the advancement of women into leadership roles. “Work–life” is an umbrella term encompassing a wide array of practices intended to help employees balance their work and non-work responsibilities (Callan, 2007; Glass & Finley, 2002). Some of these practices (e.g., provision of childcare/eldercare services) relieve women of some family responsibilities; others enable women to better manage family commitments by giving them greater control over their work arrangements (e.g., flexible work schedules, virtual office facilities) (Heywood & Jirjahn, 2009). Organizations most often develop work–life initiatives in response to female employees’ concerns about meeting their family responsibilities. Although both men and women can suffer from work–family conflict (Grönlund, 2007; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; van Veldhoven & Beijer, 2012), and employers usually make their work–life practices available to both men and women, women tend to be the most frequent users of work–life programs (Vandello, Hettinger, Bosson, & Siddiqi, 2013; Wise & Bond, 2003).

If work–life practices help female employees to reduce work–family conflict, they may also help women to advance into management roles. A series of reports by Ernst & Young explicitly recommend work–life practices as a solution to the lack of women in senior roles (Ernst & Young, 2011a, 2011b). In particular, practices that offer flexibility to employees about when (which hours and days) and where (in the office or at home) they work are described as “key” to women’s advancement by both female managers (e.g., Crisp, 2013) and male champions for gender equity (e.g., McCann, 2014). Major Australian organizations including Coca Cola Amatil, Telstra, and Qantas have introduced flexible work practices designed to increase women’s retention and keep them moving up the organizational hierarchy (Bita, 2013).

Will work–life practices increase women’s representation in management ranks? Organizations with work–life practices report increased productivity and innovation (Taneja, Pryor, & Oyler, 2012), decreased absenteeism and turnover (Rogier & Padgett, 2004), and reduced overtime costs (Lewison, 2006). From an employee perspective, work–life practices increase organizational attachment and loyalty (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013; Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2011) and reduce employees’ experience of work–family conflict (Breugh & Frye, 2008). Unfortunately, the evidence linking work–life practices to women’s representation in management roles is scant and contradictory. Dreher (2003) found that the number of work–life practices was positively associated with the percentage of women in senior management positions 5 years later. In contrast, Straub (2007) examined five work–life practices and found that only one (maternity leave payments beyond the statutory minimum) was positively associated with women’s representation in senior management.

Our goal in this research is to examine the relationship between work–life practices and the proportion of women in management positions. We draw on theoretical perspectives explaining how gender stereotypes influence decision-makers’ perceptions about women’s fit to managerial roles (Heilman, 2012; Lyness & Heilman, 2006) and how these stereotypes are made more or less salient by gender proportions within organizational contexts (Perry, Davis-Blake, & Kulik, 1994). These theoretical perspectives identify the critical role of the context in the relationship between work–life practices and women’s advancement. They suggest that work–life practices may increase women in management, particularly in contexts where there are higher proportions of women. However, they also imply that these positive effects will be constrained in contexts where women are a minority. Therefore, we expect to see variations in the effects of work–life practices as a function of women’s representation in the organization and in the industry.

We analyzed archival data from 675 organizations in Australia; the data are derived from government reports collected from 2002 to 2014. We make a contribution to the management literature by documenting the effect of work–life programs on women’s representation in management across diverse organizations and industries. This information will help managers to develop realistic expectations about the impact of work–life programs, and to understand whether – and in which contexts – work–life programs are likely to improve the representation of women in management roles. As a result, managers can make more informed choices about the practices they adopt and the strategies they use to increase women’s representation in management.

Theoretical background and hypothesis development

Although the proportion of female employees in management ranks is increasing, women are still underrepresented at higher levels of management. A wide range of factors slow women’s rise to the top (see Metz & Kulik, 2014 for a review) but researchers frequently cite decision-makers’ gender stereotypes as a significant barrier to women’s career progress. Gender stereotypes create problems for women when decision-makers perceive a “lack of fit” between women’s attributes and the attributes those decision-makers believe are required for success in traditionally male occupations and organizational positions (Heilman, 2012). Gender stereotypes are especially problematic when decision-makers evaluate women for management roles, where “the criteria for effective performance tend to be particularly subjective and vague” (Heilman, 2001, p. 663). Organizational decision-makers perceive a lack of fit because female stereotypic characteristics, including the positive qualities of warmth and niceness, are inconsistent with male characteristics of “toughness, forcefulness and achievement-orientation” (Lyness & Heilman, 2006, p. 777) viewed as requirements for success in management positions (Heilman & Eagly, 2008).

Women are less likely to experience gender bias in performance evaluations when “the quality of their work is incontrovertible” (Heilman, 2001, p. 662). For example, Heilman and Haynes (2005) found that gender bias in evaluation of women in leadership roles was diminished in the face of women’s excellent contribution to the team’s success. Similarly, Post, DiTomaso, Lowe, Farris, and Cordero (2009) found that women who were perceived by managers as innovative received high ratings for promotions – even

higher than men who were perceived as equally innovative. It is hard for decision-makers to overlook women for promotion when the women present incontrovertible evidence of their competence.

Work–life practices might create the conditions for women to present stronger evidence of high performance, increasing decision-makers' perception of their fit to managerial roles. Some work–life practices enable women to better manage family commitments by giving them greater control over when (e.g., flexible work schedules) or where (e.g., virtual office facilities) they work; others relieve women of some family responsibilities (e.g., provision of childcare/eldercare services) (Heywood & Jirjahn, 2009). Finally, work–life practices such as leave arrangements (e.g., maternity leave, carer's leave) provide women an opportunity to take a short break when their family commitments require their full attention, but remain attached to the organization. Thus when an organization provides work–life practices, female employees should experience less work–family conflict (Rogier & Padgett, 2004) and, as a result, be better able to focus on their work and display high performance. Some research at the individual level of analysis suggest that female employees may be able to leverage work–life practices to advance their careers: For example, Muse, Harris, Giles, and Feild (2008) reported that employees who used work–life practices received higher performance ratings from their supervisors and Konrad and Yang (2012) found positive associations between the use of work–life practices and promotions.

Over time, these individual-level career benefits should aggregate to greater gender diversity in management at the organizational level of analysis (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000), and a few studies provide empirical evidence linking work–life practices to women's representation in leadership roles. Dreher (2003) reported a positive relationship between the number of work–life practices (flexitime, job share, telecommuting/work-at-home scheduling, elder care, adoption benefits, and childcare benefits) offered by large American firms in 1994 and the percentage of senior management positions held by women in those firms in 1999. Straub (2007) considered the effect of work–life balance practices in European companies and found that one particular practice – extra pay for maternity leave – was positively associated with women's representation in executive positions. Kalev, Dobbin, and Kelly (2006) demonstrated that work–life accommodations (e.g., paid maternity/paternity leave, flexible work arrangements, top management support for work–life programs) were positively associated with gender diversity in management in U.S. organizations.

By providing women greater control over work arrangements and reducing the burden of family responsibilities, work–life practices might help women to stay in the workforce and accrue incontrovertible evidence of performance. Such strong indicators of performance can improve women's perceived fit for managerial roles and positively influence their advancement into the management ranks. Therefore, we predict that:

Hypothesis 1. The number of work–life practices offered by organizations will be positively associated with the proportion of women in management in subsequent years.

Moderating effects: Gender proportions in the organization/industry context

But will work–life practices positively affect the representation of women in management *across contexts*? Work–life practices may benefit women's careers most in gender-mixed or female-dominant work environments. When the environment includes a sizable proportion of women, gender salience is low, and gender stereotyping is limited (Jansen, van der Velde, & Telting, 2001). In organizations with more female employees, women are more likely to be evaluated as individuals, and promotion decisions are more likely to reflect their individual performance.

However, in male-dominated contexts, gender stereotypes are easily accessible and it does not take much to activate them. The lower the proportion of women in a workgroup, organization, or industry, the greater women's distinctiveness (Kanter, 1977). Male-dominated environments increase the likelihood that women are viewed in stereotyped terms (Perry et al., 1994), and women's high visibility in those environments heightens performance pressures (Jansen et al., 2001).

In male-dominated contexts, the presence of work–life practices may increase the salience of gender stereotypes among both female employees and the managers who make promotion decisions. These stereotypes make it more difficult for female employees to demonstrate high performance and increase the likelihood that decision-makers will perceive a lack of fit between women and managerial roles. Organizational practices generate stereotype threat by making individuals aware of negative stereotypes about their demographic group (Steele, 1997). Concerns about confirming these stereotypes can disrupt employee performance and lower employee commitment. Work–life practices, particularly if they are marketed primarily to female employees, imply that women need extra help in order to advance into management positions. Therefore, they may generate stereotype threat among women: “the mere presence of these policies brings issues of race and gender to the forefront of employees' minds” (Kalokerinos, von Hippel, & Zacher, 2014, p. 391). Male-dominated contexts can reinforce stereotype threat triggered by organizational practices (Roberson & Kulik, 2007). Stereotype threat, in turn, can reduce motivation and performance, and lead to “diminished leadership aspirations among women” (Kalokerinos et al., 2014, p. 387).

Further, in male-dominated organizations, work–life practices may make gender stereotypes more accessible to decision-makers. When the organizational context reinforces traditional gender stereotypes, decision-makers are more likely to use gender selection criteria in hiring and promotion decisions (Perry et al., 1994). The implicit association between women and family is already strong and automatic; men are more strongly associated with career than family, but women are more strongly associated with family than with career (Nosek, Banaji, & Greenwald, 2002). The presence of work–life practices in a male-dominated environment strengthens that women–family association and encourages decision-makers to think of female employees as mothers and not as potential managers. Work–life practices reinforce decision-makers' stereotype-based view that “...women don't have the time to devote to management” (Cross & Linehan, 2006, p. 37).

We anticipate that a positive effect of work–life practices on women's advancement will be most visible in organizational contexts with higher proportions of women. In contexts with low proportions of women, gender stereotypes are already operating. The presence of work–life practices will repeatedly activate these gender stereotypes and reinforce decision-makers' stereotyped beliefs that women are poor fits to managerial roles. Therefore, we predict that:

Hypothesis 2. The proportion of female employees in the organization moderates the relationship between the number of work–life practices and the proportion of women in management roles in subsequent years. The relationship between work–life practices and the proportion of women in management is expected to be positive in organizations with a higher proportion of female employees but this effect will be constrained in organizations with a lower proportion of female employees.

Parallel dynamics are expected to operate at the industry level. In female-dominated and gender-mixed industries, gender stereotypes should be less salient and women should be more likely to be promoted based on performance. But when women are present in lower numbers (e.g., in male-dominated industries), they are more likely to be evaluated according to gender stereotypes (Jansen et al., 2001; Stone & Hernandez, 2013). Eagly and Karau (2002), for example, pointed out that female leaders are generally less successful than male leaders in the military and other masculine occupations and industries. In these male-dominated environments, leadership roles are particularly likely to be defined in masculine terms and generate perceptions that women are poor fits. Work–life practices increase the likelihood that gender stereotypes will operate in promotion decisions, so decision-makers see women as less suitable for management positions.

Hypothesis 3. The proportion of female employees in the industry moderates the relationship between work–life practices and the proportion of women in management roles in subsequent years. The relationship between work–life practices and the proportion of women in management is expected to be positive in organizations in industries with a higher proportion of female employees but this effect will be constrained in industries with a lower proportion of female employees.

Methodology

Data collection

This research uses information from organizational reports filed with Australia's Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA; formerly known as the Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency). It is a legislative requirement of Australia's Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Act 1999 and later, the Workplace Gender Equality Act 2012, that non-public sector organizations with 100 or more employees report their gender composition in management and non-management roles, as well as workplace programs for improving gender equality and removing barriers to women entering and advancing in the organization (Workplace Gender Equality Agency, WGEA, 2012).

Organizations filed WGEA reports for the first time in 2001 but most of these reports are not available to the public. Since 2002, the WGEA has made most reports publicly available, and reports from the most recent years are directly accessible from the WGEA website (www.wgea.gov.au). Originally, organizations could be exempted from the reporting requirement after three consecutive years of compliant reporting. Exempted employers could refrain from reporting for up to 3 years. As a result, reports are not available for all organizations in every year. Exemptions were not awarded after 2012, but organizations that had received exemptions in earlier years (e.g., in 2011) were nonetheless exempted for subsequent years (e.g., in 2012, 2013, and 2014). At the time of our analysis, 2014 reports were the latest reports available.

Our starting sample was a random sample of 675 organizations that had submitted reports to the WGEA in 2006. The organizations had been in operation for an average of 64 years and employed on average 1130 people. 193 (28.59%) of the organizations were not-for-profit.

Variables

Predictor: Work–life practices 2002–2006

The WGEA reports do not explicitly categorize organizational practices as “work–life.” Based on previous research, we developed a coding taxonomy that included four work–life practice categories: 1) *leave arrangements*: parental leave, leave to take care of a sick child, short break (Poelmans, Chinchilla, & Cardona, 2003), flexible annual leave, family leave, carer's leave, and special leave; 2) *flexible work schedules*: part-time, staggered hours, job share, flexitime, compressed work week, reduced hours (Callan, 2007), casual hours, and flexible start/finish time; 3) *direct provision of services*: childcare, eldercare (Wright & Sheridan, 1998), employee assistance programs (Bourhis, Mekkaoui, & Déom, 2010), and breastfeeding facilities; and 4) *virtual office facilities*: work at home, telecommuting, telework and video conferencing (Poelmans et al., 2003), remote access technology, and provision of laptop/phone.

Organizations usually expand their portfolio of management practices over time. Internal organizational factors (e.g., demographic composition, organizational culture) motivate organizations to adopt multiple diversity management practices (Dobbin, Kim, & Kalev, 2011) and, once staff are given oversight responsibility for those practices, the practices are unlikely to be dismantled (Kalev et al., 2006). For example, Edelman and Petterson (1999) showed that equal opportunity departments in the United States gradually expanded the range of diversity programs they managed. In order to capture the entire portfolio of work–life practices available in 2006, the first author and a research assistant read the WGEA reports and coded mentions of any practice associated

with the four categories in our coding taxonomy (1 = practice mentioned; 0 = practice not mentioned) appearing in the organization's 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, and 2006 reports. Organizations usually emphasized new initiatives in their WGEA reports, so a practice that was introduced in 2004 (for example) would not necessarily be discussed in a 2005 or 2006 report. Diversity program discontinuation is "rare" (Kalev et al., 2006, p. 597) so we assumed that a practice, once mentioned, was maintained in subsequent years. Individual practices were only coded once even if they appeared in reports across multiple years. This coding process generated a count of practices within each category. We summed across practice categories to generate the total number of work-life practices offered in 2002–2006. Our main analyses focus on the total number of work-life practices, but we also report supplementary analyses using the number of work-life practices within each practice category.

To assess reliability, the first author and the research assistant both coded 207 randomly chosen reports. We calculated their inter-coder reliability using the intra-class correlation (ICC) (Shrout, Fleiss, & Hernstein, 1979). The reliability for all practice categories was very high: leave arrangements .90; flexible work schedules .82; direct provision of services .90; and virtual office facilities .94.

Outcome: Women in management in 2010, 2012, and 2014

The WGEA reports include a workplace profile describing the workforce gender composition of various roles within the organization. These profiles were examined to identify the proportion of women in managerial roles in 2006 (control variable) and 2010, 2012, and 2014 (outcome variable). The impact of work-life practices on women in management is unlikely to be immediate (Huselid & Becker, 1996; Wright, Dunford, & Snell, 2001). Further, different practice categories could have distinctive time lags before they influence organizational level phenomena (Birdi et al., 2008). Therefore, we incorporated four-, six-, and eight-year time lags into our analyses, and examined the relationship between the number of work-life practices offered in 2002–2006 and the proportion of women in management positions in 2010, 2012, and 2014.

We calculated the proportion of women in management in 2010 by dividing the number of female managers in 2010 by the total number of managers in 2010. Parallel procedures generated the proportion of women in management in 2012 and 2014. Coding the management positions required few judgment calls, and the two coders displayed perfect agreement ($r = 1.00$) on the proportion of women in management in a sample of 207 reports.

Moderators

We calculated the proportion of female employees in 2006 from the workplace profile data in the WGEA reports by dividing the number of female employees in 2006 by the total number of employees in 2006.

We used information contained in the WGEA reports to identify each organization's industry sub-division within the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC). The Australian Bureau of Statistics maintains data on the number of men and women employed in these industry sub-divisions. We obtained the proportion of women in each industry sub-division in the year 2006 from the ABS website (Australian Bureau of Statistics, ABS, 2014).

Control variables

In the analyses, we controlled for the effects of organization size, age, and the proportion of women in management in 2006. Large organizations are more responsive to work-family issues (Ingram & Simons, 1995) and are more likely to have the resources to provide work-life practices (Adkins, Samaras, Gilfillan, & McWee, 2013). We operationalized organization size as the total number of employees in 2006 (French, 2005; Harel, Tzafirir, & Baruch, 2003). Ellis and Tsui (2007) suggested that workforce homogeneity becomes more problematic for organizations as they age, and so older organizations should be more proactive in adopting diversity practices. Therefore, we controlled for organization age, operationalized as the number of years since the organization was founded. Information about founding year was obtained from the Company360 database and company websites. Finally, we controlled for the proportion of women in management in the year 2006, so that we could see how work-life practices changed these proportions across our time lags (2006–2010, 2006–2012, and 2006–2014).

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations

Descriptive statistics and correlations for all variables are presented in Table 1. Hypothesis 1 predicted that the number of work-life practices offered by organizations would be positively associated with the proportion of women in management positions. In our data, work-life practices in 2002–2006 displayed an overall positive association with women in management in 2010 ($r(663) = .15, p < .001$), women in management in 2012 ($r(627) = .15, p < .001$), and women in management in 2014 ($r(566) = .22, p < .001$).

Hypothesis testing

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to test the hypotheses. We followed the procedures recommended by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003) and centered the values for the continuous variables before creating interaction terms. The inclusion of

Table 1

Means, standard deviations, and correlations.

| Variables | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|--------------------------------------------|---------|---------|-------|------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| <i>Controls</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1. Organization age | 64.18 | 41.50 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Organization size | 1130.25 | 5908.90 | .04 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Women in management in 2006 | .31 | .23 | .01 | .02 | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Predictors</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Work-life practices in 2002–06 | 8.22 | 3.31 | .08* | .05 | .17*** | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Leave arrangements in 2002–06 | 2.99 | 2.00 | .07 | .01 | .14*** | .81*** | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Flexible work schedules in 2002–06 | 3.55 | 1.24 | .12** | .06 | .15*** | .64*** | .24*** | | | | | | | |
| 7. Direct provision of services in 2002–06 | 1.04 | .97 | -.01 | .09* | .12** | .57*** | .25*** | .24*** | | | | | | |
| 8. Virtual office facilities in 2002–06 | .64 | .74 | -.01 | -.02 | -.02 | .47*** | .19*** | .23*** | .17*** | | | | | |
| <i>Moderators</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. Women in organization in 2006 | .43 | .25 | .04 | .03 | .81*** | .18** | .18*** | .14*** | .14*** | -.07 | | | | |
| 10. Women in industry in 2006 | .47 | .21 | .04 | .03 | .64*** | .13*** | .17*** | .06 | .15*** | -.10** | .70*** | | | |
| <i>Outcomes</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11. Women in management in 2010 | .32 | .23 | -.03 | .02 | .86*** | .15*** | .14*** | .12** | .12** | -.06 | .80*** | .67*** | | |
| 12. Women in management in 2012 | .33 | .22 | -.05 | .03 | .84*** | .15*** | .14*** | .10* | .13** | -.05 | .79*** | .67*** | .91*** | |
| 13. Women in management in 2014 | .33 | .22 | -.04 | .03 | .80*** | .22*** | .21*** | .12** | .19*** | -.02 | .80*** | .68*** | .84*** | .86*** |

Note: N ranges from 568 to 675 across variables.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

multiplicative terms in regression analyses might raise concerns about multicollinearity, but the variance inflation factors (VIFs) associated with our predictor and moderator variables were low. None of the VIFs exceeded 4.0, the usual benchmark for multicollinearity (O'Brien, 2007).

Relationship between work–life practices and women in management

Tables 2, 3, and 4 report the results of hierarchical regression analyses treating women in management in 2010, 2012, and 2014 as the outcome variable. Control variables (organization age, organization size, and women in management in 2006) were entered in the first step of the regression (Model 1). The predictor (work–life practices in 2002–2006) was entered in step 2 (Model 2), the moderator variables (women in organization in 2006; women in industry in 2006) were entered in step 3 (Model 3), and the interaction terms (work–life practices in 2002–2006 \times women in organization in 2006; work–life practices in 2002–2006 \times women in industry in 2006) were entered in step 4 (Model 4).

The number of work–life practices an organization offered (2002–2006) had no significant effect on the subsequent proportion of women in management in 2010 and 2012 (2010 change in $R^2 = .00$, change in $R^2 F(1, 656) = .10$, $p = .756$; 2012 change in $R^2 = .00$, change in $R^2 F(1, 621) = .20$, $p = .657$). Further, in 2010 and 2012 there was no evidence that the number of work–life

Table 2

Hierarchical regression – work-life practices in 2002–06 and women in management in 2010.

| Variables | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 | VIF |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------|
| <i>Controls</i> | | | | | |
| Organization age | -.04 | -.04 | -.05* | -.05** | 1.02 |
| Organization size | .01 | .01 | -.01 | .00 | 1.01 |
| Women in management in 2006 | .86** | .86** | .60** | .59** | 2.98 |
| <i>Predictor</i> | | | | | |
| Work-life practices in 2002–06 | | .01 | -.01 | -.01 | 1.05 |
| <i>Moderators</i> | | | | | |
| Women in organization in 2006 | | | .24** | .24** | 3.50 |
| Women in industry in 2006 | | | .12** | .12** | 2.06 |
| <i>Two-way interactions</i> | | | | | |
| Work-life practices in 2002–06 \times women in organization in 2006 | | | | .04 | 2.20 |
| Work-life practices in 2002–06 \times women in industry in 2006 | | | | -.04 | 2.20 |
| R^2 | .74 | .74 | .78 | .78 | |
| Change in R^2 | .74 | .00 | .04 | .01 | |
| Overall model F | 624.14(3,657)** | 467.48(4,656)** | 383.85(6,654)** | 288.60(8,652)** | |
| Change in R^2 F | 624.14(3,657)** | .10(1,656) | 56.99(2,654)** | 1.40(2,652) | |

Note: N = 665. Table entries are standardized regression coefficients.

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

Table 3
Hierarchical regression – work-life practices in 2002–06 and women in management in 2012.

| Variables | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 | VIF |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------|
| <i>Controls</i> | | | | | |
| Organization age | -.04 | -.04 | -.05** | -.06** | 1.03 |
| Organization size | .01 | .01 | .01 | .01 | 1.01 |
| Women in management in 2006 | .84** | .84** | .55** | .55** | 3.02 |
| <i>Predictor</i> | | | | | |
| Work-life practices in 2002–06 | | .01 | .00 | .00 | 1.05 |
| <i>Moderators</i> | | | | | |
| Women in organization in 2006 | | | .24** | .25** | 3.50 |
| Women in industry in 2006 | | | .15** | .14** | 2.04 |
| <i>Two-way interactions</i> | | | | | |
| Work-life practices in 2002–06 × women in organization in 2006 | | | | .02 | 2.10 |
| Work-life practices in 2002–06 × women in industry in 2006 | | | | -.05 | 2.10 |
| R ² | .70 | .70 | .75 | .75 | |
| Change in R ² | .70 | .00 | .05 | .01 | |
| Overall model F | 489.25(3,622)** | 366.51(4,621)** | 305.90(6,619)** | 230.67(8,617)** | |
| Change in R ² F | 489.25(3,622)** | .20(1,621) | 55.65(2,619)** | 2.01(2,617) | |

Note: N = 629. Table entries are standardized regression coefficients.

** p < .01.

practices interacted with either the proportion of women in the organization or the proportion of women in the industry (2010 change in $R^2 = .01$, change in $R^2 F(2, 652) = 1.40$, $p = .246$; 2012 change in $R^2 = .01$, change in $R^2 F(2, 617) = 2.01$, $p = .136$).

However, in 2014 the number of work–life practices an organization offered had a significant positive effect on the proportion of women in management ($\beta = .06$, $t(560) = 2.51$, $p = .013$; Table 4, Model 2). Thus, the number of work–life practices offered by organizations was positively associated with the proportion of women in management positions, but only after a lag of 8 years. Further, the results demonstrated a significant interaction between work–life practices and the proportion of women in the organization in 2006 (Hypothesis 2: $\beta = .08$, $t(556) = 2.49$, $p = .013$; Table 4, Model 4) and a non-significant interaction effect between work–life practices and the proportion of women in the industry in 2006 (Hypothesis 3: $\beta = -.04$, $t(556) = -1.09$, $p = .274$; Table 4, Model 4).

To interpret the significant interaction, we plotted the relationship between the number of work–life practices (2002–2006) and proportion of women in management (2014) at representative levels of the moderator (Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen et al., 2003). Fig. 1 presents the relationship between the number of work–life practices and the proportion of women in management at three values of women in the organization in 2006: .68 (one standard deviation above the mean); .43 (the mean); and .18 (one standard deviation below the mean). As shown in Fig. 1, work–life practices' association with women in management was positive ($b = .009$, $p = .001$) at .68 and at .43 ($b = .003$, $p = .045$), but non-significant at .18 ($b = -.003$, $p = .367$).

The Johnson–Neyman technique was used as an additional method for probing the interactions. The Johnson–Neyman technique “identifies regions in the range of the moderator variable where the effect of a focal predictor on the outcome is statistically significant

Table 4
Hierarchical regression – work-life practices in 2002–06 and women in management in 2014.

| Variables | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 | VIF |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------|
| <i>Controls</i> | | | | | |
| Organization age | -.04 | -.04 | -.06* | -.06** | 1.02 |
| Organization size | .02 | .01 | .01 | .01 | 1.01 |
| Women in management in 2006 | .80** | .79** | .41** | .40** | 3.06 |
| <i>Predictor</i> | | | | | |
| Work-life practices in 2002–06 | | .06* | .05* | .05* | 1.07 |
| <i>Moderators</i> | | | | | |
| Women in organization in 2006 | | | .35** | .35** | 3.56 |
| Women in industry in 2006 | | | .16** | .15** | 2.09 |
| <i>Two-way interactions</i> | | | | | |
| Work-life practices in 2002–06 × women in organization in 2006 | | | | .08* | 2.21 |
| Work-life practices in 2002–06 × women in industry in 2006 | | | | -.04 | 2.20 |
| R ² | .65 | .65 | .73 | .73 | |
| Change in R ² | .65 | .01 | .08 | .01 | |
| Overall model F | 343.61(3,561)** | 261.70(4,560)** | 248.65(6,558)** | 189.17(8,556)** | |
| Change in R ² F | 343.61(3,561)** | 6.28(1,560)* | 78.21(2,558)** | 3.65(2,556)* | |

Note: N = 568. Table entries are standardized regression coefficients.

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

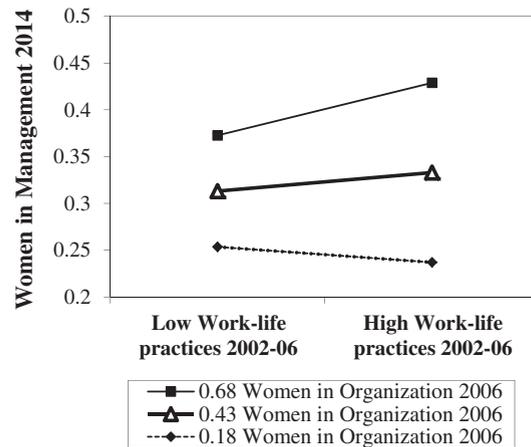


Fig. 1. The relationship between work-life practices in 2002–06 and women in management in 2014, by proportion of women in the organization 2006.

and not significant” (Hayes & Matthes, 2009, pp. 924–925). Analysis indicated that work–life practices had a significant positive effect on the proportion of women in management when women constituted 43% or more of the organization’s workforce. These results are consistent with Hypothesis 2, which predicted that work–life practices would exert a positive effect in organizations with a higher proportion of women but this effect would be constrained in organizations with a lower proportion of women.

Supplementary analyses: Four practice categories

The analyses reported in Tables 2, 3, and 4 indicate that the overall number of practices (2002–2006) influenced the proportion of women in management only after an 8 year lag. However, different types of practices might have different effects. Therefore, we repeated the analyses substituting the individual practice categories (leave arrangements in 2002–06, flexible work schedules in 2002–06, direct provision of services in 2002–06, and virtual office facilities in 2002–06). In 2010 and 2012 there was no evidence that practices had either main (2010 change in $R^2 = .01$, change in $R^2 F(4, 653) = 3.13$, $p = .054$; 2012 change in $R^2 = .01$, change in $R^2 F(4, 618) = 2.24$, $p = .064$) or interactive effects (2010 change in $R^2 = .01$, change in $R^2 F(8, 643) = 1.30$, $p = .240$; 2012 change in $R^2 = .01$, change in $R^2 F(8, 608) = 1.39$, $p = .196$). Table 5 reports the results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses examining the relationship between the 2002–06 practice categories and the 2014 proportion of women in management.

As shown in Table 5 (Model 2), leave arrangements in 2002–2006 and direct provision of services in 2002–2006 had significant positive effects on the proportion of women in management in 2014 ($\beta = .07$, $t(557) = 2.53$, $p = .012$; $\beta = .08$, $t(557) = 3.15$, $p = .002$). Further, the results demonstrated a significant interaction between leave arrangements and the proportion of women in the organization in 2006 ($\beta = .08$, $t(547) = 2.29$, $p = .022$). When we plotted this interaction, it displayed the same pattern shown in Fig. 1.

Additional probing using the Johnson–Neyman technique (Hayes & Matthes, 2009) indicated that leave arrangements (2002–2006) had a significant positive effect on the proportion of women in management in 2014 when women constituted 51% or more of the organization’s workforce. Consistent with Hypothesis 2, leave arrangements had more positive effects on the proportion of women in management positions in organizations with a higher proportion of women.

Discussion

Scholars have advocated work–life practices as a strategy for improving women’s representation in management roles (Rogier & Padgett, 2004). Around the world, governments are exerting pressure on employers to provide greater flexibility to their employees (Chou & Cheung, 2013; Fair Work Ombudsman, 2010; Wood & de Menezes, 2010). Australian employers, in particular, have been criticized for being slow to adopt work–life initiatives (Edmond, 2014) and strongly encouraged to “mainstream” flexible work practices (Diversity Council Australia, 2012).

Our results suggest that work–life practices can have a positive impact on women’s representation in management. However, this effect is unlikely to be visible immediately. In our study, the overall number of work–life practices was significantly associated with the proportion of women in management positions, but *only* after a lag of 8 years. Further, our results highlight the critical role context plays in the relationship between work–life practices and women’s representation in management. Positive effects of work–life practices (overall) were only observed when women constituted 43% or more of the organization’s workforce.

Table 5
Hierarchical regression – practice categories in 2002–06 and women in management in 2014.

| Variables | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 | VIF |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------|
| <i>Controls</i> | | | | | |
| Organization age | -.04 | -.04 | -.05* | -.05* | 1.04 |
| Organization size | .02 | .01 | .00 | .00 | 1.02 |
| Women in management in 2006 | .80** | .79** | .41** | .40** | 3.15 |
| <i>Predictors</i> | | | | | |
| Leave arrangements in 2002–06 | | .07* | .04 | .03 | 1.23 |
| Flexible work schedules in 2002–06 | | -.03 | -.01 | -.01 | 1.17 |
| Direct provision of services in 2002–06 | | .08** | .06* | .05 | 1.18 |
| Virtual office facilities in 2002–06 | | -.04 | -.01 | .01 | 1.13 |
| <i>Moderators</i> | | | | | |
| Women in organization in 2006 | | | .35** | .35** | 3.61 |
| Women in industry in 2006 | | | .15** | .15** | 2.18 |
| <i>Two-way interactions</i> | | | | | |
| Leave arrangements in 2002–06 × women in organization in 2006 | | | | .08* | 2.49 |
| Flexible work schedules in 2002–06 × women in organization in 2006 | | | | .04 | 2.15 |
| Direct provision of services in 2002–06 × women in organization in 2006 | | | | .02 | 2.64 |
| Virtual office facilities in 2002–06 × women in organization in 2006 | | | | -.03 | 2.06 |
| Leave arrangements in 2002–06 × women in industry in 2006 | | | | -.04 | 2.46 |
| Flexible work schedules in 2002–06 × women in industry in 2006 | | | | -.04 | 2.22 |
| Direct provision of services in 2002–06 × women in industry in 2006 | | | | .04 | 2.57 |
| Virtual office facilities in 2002–06 × women in industry in 2006 | | | | -.01 | 2.03 |
| R ² | .65 | .66 | .73 | .74 | |
| Change in R ² | .65 | .01 | .07 | .01 | |
| Overall model F | 343.61 (3, 561)** | 154.64 (7, 557)** | 166.63 (9, 555)** | 90.52 (17, 547)** | |
| Change in R ² F | 343.61 (3, 561)** | 5.20 (4, 557)** | 71.53 (2, 555)** | 2.05 (8, 547)* | |

Note: N = 568. Table entries are standardized regression coefficients

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

Implications for theory and research

Our research suggests that work–life practices can assist in increasing gender diversity in leadership roles, but the significant positive association will only be visible several years after practice adoption (8 years in our study). Our results may explain some of the contradictory findings reported in previous studies that examine the association between work–life practices and women in management. Studies using cross-sectional data (e.g., [Straub, 2007](#)), or using longitudinal data with a brief lag between practice adoption and women's representation in management (e.g., [Jansen et al., 2001](#)), either report negative effects or positive effects limited only to a few practices. However, [Dreher \(2003\)](#) observed positive effects of work–life practices on women's representation in managerial jobs after a lag of 5 years.

Organizations experience “implementation-to-benefit lags” ([Huselid & Becker, 1996](#), p. 418) whenever they adopt new people management practices; it can take several years for a practice to influence an organizational level outcome ([Kozlowski & Klein, 2000](#); [Wright et al., 2001](#)). Further, the implementation-to-benefit time lags may be different across practices. For example, [Birdi et al. \(2008\)](#) found that empowerment practices were associated with improved organizational productivity after 1 to 4 years, but teamwork took 6 to 9 years to have a similar impact.

Two factors may contribute to the long lag we observed between work–life practices and women in management in our research. First, the women who are most likely to access an organization's work–life practices may still be several years away from leadership roles. Women face an “unforgiving decade” ([Hewlett, 2002](#), p. 69) between the ages of 25 and 35 in which their prime childbearing years coincide with the hard work of career building. The average age of the first-time manager is 30 ([Zenger, 2012](#)), so there can easily be a five-year gap between a woman accessing work–life practices and being promoted into her first management role; the gap may be longer if the particular work–life practice supports an extended career break to accommodate family responsibilities ([Hewlett, 2002](#)). Second, the full benefits of work–life practices can only be expected in organizations where supervisors support work–life practices ([Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002](#)) and there is a culture that fully embraces the spirit of work–life practice adoption at all levels of the organization ([Bornstein, 2013](#); [Thompson, Andreassi, & Prottas, 2005](#); [Villablanca, Beckett, Nettiksimmons, & Howell, 2011](#)). [Schwartz \(1996\)](#) argued that only an organization-wide cultural change would lead to women's career progression and cited the examples of Johnson & Johnson and Fel-Pro where the implementation of work–life practices triggered a cultural change. A cultural change that requires a change in organizational processes is unlikely to be fast and immediate ([Shin & Konrad, 2014](#); [Yang & Konrad, 2011](#)).

Our research highlights the important role of context in moderating the impact work–life practices have on women's progress into management. We had predicted that work–life practices would provide the strongest positive effects in contexts with a higher proportion of women and be least effective in contexts with a lower proportion of women. When there are few women, gender stereotypes are easily accessed and decision-makers are more likely to use gender selection criteria in their hiring and promotion decisions ([Perry et al., 1994](#)). Cognitive associations between women and family are strong and automatic ([Nosek et al., 2002](#)), gender

stereotypes are easily activated by the skewed gender distributions (Perry et al., 1994), and work–life practices suggest that women need extra or special help to succeed (Cross & Linehan, 2006). As a result, decision-makers in organizations with few women are more confident in their judgments that women are poor fits to management. However, gender stereotypes lose their salience as the proportion of female employees within an organization increases. We observed positive effects of work–life practices when women constituted 43% or more of the organization's workforce. This finding is consistent with research evidence that gender stereotyping declines as the proportion of female employees increases (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002, Jansen et al., 2001).

We expected that the proportion of women in the industry would play a moderating role parallel to that of the proportion of women in the organization. However, gender proportions in the industry did not moderate the effect work–life practices had on women in management. *Organizational* gender composition is highly visible to both employees and managers. It is likely that decision-makers and employees frequently observe the lack of women within the organization as part of their work routines. Therefore, these proximal gender proportions are likely to influence female employees' stereotype threat perceptions (Roberson & Kulik, 2007) and can easily activate decision-makers' gender associated schemas influencing promotion decisions (Perry et al., 1994). However, it is less likely that more distal *industry* gender proportions are immediately available to either decision-makers or employees. The availability of local organizational gender information can supersede the impact of distal industry indicators creating a “local dominance effect” (Alicke, Zell, & Bloom, 2009, p. 175). For example, Pazy and Oron (2001) studied a male-dominated military organization and found that female officers' performance evaluations were affected by the gender proportions within their units. Women's evaluations were lower than men's in units with few female officers; women's evaluations were higher than men's in units where female officers constituted a higher proportion.

Practical implications

In a period when organizations are experiencing pressure to increase the proportion of women in managerial ranks (e.g., Diversity Council Australia, 2012; Ernst & Young, 2011a, 2011b) our research sounds a promising note: work–life practices, particularly leave arrangements and direct provision of services, can make a positive contribution to improving women's representation in leadership roles. However, it is unlikely that this effect is immediate and the benefits are more likely to accrue to organizations with high proportions of women in the workforce. Our findings should encourage organizations to offer work–life practices. We know that organizations adopting work–life practices report many positive outcomes, including increased productivity and innovation (Taneja et al., 2012), decreased absenteeism and turnover (Rogier & Padgett, 2004), and reduced overtime costs (Lewison, 2006). Employees also report positive outcomes in the form of reduced work–family conflict (Breugh & Frye, 2008) and greater organizational commitment (Butts et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2011). Now employers can expect an added payoff: an increase in gender diversity in management 5 (Dreher, 2003) to 8 years (this study) after practice adoption. We encourage employers to make work–life practices part of their long term strategic initiatives to improve gender equity.

However, organizations should not use investment in work–life practices as an excuse to not pursue other initiatives that might have a more immediate impact on women in management roles. For example, women-focused leadership training and development could have a more immediate benefit to women's advancement (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011). Programs and positions that establish responsibility and oversight for diversity programs can also have a positive effect on women in management (Kalev et al., 2006).

We encourage organizations to carefully consider when and how work–life practices can be leveraged to have the most impact on managerial gender diversity. Organizations face competing demands for limited resources from various employee groups (Bardoel, Moss, Smyrnios, & Tharenou, 1999). This makes it even more pressing for organizations to identify which work–life programs they should adopt. In our study, leave arrangements and direct provision of services exhibited a positive effect on the proportion of women in management, but the impact of leave arrangements was visible only in organizations where women constituted 51% or more of the workforce. In contrast, flexible work scheduling and virtual office facilities showed no effect on the proportion of women in management.

Direct provision of services relieves women of some of their family responsibilities and allows career continuity (Glass, 2004; Heywood & Jirjahn, 2009). These services provide women an opportunity to accumulate incontrovertible evidence of high performance needed to progress to managerial positions. For example, Hegewisch and Gornick (2011) reported that provision of affordable, good-quality childcare was associated with long term female labor force participation and women's ability to hold high quality jobs. Largely “invisible” to decision-makers (e.g., a female employee could leave her children at childcare before starting work); these practices allow female employees to maintain facetime and cultivate an image as a career-committed employee (Williams, 2000). Thus, direct services are less likely to trigger negative gender based evaluations from decision-makers (Konrad & Yang, 2012). However, direct provisions of services “are the rarest forms of employer assistance, generally restricted to large firms in protected, high-profit sectors of the economy” (Glass, 2004, p. 373). In our study, the average organization offered only 1.04 direct provision practices; more than one-third of the organizations in our sample offered none. Direct provision of services can be expensive and require long term employer investment and maintenance (Jansen et al., 2001). Further, when the state is responsible for supporting these services (as in Australia, where childcare and disability care subsidies are available), organizations are unlikely to provide such services (Straub, 2007).

Leave arrangements allow women the opportunity to take breaks to balance family responsibilities while remaining attached to the organization. Organizations can complement the leaves with efforts to maintain contact with the employee (e.g., via the Australian Government's “keeping in touch” provisions; Department of Human Services, 2015) and ensure that the employee is not disadvantaged by short periods of absence (e.g., by including employees on leave in annual salary reviews to ensure that their salaries keep up with inflation; MacNamara, 2012; SheSays, 2014). As a result, leave arrangements may support women's careers

by providing short-term breaks while maintaining long-term retention (Schwartz, 1996). However, the benefits of leave arrangements may be context dependent. In our analysis, leave arrangements only had a positive effect when women constituted 51% or more of the workforce. This suggests that even short absences may be problematic for women in male-dominated work environments.

Flexible work schedules and virtual office facilities should enable women to better manage family commitments by giving them greater control over *when* and *where* they work (Heywood & Jirjahn, 2009). However, in our study, organizations offering these practices did not display higher proportions of women in management positions. This lack of benefit may reflect an inherent incompatibility between these practices and many organizations' expectations of the "ideal" manager – someone who works fulltime and is available to work long uninterrupted hours (Drew & Murtagh, 2005; Hegewisch, 2009; Metz, 2011). Organizations that value "presenteeism" are unlikely to offer flexible work schedules and virtual office facilities to managers (Drew & Murtagh, 2005); when organizations do offer these practices, employees who use them are viewed as less committed and less motivated (Rogier & Padgett, 2004). Flexible work schedules and virtual office facilities reduce employees' office facetime along with informal networking opportunities. They disadvantage female employees by placing them out of sight and out of mind – and therefore less likely to be considered as viable candidates for promotion into management positions (Maruyama & Tietze, 2012; McDonald, Bradley, & Brown, 2008).

However, the employee demand for these work–life practices is likely to increase. In Australia, employees with caregiving responsibilities have the right to request flexible work (Fair Work Ombudsman, 2010) and, in the UK, any employee who has worked for the same employer for at least 26 weeks has similar rights (Gov.UK, 2014). Further, financial costs associated with the introduction and administration of flexible work arrangements and virtual office facilities tend to be low (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). We encourage organizations to introduce "transparent" (Ernst & Young, 2011a, p. 6) and "objective" (Mello, 2007, p. 258) performance management and promotion systems and create cultures that support virtual working and flexible work scheduling. These strategies will reduce the organizational emphasis on "presenteeism" and create more opportunities for organizations to leverage the full portfolio of work–life practices to increase gender diversity in management roles.

Limitations and future research directions

Our research used archival data to demonstrate organizational-level associations between work–life practices and the proportion of women in management. Our archival data was valuable in making comparisons across organizations with different workforce demographics and operating in different industry sectors. However, our coding focused only on the *presence* of work–life practices, and the WGEA reports do not provide enough detail to provide an assessment of the quality of these practices, the scope of their coverage, or the effectiveness of their implementation. Future research should use other methodologies to examine how the content of work–life practices affects the proportion of women in management. This might be best done using case study methodologies (e.g., analyzing the "best practice" programs of organizations that have significantly boosted their proportions of women in management).

Employees frequently express concern that their use of work–life practices will send a "low commitment" signal to their managers, and fear that they will be penalized with fewer wage increases or promotions. Research evidence linking the *use* of work–life practices to women's career progress is contradictory. Konrad and Yang (2012) found little evidence that utilizing work–life benefits reduced promotion opportunities and Glass (2004) found that the use of benefits only reduced wage growth when employees had dramatically reduced their work hours and their facetime. Konrad and Yang (2012, p. 1112) concluded that employee concerns about being stigmatized for using work–life practices "are generally overblown." Similarly, Cross and Linehan (2006, p. 29) reported that women can create a "self-imposed glass ceiling," overestimating the negative effect of using work–life practices on their careers. However, Stone and Hernandez (2013) demonstrated that the use of flexible work arrangements can reinforce gender stereotypes and can be costly to women's careers. Further, occupying high status professional positions does not shelter women from these career penalties (Brescoll, Glass, & Sedlovskaya, 2013; Stone & Hernandez, 2013). But whether women experience a career payoff or a career penalty from accessing work–life practices depends on whether managers make the appropriate attribution. If the manager attributes the use of work–life practices to the woman's desire to maintain productivity, the manager will form positive impressions; if the manager attributes the use of work–life practices to the woman's desire to balance personal obligations, the manager's impressions will be negative (Leslie, Manchester, Park, & Mehng, 2012). It would be valuable for future researchers to conduct multilevel analyses that tracked the effect of the *presence* of work–life practices on *organization* level outcomes (e.g., proportion of women in management) alongside the effect of *using* those practices on *individual* level outcomes (e.g., work–family conflict, wage growth, and promotions).

Decision-maker perceptions of women's lack of fit become progressively more problematic as women advance through the organizational hierarchy (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Lyness & Judiesch, 1999). Unfortunately, the WGEA reports do not provide explicit definitions of managerial tiers and there is considerable cross-company variation in job titles. Coupled with the very low representation of women in the most senior management roles, this meant that we were unable to distinguish the effects of work–life practices on women's representation in lower, middle, and senior-level management. However, the WGEA has now introduced reporting instructions with standardized definitions of five managerial levels (Workplace Gender Equality Agency, WGEA, 2015); these resources will make it possible to conduct more nuanced analyses of the relationship between practices and women's advancement in the future.

Finally, our research suggested that work–life practices influence women in management by affecting decision-maker access to gender-based stereotypes. However, we did not measure those stereotypes directly. Researchers have used interviews (e.g., Lane & Piercy, 2003) and post-decision justifications (e.g., Luzadis, Wesolowski, & Snavely, 2008) to identify how strongly managers associate jobs with incumbent gender. Researchers have also coded the frequency with which gender and associated terms appear in

recruitment advertising (e.g., Gaucher, Friesen, & Kay, 2011). It would be interesting to use these methodologies to see if organizations with more work–life practices display more gender-typing in their formal documents (e.g., in recruitment advertisements or promotion criteria) or in managers' discourse (e.g., in their justification of hiring or promotion decisions).

Work–life practices are often promoted as a strategy for improving women's representation in management. Our study highlighted where and when we can expect work–life practices to be most effective in increasing women's representation in management. We found that work–life practices could positively influence the proportion of women in management, but only in organizations where the workforce gender composition makes gender stereotypes less salient and only after an eight-year lag. Our findings demonstrate the value of work–life practices in improving women's representation in management, but emphasize that the effect is not immediate and does not operate across all organizational contexts.

Acknowledgments

We thank Helen De Cieri, Jill Gould, Suzette Marciano, Isabel Metz, and Christina Shalley for their insights and support during the project's design, data analysis, and write-up. We also thank the guest editors, Madeline Heilman and Alice Eagly, and two anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments.

References

- Adkins, C. L., Samaras, S. A., Gilfillan, S. W., & McWee, W. E. (2013). The relationship between owner characteristics, company size, and the work–family culture and policies of women-owned businesses. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 51, 196–214. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/jbsm.12014>.
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Alicke, M. D., Zell, E., & Bloom, D. L. (2009). Mere categorization and the frog-pond effect. *Psychological Science*, 21, 174–177. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0956797609357718>.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (2012). 4102.0 – Australian Social Trends, Dec 2012, Women in leadership. Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@nsf/Lookup/4102.0Main+Features30Dec+2012>
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (2014). Labour force, Australia, detailed, quarterly (cat. no. 6291.0.55.003). Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@nsf/mf/6291.0.55.003>
- Bardoel, E. A., Moss, S. A., Smyrniotis, K., & Tharenou, P. (1999). Employee characteristics associated with the provision of work–family policies and programs. *International Journal of Manpower*, 20, 563–577. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437729910302741>.
- Beauregard, T. A., & Henry, L. C. (2009). Making the link between work–life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19, 9–22. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2008.09.001>.
- Birdi, K., Clegg, C., Patterson, M., Robinson, A., Stride, C. B., Wall, T. D., & Wood, S. J. (2008). The impact of human resource and operational management practices on company productivity: A longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology*, 61, 467–501. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2008.00136.x>.
- Bitá, N. (2013, October 25). Women's success a 'threat'. *The Advertiser*. Retrieved from <http://infoweb.newsbank.com/resources/doc/nb/news/149C9985D5475F58?p=AWNB>
- Blair-Loy, M., & Wharton, A. S. (2002). Employees' use of work–family policies and the workplace social context. *Social Forces*, 80, 813–845. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1353/sof.2002.0002>.
- Bornstein, S. (2013). The legal and policy implications of the “flexibility stigma”. *Journal of Social Issues*, 69, 389–405. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/josi.12020>.
- Bourhis, A., Mekkaoui, R., & Déom, E. (2010). Beyond work–family balance: Are family-friendly organizations more attractive? *Relations Industrielles*, 65, 98–117. <http://dx.doi.org/10.7202/039529ar>.
- Breugh, J. A., & Frye, N. K. (2008). Work–family conflict: The importance of family-friendly employment practices and family-supportive supervisors. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 22, 345–353. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10869-008-9081-1>.
- Brescoll, V. L., Glass, J., & Sedlovskaya, A. (2013). Ask and ye shall receive? The dynamics of employer-provided flexible work options and the need for public policy. *Journal of Social Issues*, 69, 367–388. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/josi.12019>.
- Butts, M. M., Casper, W. J., & Yang, T. S. (2013). How important are work–family support policies? A meta-analytic investigation of their effects on employee outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98, 1–25. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0030389>.
- Callan, S. (2007). Implications of family-friendly policies for organizational culture: Findings from two case studies. *Work, Employment & Society*, 21, 673–691. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0950017007082876>.
- Calvert Investments (2015). Examining the cracks in the ceiling: A survey of corporate diversity practices of the S&P 100. Retrieved from <http://www.calvert.com/perspective/women-and-investing/examining-the-cracks-in-the-ceiling-2015-diversity-supplement>
- Carter, D. A., D'Souza, F., Simkins, B. J., & Simpson, W. G. (2010). The gender and ethnic diversity of US boards and board committees and firm financial performance. *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, 18, 396–414. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8683.2010.00809.x>.
- Catalyst (2013a). 2013 Catalyst Census: Fortune 500 women board directors. *Catalyst Knowledge Center*. Retrieved from <http://www.catalyst.org/knowledge/2013-catalyst-census-fortune-500-women-board-directors>
- Catalyst (2013b). 2013 Catalyst Census: Fortune 500 women executive officers and top earners. *Catalyst Knowledge Center*. Retrieved from <http://www.catalyst.org/knowledge/2013-catalyst-census-fortune-500-women-executive-officers-and-top-earners>
- Catalyst (2014). Quick take: Australia, Canada, Israel, South Africa, and the United States. *Catalyst Knowledge Center*. Retrieved from <http://catalyst.org/knowledge/australia-canada-israel-south-africa-and-united-states>
- Chou, K. L., & Cheung, K. C. K. (2013). Family-friendly policies in the workplace and their effect on work–life conflicts in Hong Kong. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24, 3872–3885. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.781529>.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. New York: Routledge.
- Crisp, L. (2013, July 05). Flexibility key for climbing the ladder. *The Australian*. Retrieved from <http://www.theaustralian.com.au/business/legal-affairs/flexibility-key-for-climbing-the-ladder/story-e6frg97x-1226674506989>
- Cross, C., & Linehan, M. (2006). Barriers to advancing female careers in the high-tech sector: Empirical evidence from Ireland. *Women in Management Review*, 21, 28–39. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09649420610643394>.
- Department of Human Services (2015). Keeping in touch with your employee who is receiving parental leave pay. Retrieved from <http://www.humanservices.gov.au/business/services/centrelink/paid-parental-leave-scheme-for-employers/keeping-in-touch>
- Diversity Council Australia (2012). Get flexible or get real: It's time to make flexible working a legitimate career choice. Retrieved from <http://dca.org.au/News/News/Get-flexible-or-get-real%3A-It%E2%80%99s-time-to-make-flexible-working-a-legitimate-career-choice%245>
- Dobbin, F., Kim, S., & Kalev, A. (2011). You can't always get what you need: Organizational determinants of diversity programs. *American Sociological Review*, 76, 386–411. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0003122411409704>.
- Dreher, G. F. (2003). Breaking the glass ceiling: The effects of sex ratios and work–life programs on female leadership at the top. *Human Relations*, 56, 541–562. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0018726703056005002>.

- Drew, E., & Murtagh, E. M. (2005). Work/life balance: Senior management champions or laggards? *Women in Management Review*, 20, 262–278. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09649420510599089>.
- Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109, 573–598. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.109.3.573>.
- Edelman, L. B., & Petterson, S. M. (1999). Symbols and substance in organizational response to civil rights law. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, 17, 107–138.
- Edmond, C. (2014, January 14). Australia falling behind in work/life balance. *Human Capital*. Retrieved from <http://www.hcamag.com/hr-news/australia-falling-behind-in-worklife-balance-182968.aspx>
- Ellis, A. D., & Tsui, A. S. (2007). Survival of the fittest or the least fit? When psychology meets ecology in organizational demography. In C. Ostroff, & T. A. Judge (Eds.), *Perspectives on organizational fit* (pp. 287–315). New York: Psychology Press.
- Ely, R. J., Ibarra, H., & Kolb, D. M. (2011). Taking gender into account: Theory and design for women's leadership development programs. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10, 474–493. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/aml.2010.0046>.
- Ernst & Young (2011a). Women in leadership. What will it take to get Australia on target? Retrieved from <http://www.ey.com.au>
- Ernst & Young (2011b). Women in leadership: Engaging Australian business. Retrieved from <http://www.ey.com.au>
- European Commission (2013). National factsheet: Gender balance in boards. Country: United Kingdom. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/files/womenonboards/womenonboards-factsheet-uk_en.pdf
- Fair Work Ombudsman (2010). Flexibility in the workplace. Retrieved from <http://www.fairwork.gov.au/employee-entitlements/flexibility-in-the-workplace>
- Fairchild, C. (2014, June 03). Number of Fortune 500 women CEOs reaches historic high. *Fortune*. Retrieved from <http://fortune.com/2014/06/03/number-of-fortune-500-women-ceos-reaches-historic-high/>
- Francoeur, C., Labelle, R., & Sinclair-Desgagne, B. (2008). Gender diversity in corporate governance and top management. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81, 83–95. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-007-9482-5>.
- French, E. (2005). The importance of strategic change in achieving equity in diversity. *Strategic Change*, 14, 35–44. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jsc.708>.
- Gaucher, D., Friesen, J., & Kay, A. C. (2011). Evidence that gendered wording in job advertisements exists and sustains gender inequality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 101, 109–128. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0022530>.
- Glass, J. (2004). Blessing or curse? Work–family policies and mother's wage growth over time. *Work and Occupations*, 31, 367–394. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0730888404266364>.
- Glass, J. L., & Finley, A. (2002). Coverage and effectiveness of family-responsive workplace policies. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12, 313–337. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822\(02\)00063-3](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(02)00063-3).
- Gov.UK (2014, November 12). Flexible working. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/flexible-working>
- Grönlund, A. (2007). More control, less conflict? Job demand–control, gender, and work–family conflict. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 14, 476–497. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0432.2007.00361.x>.
- Harel, G., Tzafir, S., & Baruch, Y. (2003). Achieving organizational effectiveness through promotion of women into managerial positions: HRM practice focus. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14, 247–263. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0958519021000029108>.
- Hayes, A., & Matthes, J. (2009). Computational procedures for probing interactions in OLS and logistic regression: SPSS and SAS implementations. *Behavior Research Methods*, 41, 924–936. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.3.924>.
- Hegewisch, A. (2009). Flexible working policies: A comparable review. Retrieved from http://www.equalityhumanrights.com/sites/default/files/documents/research/16_flexibleworking.pdf
- Hegewisch, A., & Gornick, J. C. (2011). The impact of work–family policies on women's employment: A review of research from OECD countries. *Community, Work & Family*, 14, 119–138. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2011.571395>
- Heilman, M. E. (2001). Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57, 657–674. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00234>.
- Heilman, M. E. (2012). Gender stereotypes and workplace bias. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 32, 113–135. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2012.11.003>.
- Heilman, M. E., & Eagly, A. H. (2008). Gender stereotypes are alive, well, and busy producing workplace discrimination. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1, 393–398. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-9434.2008.00072.x>.
- Heilman, M. E., & Haynes, M. C. (2005). No credit where credit is due: Attributional rationalisation of women's success in male–female teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 905–916. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.905>.
- Hewlett, S. A. (2002). Executive women and the myth of having it all. *Harvard Business Review*, 80, 66–73. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2002/04/executive-women-and-the-myth-of-having-it-all>
- Heywood, J. S., & Jirjahn, U. (2009). Family-friendly practices and worker representation in Germany. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 48, 121–145. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-232X.2008.00548.x>.
- Huselid, M. A., & Becker, B. E. (1996). Methodological issues in cross-sectional and panel estimates of the human resource–firm performance link. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 35, 400–422. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-232X.1996.tb00413.x>.
- Ingram, P., & Simons, T. (1995). Institutional and resource dependence determinants of responsiveness to work–family issues. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 1466–1482. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256866>.
- Jansen, P. G. W., van der Velde, M. E. G., & Telting, I. A. (2001). The effectiveness of human resource practices on advancing men's and women's ranks. *Journal of Management Development*, 20, 318–331. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02621710110388974>.
- Kalev, A., Dobbin, F., & Kelly, E. (2006). Best practices or best guesses? Assessing the efficacy of corporate affirmative action and diversity policies. *American Sociological Review*, 71, 589–617. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/000312240607100404>.
- Kalokerinos, E. K., von Hippel, C., & Zacher, H. (2014). Is stereotype threat a useful construct for organizational psychology research and practice? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 7, 381–402. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/iops.12167>.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). Some effects of proportions on group life: Skewed sex ratios and responses to token women. *The American Journal of Sociology*, 82, 965–990. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/226425>.
- Konrad, A. M., & Yang, Y. (2012). Is using work–life interface benefits a career-limiting move? An examination of women, men, lone parents, and parents with partners. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33, 1095–1119. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.1782>.
- Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work–family conflict, policies, and the job-life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior–human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 139–149. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.2.139>.
- Kozlowski, K., & Klein, K. (2000). A multilevel approach to theory and research in organizations: Contextual, temporal, and emergent processes. In S. Kozlowski, & K. Klein (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research and methods in organizations* (pp. 3–90). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kulik, C. T., & Metz, I. M. (2015). Women at the top: Will more women in senior roles impact organizational outcomes? In S. Jackson, & M. Hitt (Eds.), *Oxford Research Reviews*. Oxford: Oxford University Press (available online at <http://www.oxfordhandbooks.com/view/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199935406.001.0001/oxfordhb-9780199935406-e-7>).
- Lane, N., & Piercy, N. F. (2003). The ethics of discrimination: Organizational mindsets and female employment disadvantage. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 44, 313–332. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1023644602447>.
- Leslie, L. M., Manchester, C. F., Park, T. -Y., & Mehng, S. A. (2012). Flexible work practices: A source of career premiums or penalties? *Academy of Management Journal*, 55, 1407–1428. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0651>.
- Lewison, J. (2006). The work/life balance sheet so far. *Journal of Accountancy*, 202, 45–49. Retrieved from <http://www.journalofaccountancy.com/issues/2006/aug/theworklifebalancesheetssofar.html>
- Luzadis, R., Wesolowski, M., & Snavely, B. K. (2008). Understanding criterion choice in hiring decisions from a prescriptive gender bias perspective. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 20, 468–484. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40604624>
- Lyness, K. S., & Heilman, M. E. (2006). When fit is fundamental: Performance evaluations and promotions of upper-level female and male managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 777–785. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.4.777>.

- Lyness, K. S., & Judiesch, M. K. (1999). Are women more likely to be hired or promoted into management positions? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54, 158–173. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1998.1646>.
- MacNamara, L. (2012, April 16). Returning mums' pay doubled. *The Australian*. Retrieved from <http://www.theaustralian.com.au/news/nation/returning-mums-pay-doubled/story-e6frg6nf-1226327244978>
- Maruyama, T., & Tietze, S. (2012). From anxiety to assurance: Concerns and outcomes of telework. *Personnel Review*, 41, 450–469. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00483481211229375>.
- McCann, K. (2014, December 13). Flexibility key to gender diversity in the workplace, an issue we cannot afford to ignore. *The Australian*. Retrieved from <http://www.theaustralian.com.au/business/opinion/flexibility-key-to-gender-diversity-in-the-workplace-an-issue-we-cannot-afford-to-ignore/story-e6frg9if-1227154428552>
- McDonald, P., Bradley, L., & Brown, K. (2008). Visibility in the workplace: Still an essential ingredient for career success? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19, 2198–2215. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585190802479447>.
- Mello, J. (2007). Managing telework programs effectively. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 19, 247–261. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10672-007-9051-1>.
- Metz, I. (2011). Women leave work because of family responsibilities: Fact or fiction? *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 49, 285–307. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1038411111413216>.
- Metz, I. M., & Kulik, C. T. (2014). The rocky climb: Women's advancement in management. In S. Kumra, R. Simpson, & R. Burke (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of gender in organizations* (pp. 197–199). Oxford: Oxford University Press. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199658213.013.008>.
- Muse, L., Harris, S. G., Giles, W. F., & Feild, H. S. (2008). Work–life benefits and positive organizational behavior: Is there a connection? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29, 171–192. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.506>.
- Nosek, B. A., Banaji, M., & Greenwald, A. G. (2002). Harvesting implicit group attitudes and beliefs from a demonstration web site. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 6, 101–115. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/1089-2699.6.1.101>.
- O'Brien, R. (2007). A caution regarding rules of thumb for variance inflation factors. *Quality & Quantity*, 41, 673–690. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11135-006-9018-6>.
- Olsen, J. E., Parsons, C. K., Martins, L. L., & Ivanaj, V. (2015). Gender diversity programs, perceived potential for advancement, and organizational attractiveness: An empirical examination of women in the United States and France. *Group & Organization Management*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1059601115583579>.
- Pazy, A., & Oron, I. (2001). Sex proportion and performance evaluation among high-ranking military officers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22, 689–702. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.109>.
- Perry, E. L., Davis-Blake, A., & Kulik, C. T. (1994). Explaining gender-based selection decisions: A synthesis of contextual and cognitive approaches. *The Academy of Management Review*, 19, 786–820. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1994.9412190219>.
- Poelmans, S. A. Y., Chinchilla, N., & Cardona, P. (2003). The adoption of family-friendly HRM policies: Competing for scarce resources in the labour market. *International Journal of Manpower*, 24, 128–147. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437720310475394>.
- Post, C., & Byron, K. (2015). Women on boards and firm financial performance: A meta-analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58, 1546–1571. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amj.2013.0319>.
- Post, C., DiTomaso, N., Lowe, S. R., Farris, G. F., & Cordero, R. (2009). A few good women. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24, 348–371. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02683940910952723>.
- Roberson, L., & Kulik, C. T. (2007). Stereotype threat at work. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21, 24–40. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMP.2007.25356510>.
- Rogier, S. A., & Padgett, M. Y. (2004). The impact of utilising a flexible work schedule on the perceived career advancement potential of women. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15, 89–106. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1089>.
- Schwartz, D. B. (1996). The impact of work–family policies on women's career development: Boon or bust? *Women in Management Review*, 11, 5–19. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09649429610109280>.
- SheSays (2014, April). Coca-Cola Amatil (NZ) Ltd – A case study [web blog post]. Retrieved from <http://blog.akywca.org.nz/coca-cola-amatil-nz-ltd-a-case-study>
- Shin, D., & Konrad, A. M. (2014). Causality between high-performance work systems and organizational performance. *Journal of Management*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206314544746>.
- Shrout, P. E., Fleiss, J. L., & Hernstein, R. J. (1979). Intraclass correlations: Uses in assessing rater reliability. *Psychological Bulletin*, 86, 420–428. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.86.2.420>.
- Smith, F. (2013). No work, no work: Male Champions of Change CEOs tell suppliers to advance women or lose orders. *Business Review Weekly*. Retrieved from http://www.brw.com.au/p/leadership/suppliers_women_advance_orders_male_SMogIhxyuDsDNjP0XDU3X0
- Steele, C. (1997). A threat in the air: How stereotypes shape intellectual identity and performance. *American Psychologist*, 52, 613–629. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.52.6.613>.
- Still, L. V. (2006). Where are the women in leadership in Australia? *Women in Management Review*, 21, 180–194. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09649420610657371>.
- Stone, P., & Hernandez, L. A. (2013). The all-or-nothing workplace: Flexibility stigma and “opting out” among professional-managerial women. *Journal of Social Issues*, 69, 235–256. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/josi.12013>.
- Straub, C. (2007). A comparative analysis of the use of work–life balance practices in Europe: Do practices enhance females' career advancement? *Women in Management Review*, 22, 289–304. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09649420710754246>.
- Taneja, S., Pryor, M. G., & Oyler, J. (2012). Empowerment and gender equality: The retention and promotion of women in the workforce. *Journal of Business Diversity*, 12, 43–53. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/131515301?accountid=14649>
- Thompson, C. A., Andreassi, J. K., & Protts, D. J. (2005). Work–family culture: Key to reducing workforce – workplace mismatch. In S. M. Bianchi, L. M. Casper, & R. B. King (Eds.), *Work, family, health, and well-being* (pp. 117–132). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Vandello, J. A., Hettinger, V. E., Bosson, J. K., & Siddiqi, J. (2013). When equal isn't really equal: The masculine dilemma of seeking work flexibility. *Journal of Social Issues*, 69, 303–321. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/josi.12016>.
- van Veldhoven, M. J. P. M., & Beijer, S. E. (2012). Workload, work-to-family conflict, and health: Gender differences and the influence of private life context. *Journal of Social Issues*, 68, 665–683. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.2012.01770.x>.
- Vigeo (2014). Discrimination and diversity on International Women's Day 2014. Retrieved from <http://www.vigeo.com/csr-rating-agency/en/sf-discrimination-diversity-pub-032014>
- Villablanca, A., Beckett, L., Nettiksimmons, J., & Howell, L. (2011). Career flexibility and family-friendly policies: An NIH-funded study to enhance women's careers in biomedical sciences. *Journal of Women's Health*, 20, 1485–1496. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1089/jwh.2011.2737>.
- Wang, P., Lawler, J. J., & Shi, K. (2011). Implementing family-friendly employment practices in banking industry: Evidences from some African and Asian countries. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 84, 493–517. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/096317910X525363>.
- Williams, J. C. (2000). *Unbending gender: Why family and work conflict and what to do about it*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Wirth, L. (2001). *Breaking through the glass ceiling: Women in management*. Geneva: Publications Bureau, International Labour Office.
- Wise, S., & Bond, S. (2003). Work–life policy: Does it do exactly what it says on the tin? *Women in Management Review*, 18, 20–31. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09649420310462307>.
- Wood, S. J., & de Menezes, L. M. (2010). Family-friendly management, organizational performance and social legitimacy. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21, 1575–1597. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2010.500484>.
- Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA) (2012). New law drives gender equality at work. Retrieved from <http://www.wgea.gov.au/content/new-law-drives-gender-equality-work>
- Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA) (2014). *Gender workplace statistics at a glance*. Workplace Gender Equality Agency. Retrieved from https://www.wgea.gov.au/sites/default/files/2014-02-10-Stats_at_a_Glance.pdf
- Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA) (2015). Indicative format: Workplace profile and reporting questionnaire. Retrieved from https://www.wgea.gov.au/sites/default/files/Indicative_format_WP_and_RQ-14-15.pdf
- World Economic Forum (2013). *The global gender gap report, 2013*. Retrieved from <http://www.weforum.org/reports/global-gender-gap-report-2013>

- Wright, P. M., Dunford, B. B., & Snell, S. A. (2001). Human resources and the resource based view of the firm. *Journal of Management*, 27, 701–721. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(01\)00120-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(01)00120-9).
- Wright, S., & Sheridan, A. (1998). Making the rhetoric a reality: Sydney Water's experience with work and family policies. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 36, 88–102. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/103841119803600208>.
- Yang, Y., & Konrad, A. M. (2011). Understanding diversity management practices: Implications of institutional theory and resource-based theory. *Group & Organization Management*, 36, 6–38. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1059601110390997>.
- Zenger, J. (2012, 17 December). We wait too long to train our leaders. *Harvard Business Review Blog Network*. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2012/12/why-do-we-wait-so-long-to-train>