

INTERACTION OF SOCIAL SUPPORT AND CORE SELF-EVALUATIONS ON WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND BURNOUT

by
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ABSTRACT

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Previous research has established that supportive work and family environments are critical in helping employees manage stressors that lead to work-family conflict. However, little is known about alternate ways that work-family conflict can be reduced in situations where support is insufficient. Drawing on Conservation of Resources theory, this study examines whether individual differences in personality, specifically core self-evaluations (CSE), can relieve work-family conflict when external sources of support (i.e., family-supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP), supervisor support, family support) are low. Results from 453 men and women in various industries and organizations suggest that FSOP and supervisor support reduce work-to-family conflict (WFC), and that family support reduces family-to-work conflict (FWC). In addition, work-family conflict mediated the negative relationships between social support and employee burnout. Contrary to predictions, however, instead of compensating for low FSOP, WFC was reduced especially for individuals, particularly men, who had both strong FSOP and high CSE. This implies that men who hold more positive views toward their self-worth and competence stand to gain more from family-supportive work environments than individuals who lack the same internal resources. CSE did not have this boosting influence for women. CSE also moderated the indirect relationship between FSOP and burnout through WFC, meaning that individuals with high CSE who also

perceived their organization as family-supportive experienced significantly less burnout than those with low CSE.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The composition of the labor force has changed dramatically in the last century, with noticeably more women with children in the paid labor force today than in the past. In 2008, 63.6% of women with children under the age of 6 were working, compared to less than 40% in 1975 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). Economic changes have required the majority of American families to have two incomes, and dual-earning families have become the norm (Meurs, Breaux, & Perrewé, 2008). In addition to the heavy demands of childcare, approximately half the labor force assumes responsibilities of elder care assistance (Matos & Galinsky, 2014). Consequently, workers are struggling to meet their expectations both at home and at work, with about 90% of employees attempting to manage the demanding responsibilities of their dual roles (Burke, 2007). In many cases, employees have no choice but to interrupt their career goals or leave the workforce altogether in order to satisfy competing role expectations (Karatepe & Azar, 2013). This narrows the options available for individuals to fulfill their career and life goals and leaves the workforce void of potential talent (Hewlett & Luce, 2005).

It is becoming more widely recognized that a large portion of the labor market cannot meet the expectations of being available full-time, all the time. In an effort to attract and retain talented individuals, many employers are adopting strategies to improve employees' work-family balance, such as flexible work and dependent care options (Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997; Rau & Hyland, 2002). These policies have many positive outcomes for employees and organizations, alike, such as reducing stress (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), turnover intentions (Grover & Crooker, 1995), and burnout (Johnson, 1995), and increasing job satisfaction (Baltes et al., 1999) and productivity (Ali et al.,

2014). However, despite the apparent appeal of work-family policies, research has yielded inconsistent results regarding their effects on work outcomes, such as performance (Campbell & Pritchard, 1973; Hill, Miller, Weiner, & Colihan, 1998; Judiesch & Lyness, 1999; Kossek & Nichol, 1992), absenteeism (Baltes et al., 1999; Giardini & Kabst, 2015; Kossek & Nichol, 1992), and affective commitment (Allen, 2001; Grover & Crocker, 1995). These variations in work-family policy outcomes may be explained by two factors: 1) the supportiveness of one's work and family environments, and 2) individual personality traits.

Supportiveness of one's work and home environments may play a critical role in the work-family interface. It has been suggested that simply offering work-family policies alone is not enough (Lobel & Kossek, 1996), but rather, employees must feel that they are emotionally, as well as instrumentally, supported in both their work and family lives to achieve work-family balance (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). For instance, Allen (2001) revealed that the availability of family-supportive benefits is a very small predictor of job attitudes compared to other forms of support, such as managerial and spousal support. Thus, social support from both work (e.g. organization, supervisor) and from home (e.g. family, spouse) are important elements in reducing work-family conflict.

Furthermore, inconsistencies in the work-family literature may be explained by individual differences (Shockley & Allen, 2009). Indeed, a meta-analysis by Michel and Clark (2012) revealed that individual differences accounted for up to 25 to 28% of the variance in reports of work-family conflict. Research shows that certain dispositional traits, such as neuroticism (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Rantanen, Pulkkinen, & Kinnunen,

2005; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004), locus of control (Allen et al., 2012; Michel et al., 2011; Noor, 2002), self-esteem (Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991; Grandey & Cropanzano), and self-efficacy (Allen et al., 2012; Cinamon, 2006), are related to experiences of work-family conflict. In recent years, researchers have begun testing a more comprehensive, single-dimension personality measure, known as core self-evaluations (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997), in relation to work-family issues, and have found that high core self-evaluation (CSE) scores are related to lower work-family conflict and strain (Boyar, Mosley, & Mosley, 2007; Haines, Harvey, Durand, & Marchand, 2013; Michel & Clark, 2012). However despite these findings, much more work is needed to fully understand the role of individual differences in the work-family interface (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002).

The influence of social support and individual differences in the experience of work-family conflict can be conceptualized using Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, which proposes that individuals are motivated to acquire and maintain resources that help them manage stressful circumstances. In the COR framework, a supportive work and family environment (Allen, 2001; Carlson & Perrewé, 1999) and the presence of certain dispositional traits (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999) can be important resources that protect individuals from the stress and related strains of work-family conflict. Thus, this study proposed that the interaction between core self-evaluations and social support would provide individuals with protective resources that alleviate experiences of work-family conflict and its subsequent strain outcomes. Specifically, we predicted that if an individual lacks supportive resources at home or at work, high core self-evaluations could help compensate and reduce experiences of work-

family conflict. A review of work-family conflict research is provided below, followed by a more thorough explication of COR as the theoretical foundation for this thesis.

Work-Family Conflict

According to Katz and Kahn's model of role theory (1978), individuals who attempt to enact multiple roles may experience conflicting expectations and time demands. This leads to an increase in psychological distress. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) refer to the competing demands of work and family as work-family conflict, which they define as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect." (p. 77). Work-family conflict can take shape in three different forms: time-based (multiple roles competing for an individual's time), strain-based (strain in one role affects performance in another role), and behavior-based (unable to adjust behavior to each role).

In addition to the different forms of work-family conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) propositioned that work-family conflict arises from simultaneous pressures from both roles. That is, it cannot be conceptualized as coming from only the work or the family domain. Frone, Russel, and Cooper (1992) examined the bi-directionality of work-family conflict, and determined that it occurs in two directions: work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW). This research was supported by the work of Netermeyer, McMurrian, and Boles (1996), who validated a bi-directional measure of work-family conflict that included work-to-family conflict (WFC) and family-to-work conflict (FWC). WFC occurs when "participation in the family role is made more difficult by participation in the work role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p.

77), whereas FWC occurs when the demands of the family role interfere with performing work-related responsibilities (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Antecedents and Outcomes

Although WFC and FWC are correlated to a certain extent (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997), each has its own distinct set of antecedents and outcomes. Antecedents of WFC arise from the work domain, and the converse is true for FWC such that its antecedents arise from the family domain. For instance, family characteristics (e.g. number of children, marital status) are important antecedents of FWC that lead to family-related consequences (e.g. family distress, marital dissatisfaction), whereas work-related characteristics (e.g. hours worked, schedule flexibility) are more likely to predict WFC and its subsequent work-related consequences (e.g. job distress, intentions to quit; Frone et al., 1992; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Byron, 2005). In many ways, the antecedents of WFC and FWC mirror each other. For instance, WFC arises when there is conflict, ambiguity, or overload in one's work role, while FWC arises when the conflict, ambiguity, or overload stems from one's family role (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Michel, Mitchelson, Pichler, & Cullen, 2010). Similarly, social support plays an important role in both WFC and FWC. However, social support from one's work domain (e.g. supervisor support, coworker support, organizational support) primarily helps reduce WFC, whereas support from home (e.g. family support, spousal support) mostly reduces FWC (Michel et al., 2011).

Work-family conflict has consistently shown to have damaging consequences for individuals, families, and organizations. Allen, Herst, Bruck, and Sutton (2000) characterized the outcomes of work-family conflict as either work-related (e.g. intention

to turnover), non-work related (e.g. family satisfaction), or stress-related (e.g. burnout). A recent meta-analysis by Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering and Semmer (2011) examined the outcomes of both WFC and FWC. Similar to Allen et al. (2000), the authors categorized three general outcomes: work-related (e.g. work satisfaction, work-related strain), family-related (e.g. marital satisfaction, family-related strain), and domain unspecific (e.g. life satisfaction, psychological strain). Crossover effects were observed, such that WFC was associated with family-related outcomes and FWC was associated with work-related outcomes, and both WFC and FWC were associated with domain unspecific outcomes. However, WFC was the strongest predictor of work outcomes, and FWC was most strongly related to family outcomes. Other meta-analyses have also examined outcomes of WFC and FWC, and confirmed similar cross-domain and same-domain outcomes between the work and family arenas (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005).

Reducing Work-Family Conflict

Given the wide range of potentially harmful consequences associated with work-family conflict, it is important to understand the factors that reduce it. In recent decades, researchers have focused heavily on environmental and support characteristics that protect individuals from work-family conflict. For instance, work-family culture, or the "shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives" (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999, p. 394), has emerged as an environmental support variable that may reduce work-family conflict. Likewise, Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that work supportive variables, such as supervisor support and schedule flexibility, were negatively related to work-family conflict and its subsequent health problems. Indeed,

social support from both work and family domains have been recognized as negative predictors of WFC and FWC, respectively (Michel et al., 2010).

Although the work-family literature has extensively examined characteristics of the organizational environment as predictors of work-family conflict (Allen, 2001), much more research is needed to understand how individual differences impact experiences of conflict and strain (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Importantly, it has been observed that personality traits can protect individuals from work-family conflict. For instance, a meta-analysis by Allen et al. (2012) revealed that while certain negative traits (neuroticism and negative affectivity) increase individuals' vulnerability to WFC and FWC, other positive traits (self-efficacy and positive affectivity) serve as protective resources against experiences of conflict. This indicates that some individuals are inherently better equipped at avoiding work-family conflict than others. Thus, it would be valuable to understand the ways in which individual differences can serve to mitigate experiences of work-family conflict when the environment is unsupportive.

Theoretical Framework

Although work-family conflict is traditionally described using the principles of role theory (Katz & Khan 1978), noteworthy researchers (e.g. Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999) have applied work-family conflict to a more general stress model using Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989). Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) argue for the appropriateness of COR in work-family research on several grounds. First, the majority of work-family literature fails to apply a detailed theoretical framework, but rather merely attempts to conceptualize the source of conflict using Role Theory. COR, on the other hand, is a more general model that encompasses several stress

theories, and thus may provide a more appropriate framework for work-family studies, particularly when stressors and strain are of interest. Second, COR provides a proper framework to examine both WFC and FWC, which are essential to understanding work-family conflict. And finally, COR allows more room to specify moderating variables that might buffer work and family stressors and strain outcomes than what is offered by Role Theory.

According to COR Theory, individuals are motivated to find, maintain, build, and protect resources that can be used to manage all areas of life (Hobfoll, 1989). Resources may be in the form of objects, conditions (e.g. marital status), personal characteristics (e.g. self-esteem), or energies (e.g. time). The latter three are most applicable to work-family research. Resources can be powerful assets to use when challenges or stressors emerge in the environment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). However, when resources are threatened or lost, stress and its ensuing strain outcomes (e.g. dissatisfaction, depression, anxiety) may arise. Similar to COR are the principles of the *resource drain* and *resource scarcity* hypotheses (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), which suggest that individuals possess a fixed amount of resources, and that expending resources in one role drains the amount of resources available in another role. However, employees may be able to avoid the negative strain outcomes of resource drain if they have an adequate stock of resources that can be tapped in to (Zellars, Perrewé, Hochwarter, & Anderson, 2006).

Lapierre and Allen (2006) conceptualize work-family conflict as "a condition in which one role drains the resources (e.g., time and energy) that people need to fully participate in and be successful in the other role" (p. 170). Work-family conflict leads to stress because resources are lost or threatened in the process of managing multiple roles

(Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Under the circumstances of resource scarcity theory (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), individuals inevitably experience an imbalance in their work and family lives because a greater devotion of resources to one role leaves a lesser amount of resources that can be expended in another role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). By offering support for work-family balance, organizations may reduce employees' perceived resource loss (Clark, Rudolph, Zhdanova, Michel, & Baltes, 2015).

Furthermore, individuals may be able to use social support (Allen, 2001; Clark et al., 2015) as well as their own dispositional resources (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Kammayer-Mueller, Judge, & Scott, 2009) to cope with the stress of balancing work and family roles. Hobfoll (1989) suggested that certain personal resources enhance general resistance to stress, which can be expected to affect WFC and FWC (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Similarly, *differential exposure* and *differential reactivity* (Bolger and Zuckerman, 1995) may explain why stressors are more likely to negatively affect individuals with fewer personal resources. Differential exposure suggests that individual differences are predictive of the way in which stressors are perceived and interpreted. For example, individuals with high neuroticism and low self-esteem are more likely to perceive that their resources are being threatened, and thus may overestimate the severity of a stressor (Kammayer-Mueller et al., 2009). Differential reactivity refers to experiences of strain as a result of a perceived stressor. Again, highly neurotic individuals with poor self-esteem are more likely to report work-family conflict (i.e. differential exposure to a stressor) and have a higher likelihood of burnout (i.e. different reactivity to a strain; Haines et al., 2013). However, possessing valuable personal resources, such as

positive dispositional traits and social support, may influence the way in which individuals are exposed to and react to potentially stressful situations (Hobfoll, 1989).

Individual Differences as Resources

Individual experiences of stressful events may be largely predicted by one's orientation to the world such that those who feel in control of their surroundings are likely to have better coping skills. This means that some individuals are better at minimizing their losses than others. Indeed, Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) used COR theory to explain the role of self-esteem in mitigating the effects of work-family stressors. High self-esteem, they suggest, provides individuals with a "reserve of self-worth and confidence" (p. 352) that they can draw from when problematic situations arise. Thus, some individuals are less likely to perceive their resources as being threatened because they are confident in their ability to cope with stressors. Similarly, Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, and Scott (2009) tested the role of core self-evaluations (CSE) in the coping process. Core self-evaluations, which will be discussed in more detail later, represent an individual's fundamental assessment of his or her self-worth and competence, and are measured by self-esteem, self-efficacy, neuroticism, and perceived control over one's environment (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002). Results indicated that individuals with high CSE utilized more effective coping methods in response to stressors and experienced less strain outcomes.

Positive resources, such as high self-esteem (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999), self-efficacy (Allen et al., 2012), and perceived control (Allen et al., 2012; Michel et al., 2011), can protect individuals from the damaging effects of perceived or actual resource loss. Individuals who possess these positive resources are confident in their abilities to

manage and cope with resource loss, and thereby experience less stress when problematic situations arise (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2009). However, negative traits, such as neuroticism, may enhance the degree to which individuals perceive threats to their resources, thus increasing their risk for stress and strain. This is because highly neurotic individuals are inherently anxious, self-doubting, and prone to stress (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Therefore, work-family conflict may exacerbate the perceived threats to time and energy resources for individuals high in neuroticism, which consequently leads to a greater stress reaction. This is evidenced by research from Allen and colleagues (2012), who found that neuroticism and negative affectivity made individuals more vulnerable to work-family conflict. In addition to increasing perceived work-family conflict, individuals who are high in neuroticism may have difficulty recovering from resource losses. Resource loss is stressful and can heighten pre-existing anxieties that highly neurotic individuals are already exposed to (Hobfoll, Freedy, Green, & Solomon, 1996). Thus, individuals who initially lack resources are not only vulnerable to resource loss, but are also at risk of a loss spiral when an initial loss occurs, such that one loss unlocks a chain reaction driven by stress and anxiety (Hobfoll, 2001). Lastly, due to high levels of hostility characterized by neuroticism, these individuals may struggle to form strong social relationships, and therefore may have difficulty acquiring and maintaining other important resources, such as social support (Omwaro, 2014). Indeed, Sarason, Levine, Basham, & Sarason (1983) reported a negative correlation between social support and neuroticism.

Social Support as Resources

Social support can be a valuable resource when stressors arise. According to COR, social support received in one domain (e.g. work) should lead to a reduction in time, attention, and energy needed to perform a role in another domain (e.g. family). For instance, having a spouse who shares the responsibilities of child rearing and is supportive of work-family balance may free up energy resources that can be applied to responsibilities in one's work role. Likewise, emotional sustenance from others is often critical in promoting a positive view of oneself, which gives individuals confidence in managing stressful situations (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Allen (2001) applied this theory to the work-family domain, and found that a family-supportive work environment can act as a coping resource for individuals with competing demands between their work and family lives. Other researchers (e.g. Clark et al., 2015; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007) who have since applied a COR framework to social support and work-family conflict reported similar results.

Social support has been well supported in other stressor-strain models (e.g., Fisher, 1985; Schaubroeck, Cotton, & Jennings, 1989) as an important resource in alleviating the effects of stress. In fact, a meta-analysis conducted by Viswesvaran, Sanchez, and Fisher (1999) on work stress and social support models indicated that social support played a role at each stage of the stress process; specifically, it was found to alleviate perceived stressors, to reduce the strains experienced, and to moderate the stressor-strain relationship. Given the suggestions that social support may influence the ways in which individuals perceive and respond to stressors, it is reasonable to assume that individuals are less likely to react negatively to a potential stressful event when they

are in an environment that supports work-family balance. For instance, an employee may be less concerned about the increased time expectations of a new position when she knows that her family is supportive of her career demands. Indeed, Carlson and Perrewé (1999) found that individuals with supportive networks at work and at home reported less work-family conflict, and consequently were less likely to perceive competing role demands as potential stressors. Thus, social support and various individual differences can serve as valuable resources that influence the ways employees perceive and respond to work-family conflict.

Social Support as a Predictor of Work-Family Conflict

Work-family researchers have devoted considerable attention to the situational and environmental variables that may suppress WFC and FWC (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). It is now widely recognized that work-family policies and programs will do little to alleviate work-family conflict when the culture or environment of an organization is perceived as unsupportive (Allen, 2001; McDonald, 2007; Thompson et al., 1999). Coinciding with this research, stress models have identified social support as an important resource used to cope with work-family conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Michel et al., 2010; Thomas & Ganster, 1999).

Social support refers to any type of instrumental aid, emotional concern, informational support, or appraisal functions that are intended to enhance the wellbeing of the recipient (House, 1981). Most research regarding social support in the work and family domains comes in the form of emotional concern or instrumental assistance (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Instrumental assistance is a direct form of support that allows the recipient to reserve time, money, or energy for

responsibilities in a different domain. This may involve a family member helping with chores or assisting with childcare in efforts to reduce FWC. Alternatively, organizations can provide instrumental support, such as flexible scheduling or onsite daycare, that serve to reduce WFC. A more indirect form of support can be provided through emotional sustenance. Individuals can find sources for emotional support either from family and friends at home or from colleagues and supervisors at work. Emotional support appears to significantly reduce both directions of work-family conflict, however instrumental support may be only effective in reducing FWC (Adams et al., 1996). This suggests once again that adequate organizational support should go beyond simply offering work-family policies without providing emotional sustenance.

Additionally, different sources of support have differential effects on variables related to work-family conflict (LaRocco, House, & French, 1980). Most typically, support from work (e.g. from coworkers, supervisors, and organization) is related to work-related outcomes, and non-work social support (e.g. from family, friends, and spouse) translates to family-related outcomes. For example, Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose (1992) found that support from work affected job satisfaction, and that spousal support impacted family and life satisfaction in dual-career couples. However, there is also a degree of overlap between the influence of social support in work and family domains, such that support in one domain (e.g. work) may enhance wellbeing in another domain (e.g. family). For instance, Galinsky (1994) found that unsupportive work environments contribute to negative family consequences. Similarly, meta-analytic results reveal that non-work social support is slightly related to WFC, and work-related social support is slightly related to FWC (Michel et al., 2011).

Supportive Work Environments

Work environments can provide emotional and instrumental support to employees that signal that their life outside of work is valued. Family-supportive work environments are associated with reduced WFC, affective commitment, and job dissatisfaction (Allen, 2001). Furthermore, working in a supportive environment can engender positive feelings that may carry over to other domains and enhance functioning in the family role (Wayne et al., 2007). Employees may find social support in their organization through organizational support and supervisor support. Unsupportive work environments, on the other hand, can create a backlash that discourages employees from utilizing work-family policies, making them more prone to WFC. For instance, employees who use work-family policies may experience resentment from their coworkers (Kirby & Krone, 2002; Parker & Allen, 2001), while managers may see subordinates as less committed to work when it is prioritized after family demands (Rapoport & Bailyn, 1996). Further, efforts to improve work-family balance may be in conflict with organizational norms about successful employee qualities, such as willingness to work long hours to meet organizational goals (McDonald, Brown, & Bailey, 2005; Thompson et al., 1999). Thus, the family-friendly supportiveness of one's work environment is crucial to reducing experiences of work-family conflict.

Supportive work environments may be fostered through perceptions that the organization as a whole is family-supportive, and the presence of supervisors who support employee efforts to achieve work-life balance.

Family-supportive organizational perceptions. Organizational support has been recognized as a critical factor in employees' abilities to balance work and family

responsibilities (Allen, 2001; Behson, 2002). Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to "a general belief that one's work organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p. 68). High POS is associated with increased trust and productivity, and reduced withdrawal behaviors (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Allen (2001) defined family-supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP) as the global perception that an organization as a whole is family supportive. Results from 522 participants in various jobs and industries show that FSOP contributes to work-family conflict, affective commitment, and job satisfaction. Furthermore, FSOP mediated the relations between family-supportive benefit availability and positive employee outcomes, which implies that offering work-family policies contributes to global perceptions about the family-supportiveness of an organization. Research also indicates that family-friendly organizational support factors are negatively related to turnover intentions (Clark et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 1999).

Supervisor support. Unlike organizational support, which refers to the family-supportiveness of an organization as a whole, supervisor support reflects the extent to which supervisors themselves are supportive and sensitive to employees' family responsibilities (Thompson et al., 1999). It is important to make this distinction because even in "family-friendly" organizations that actively promote work-life balance, supervisors can convey to employees that devoting time away from work to attend to family demands will have negative consequences for the employee and organization as a whole (Rapoport & Bailyn, 1996). Supervisor support for work-family balance has been well supported in the literature as it negatively relates to work-family conflict (Frone et al. 1997; Frye & Breugh, 2004; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Michel et al., 2011).

Furthermore, it has shown to be directly and indirectly related to job satisfaction (Allen, 2001; Anderson, Coffey, and Byerly, 2002; Frye & Breugh, 2004), intentions to leave the organization (Allen, 2001; Anderson et al., 2002), and employee wellbeing (Frone et al., 1997; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Research by Behson (2002) suggests that informal managerial work-family support is more effective in explaining attitudinal and behavioral outcomes than formal support methods, such as work-family benefit availability. Similarly, Lapierre et al. (2006) found that supervisor support was more predictive of work-family conflict and wellbeing than the use of flexible benefits. Thus, supervisor support for work-life balance is generally more effective than benefit availability alone.

Supportive Home Environments

Non-work support from family members and relatives can provide individuals with valuable emotional and instrumental support that can reduce FWC (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Michel and colleagues (2010) found that support from spouses, family, and friends had a strong direct relationship to family satisfaction, as well as an indirect relationship via work-family conflict. A subsequent meta-analysis identified family support and spousal support as significant contributors to FWC (Michel et al., 2011).

Family support. Social support from family has long been recognized as a predictor of wellbeing (Ganster, Fusilier, & Mayes, 1986). Work-family researchers have examined the positive benefits associated with family support, and regard it as a valuable resource used to alleviate work-family conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Michel et al., 2010). Studies that include the bi-directionality of work-family conflict indicate that family support is negatively related to FWC (Adams et al., 1996; Frone et al., 1997;

Michel et al., 2011) and may additionally carry over into the work domain by reducing WFC (Michel et al., 2011). Support from family members may be either emotional or instrumental (King et al., 1995), however, research suggests that instrumental support from family (e.g. helping with chores) may be better than emotional support at reducing FWC (Adams et al., 1996; LaPierre et al., 2006).

Supportive work and family environments have been well supported in the literature as they relate to work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Frone et al., 1997; Michel et al., 2010; Michel et al., 2011; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999; van Daalen et al., 2006). Although support in one domain has shown to correlate with aspects in another domain (Frone et al., 1997; Wayne et al., 2007), research suggests that work support contributes mostly to WFC, and non-work support primarily relates to FWC (Michel et al., 2011). Researchers have tested competing models of social support and determined that it is best understood as an antecedent to work-family conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Michel et al., 2010). This suggests that individuals with strong social support networks are less likely to perceive work-family conflict as stressful because they know they have access to emotional and instrumental assistance when needed. Indeed, longitudinal research supports a causal link between social support and conflict, such that unsupportive environments increase likelihood of work-family conflict (Eng, Moore, Grunberg, Greenberg, & Sikora, 2010; Thompson, Jahn, Kopelman, & Prottas, 2004). Thus, we suggest that work support from organizations and supervisors will reduce experiences of WFC, whereas non-work support from family members will reduce experiences of FWC (see Figure 1 for a representation of all following hypotheses).

Hypothesis 1: Social support will negatively predict work-family conflict, such that:

- a. Supervisor support will be negatively related to WFC.
- b. FSOP will be negatively related to WFC.
- c. Family support will be negatively related to FWC.

Core Self-Evaluations as a Moderator

Although social support and other environmental factors have been well documented in the work-family literature, research on the role of individual differences is lacking (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). For instance, in a twenty-year content analysis of work-family literature, only 4.7% of studies examined individual differences (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2000). This is particularly troublesome when considering the potential influence that personal characteristics can have on outcomes. For instance, meta-analytic results revealed that individual differences (primarily neuroticism and negative affectivity) accounted for up to a quarter of the variance in work-family conflict (Michel & Clark, 2012). Thus, the work-family literature could benefit from research exploring individual difference variables in conjunction with social support (Allen, 2001). Despite these overarching gaps in the literature, studies have supported the link between work-family issues and certain personality traits, including neuroticism, locus of control, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. We begin now by giving an overview of these three traits, and then discussing how they feed into individuals' fundamental evaluations of themselves, otherwise known as core self-evaluations (Judge et al., 2002).

Individual Differences in the Work-Family Literature

Neuroticism. Personality research often draws on the 'Big 5' personality characteristics: Neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Although some research indicates that conscientiousness (Omwaro, 2014; Witt & Carlson, 2006), openness to experience (Omwaro, 2014), and extraversion (Gryzwacz & Marks, 2000) may be slightly related to work-family conflict, neuroticism has consistently emerged as the strongest predictor of FWC and WFC. For instance, a longitudinal study by Rantanen et al. (2005) revealed that out of the Big 5 traits, neuroticism had the largest impact on WFC and FWC across gender. Neuroticism is characterized by anxiety, hostility, self-consciousness, depression, vulnerability to stress, and impulsiveness (Costa & McCrae, 1992). It is a highly pervasive trait across personality measures because it involves undesired emotional states which illicit negative attitudes and behaviors that can be damaging to wellbeing. For instance, individuals high in neuroticism are more likely to perceive events as threatening, thus heightening their stress responses and inability to cope effectively (Rantanen et al., 2005). Considering the turbulent and stress-inducing characteristics associated with neuroticism, it comes as no surprise that this personality trait has been linked to increased risk of WFC and FWC (Allen et al., 2012; Michel et al., 2011; Michel & Clark, 2012; Rantanen et al., 2005; Wayne et al., 2004).

Locus of control. Perceived control has also been identified as an important individual difference variable in the work-family literature. Locus of control (LOC) refers to the ways in which individuals perceive events as being caused either by the self (internal) or by chance (external; Rotter, 1966). Internal LOC can be an antecedent for

stress and has been linked directly to work-family conflict, such that individuals who perceive that they have control over their environment use more effective coping strategies when balancing their work and family demands, and consequently experience less work-family conflict than individuals who perceive that circumstances are beyond their control (Noor, 2002). Meta-analyses confirm a moderate negative relationship between internal LOC and both directions of work-family conflict (Allen et al., 2012; Michel et al., 2011), and it has been suggested to function as a protective factor against WFC (Allen et al., 2012).

Self-esteem. Self-esteem may also serve as a valuable resource in mitigating work-family conflict by predisposing individuals to positive views of their self-worth and abilities. Self-esteem has been observed in work stress models as a moderator between job stressors and job satisfaction, such that individuals with low self-esteem are more reactive than their high self-esteem counterparts and more susceptible to adverse role stress conditions. (Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, & Cummings, 1993). Self-esteem has also been linked to work-family conflict and strain outcomes. For instance, Ganster and Schaubroeck (1991) reported that firefighters with low self-esteem generally experienced more stress-related health outcomes in response to inter-role conflict than those with high self-esteem. Furthermore, Grandey et al. (1999) found that self-esteem was negatively related to WFC and job distress, and Allen et al.'s (2012) meta-analysis suggests that self-esteem protects individuals from WFC and FWC.

Self-efficacy. Allen et al. (2012) also identified self-efficacy, a trait similar to self-esteem that is characterized by belief in one's ability to complete tasks, as a protective trait-based variable that reduces experiences of work-family conflict. Self-

efficacy is negatively correlated to both WFC and FWC, regardless of gender differences and family responsibilities. The negative correlation between self-efficacy and both directions of work-family conflict is consistent across gender (Cinamon, 2006).

Core Self-Evaluations

Neuroticism, locus of control, self-esteem, and self-efficacy are highly correlated, so much so that they have been encompassed into a single personality measure known as core self-evaluations (Judge et al., 2002). Core self-evaluations (CSE) reflect the "fundamental bottom-line evaluations that people make of themselves" (Judge, 2009, p. 58), and are composed of the aggregate scores for emotional stability (i.e. inverse of neuroticism), locus of control, generalized self-efficacy, and self-esteem. Thus, CSE scores reflect individuals' assessments of their own worthiness, competence, and capabilities (Karatepe & Azar, 2013).

CSE has been recognized as an important variable in the stressor-strain relationship. For instance, Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) suggest that CSE determines the way that people respond to stressors, such that high CSE individuals who are faced with stressors develop more effective coping mechanisms and experience less strain than those with low CSE. Correspondingly, CSE has been argued to be an important coping resource in response to social stressors (Harris et al., 2009). Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2009) also found that CSE was important in the stressor-reaction and coping process. In addition, they suggest that high CSE individuals are less likely to perceive potential stressors as threats. Applying COR theory, high CSE individuals view their environment more positively (Bono & Judge, 2003) and are more confident in their abilities to manage problematic situations that may threaten their resources than low CSE individuals (Harris

et al., 2009). Thus high CSE individuals are predisposed to personal resources that can enhance their general resistance to stress (Hobfoll, 1989).

CSE has been directly related to a host of positive outcomes, such as job and life satisfaction (Bono & Judge, 2003) and reduced stress-related burnout (Best, Stapleton, & Downey, 2005). Furthermore, a meta-analytic review by Michel and Clark (2012) revealed that CSE was a significant predictor for both directions of work-family conflict. Other researchers have found that work-family conflict can act as a mediation mechanism between CSE and employee outcomes. For instance, Haines et al. (2013) reported that even after controlling for social support from work and family domains, high CSE was negatively related to WFC and FWC, which subsequently resulted in decreased likelihood of burnout. The authors also observed that CSE moderated the relationship between WFC and burnout, such that high core self-evaluations buffered the impact of conflict on burnout. This is consistent with Bolger and Zuckerman's (1995) integrative stress and coping model, which proposes that CSE moderates the relationship between exposure to stressor and reactivity to strain. According to this model, high CSE also strengthens the negative relationship between effective coping and strain. Although significant moderation effects have been observed, more research is needed to assess the buffering effects of CSE on work-family conflict (Westring & Ryan, 2010). Unlike traditional models that observe CSE as buffer of strains that result from work-family conflict, we are interested in exploring how CSE may reduce initial experiences and perceptions of work-family conflict that arise from unsupportive environments. Thus, we are interested in how the interaction of CSE and social support contribute to differential exposure to stress.

Even in light of suggestions from work-family researchers who have pointed to the need to pay more attention to personality (Allen et al., 2000; Allen, 2001; Michel & Clark, 2012; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002), research on individual differences in the work-family literature remains surprisingly scarce. Even fewer studies have examined the relationship between situational and dispositional variables in regards to work-family conflict (Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Witt & Carlson, 2006). In the relatively rare cases where dispositional variables are explored, the measures are typically narrow in scope, often measuring a single dimension of personality (e.g. Schaubroeck, Daniel, & Fox, 1992; Stoeva et al., 2002). Alternatively, others may independently measure two or more traits that are highly correlated, which may lead to inconsistent results. For instance, Bruck and Allen (2002) found a significant relationship between negative affectivity and work-family conflict, but did not detect significance for neuroticism, most likely due to the high correlation between the two traits. Thus, we propose that CSE will provide a more robust measure of dispositional traits that may contribute to conflict.

The role of CSE as a moderator is consistent with Conservation of Resources theory, which proposes that individuals who are high in certain resources, such as CSE, are less affected by the negative consequences of resource loss that occurs in stressful conditions, such as an unsupportive work or family environment (Hobfoll, 2001). Therefore, we expect that individuals who are deficient in social support resources may be able to circumvent the negative effects of work-family conflict if they have high CSE. In other words, CSE may provide certain individuals with resources that can make up for deficiencies in social support for work-family balance. We expect that CSE will moderate the relationship between social support and both directions of work-family conflict, such

that high CSE will buffer the impact of low social support on perceptions of WFC and FWC. Similar predictions were supported by McNall, Masuda, Shanock, and Nicklin (2011), who reported that CSE compensated for unsupportive organizational settings; specifically, they found that when perceived organizational support was low, individuals with high CSE experienced greater work-to-family enrichment than those with low CSE. We extend this research to test the interaction between CSE and social support in the stressor-strain relationship. Thus, when environments are unsupportive, we predict that individuals with high CSE will experience less work-family conflict than those with low CSE. Furthermore, because high CSE individuals are likely to already have a preexisting supply of resources that buffer the effects of work-family conflict, we expect that the impacts of strong social support networks will be greater in magnitude for low CSE individuals (Figure 2).

Hypothesis 2: CSE will moderate the negative relationship between social support and work-family conflict such that:

- a. When CSE is high, the negative relationship between supervisor support and WFC will be weaker than when CSE is low (see Figure 2).
- b. When CSE is high, the negative relationship between FSOP and WFC will be weaker than when CSE is low (see Figure 2).
- c. When CSE is high, the negative relationship between family support and FWC will be weaker than when CSE is low (see Figure 2).

Burnout

The COR model proposes that interrole conflict leads to stress because resources are lost or threatened in the process of managing competing roles (Hobfoll, 1989).

Potential or actual losses of resources lead individuals to negative "states of being," which may include dissatisfaction or distress with one's job, family, and life, and burnout (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Burnout, a well-known negative effect of work-family conflict (Allen, 2000; Haines et al., 2013), is the psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization (e.g. cynical attitudes about one's work), and reduced feelings of personal accomplishments (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). The consequences of burnout are potentially very serious for employees, and may affect one's health by increasing stress-related physical symptoms or diseases (e.g. coronary heart disease), as well as health-impairing behaviors, such as smoking and substance abuse (Maslach, 2001). Burnout can also be quite costly to organizations, as it is often associated with increased absenteeism and turnover, and reduced job performance (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010).

FWC and WFC have been linked to burnout (Haines et al., 2013; Netemeyer et al., 1996). In fact, meta-analytic results suggest that burnout is the highest reported stress-related outcome of work-family conflict (Allen et al., 2000). Thus, we expect to see relationships between both directions of work-family conflict and burnout (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 3: Work-family conflict will positively predict burnout, such that:

- a. WFC will be positively related to burnout.
- b. FWC will be positively related to burnout.

Work-family conflict has been found to mediate relationships between job and family stressors as well as support structures and individual outcomes. Anderson et al. (2002) found that work-family conflict partially mediated the relationship between managerial support and job satisfaction. Similarly, Thomas and Ganster (1995) reported

that low managerial support and inadequate work-family policies increased work-family conflict, which subsequently led to job dissatisfaction and stress-related health outcomes. Studies examining the bi-directionality of work-family conflict have reported domain-specific antecedents and outcomes in the mediation relationship. For instance, Haines et al. (2013) observed that the relationship between CSE and burnout was mediated by both WFC and FWC. More specifically, high CSE individuals reported less burnout, in part because they practiced more effective coping mechanisms in response to work and family stress that reduced both directions of work-family conflict. In line with this research, we predict that work family conflict is a stressor that mediates the relationship between low social support and burnout (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 4: Work-family conflict will mediate the relationship between social support and burnout, such that:

- a. WFC will mediate the relationship between supervisor support and burnout.
- b. WFC will mediate the relationship between FSOP and burnout.
- c. FWC will mediate the relationship between family support and burnout.

Lastly, we predict that CSE will moderate the proposed mediated relationship between social support, work-family conflict, and burnout, such that high CSE will buffer the indirect relationship between low social support and burnout (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 5: CSE will moderate the indirect relationship between social support and burnout via work-family conflict, such that:

- a. When CSE is high, the indirect relationship between supervisor support and burnout will be weaker than when CSE is low.

- b. When CSE is high, the indirect relationship between FSOP and burnout will be weaker than when CSE is low.
- c. When CSE is high, the indirect relationship between family support and burnout will be weaker than when CSE is low.

See Figure 1 for an illustration of all study hypotheses and the predicted relationships among variables.

Gender

Empirical research suggests that gender differences may influence the variables in the present study. Many researchers have speculated that men and women experience work-family conflict differently. For instance, Pleck (1977) suggested that work responsibilities are more likely to intrude into the family domain for men, whereas for women, family responsibilities are more likely to interfere with the roles from the work domain, such that men experience higher WFC and women experience higher FWC. In line with Pleck's theory, research has indicated that women experience higher FWC than men with equal responsibilities in the home domain (Behson, 2002). However, other research findings contradict this claim. For instance, Kinnunen, Geurts, and Mauno (2004) did not detect gender differences in work-family conflict over the course of a yearlong study. In contrast, Cinamon and Rich (2002) found that women reported significantly more WFC than men. This is in line with the Gender Role Framework, which suggests that deviations from prescribed gender roles (i.e., men spending time at home and women spending time at work) leads to increased conflict within one's non-traditional role (Gutek, 1991). Accordingly, men who devote more time to household responsibilities should

experience higher FWC, while women who spend more time at work should experience higher WFC. The rationale for Gutek's theory is rooted in the notion that spending more time in one's gender-prescribed domain is felt as less of an imposition than spending time in a non-traditional gender role.

Research also suggests that gender plays a role in how social support is valued by women and men. Clark et al. (2015) explored how different types of support may differentially benefit men and women, and found that women experienced less WFC and turnover intentions when they received informal support, such as encouragement from a supervisor, while men gained the most from formal support initiatives, such as flexible scheduling and telecommuting. This finding, however, directly contradicts past research by van Daalen et al. (2006), who reported that social support from supervisors and colleagues benefitted men in terms of decreased WFC, but that no such effects were observed among women. On the contrary, supervisor support appeared to increase women's time-based WFC, perhaps because women are more likely to feel pressured to do something in turn for their supervisor when they receive support. Van Daalen et al. (2006) did not detect any differences in familial support between men and women. On the other hand, Elliott (2003) reported a larger negative effect of spousal supportiveness on role strain for women than for men.

Core self-evaluations may also influence work-family conflict differently across gender. Haines et al. (2013) reported gender differences in the relations between CSE and work-family conflict. The authors found that CSE was significantly and negatively related to work-family conflict across genders. They probed this

relationship by breaking down CSE into its contributing personality factors (i.e., self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability), and analyzed the relationships between each individual factor and work-family conflict for men and women. When examining these relationships, the authors discovered that the negative relationship between self-esteem and FWC was no longer significant for men, though it remained significant for women. The authors went on to suggest that CSE, and self-esteem in particular, may be more beneficial in reducing FWC among women than it is for men.

Lastly, research suggests that burnout may differ between men and women. Although there is a commonly held belief that women experience higher burnout than men (Matlin, 2011), meta-analytic results reveal instead that men and women differ in the ways in which they experience burnout, such that men are more likely to report higher levels of depersonalization, while women are somewhat more emotionally exhausted than men (Purvanova & Muros, 2010).

Given the inconclusive findings regarding men and women's differential experiences of work-family conflict and its relative antecedents and outcomes, this study includes gender as an exploratory variable. All hypotheses in the model (illustrated in Figure 1) were subsequently tested separately for men and women to determine whether gender differences would play a moderating role in the study predictions.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

Participants

Five hundred participants were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Because this study is focused on work-family conflict, only participants who were employed for an organization, with a supervisor, for at least 30 hours a week, and who were also married or had childcare or eldercare responsibilities were eligible to participate. Furthermore, four methods were employed to ensure that MTurk users responded honestly and accurately. First, MTurk users were required to have a Human Intelligence Task (HIT) approval rate of 90 or higher, indicating a history of satisfactory HIT performance. Second, the survey itself asked participants to respond to the inclusion criteria listed above (e.g. hours worked per week, marital status, etc.) to confirm eligibility. Third, three attention check validation items ("Please select 'strongly agree' to this question," "If you are a human being, please select 'strongly agree,'" "I have suffered a fatal heart attack in the last year") were included to disqualify respondents whose responses indicated that they were not paying full attention to the survey. Lastly, responses were individually reviewed for careless response patterns, such as completing the survey in less than one minute or selecting the same response option for each item. Participants who did not meet the set criteria or who appeared to have responded carelessly were excluded from analysis, leaving a sample size of 453 (50.9% female) with an average age of 37.6.

A summary of sample demographics can be found in Table 1. Roughly half of participants (50.1%) had graduated from college, while 30.5% held a Master's, Doctorate, or other terminal degree. The majority of participants were White (81.7%), followed by

Black/African American (6.2%), and Hispanic/Latina (4.6%; See Table 2 for a complete racial/ethnic breakdown). The most common job industry in which participants were employed was education (12.6%), followed by wholesale/retail/distribution and medical/dental/healthcare, at 11.5% and 11.3%, respectively (See Table 3 for a complete breakdown of job industry). Sixty three percent of participants categorized their job as a staff position (e.g. provide function support to line operations), while the remaining 34.7% held line positions (e.g. have profit-and-loss or direct client responsibilities). On average, participants worked approximately 43 hours per week, earned \$68,473 per year, and had worked for their current employer for approximately six and a half years. Additionally, 90% of participants were married or living with a partner, while 67.1% had children, and 25.6% provided care for other family members who are not their children.

Procedure

Participants were given a brief study information sheet to read prior to participating in the study that outlined the purpose, procedures, risks/benefits, confidentiality, payment, and contact information for questions or problems regarding their involvement in this research. Participants were reminded that their participation was voluntary and they could opt out at any time without punishment or revoking of payment. Upon agreeing to participate, participants were reminded that in order to be included in the study, they must be employed for an organization, with a supervisor, for at least 30 hours a week, and also be either married or have childcare or eldercare responsibilities. The survey took approximately 10 minutes to complete. As compensation for their time, all individuals who completed the entire survey received payment of \$1.00.

Measures

Unless otherwise indicated, the following scales described below were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree." Higher scores indicate greater strength of the variables. Full descriptions of the measures below can be found in the Appendix.

Predictors

FSOP. FSOP was measured using Allen's (2001) Family-Supportive Organizational Perception scale. Allen's full scale consists of 14 items intended to reflect self-perceptions that one's organization is supportive of their family responsibilities. In order to shorten the scale, the 7 items with the highest corrected item-total correlations (ITC) were selected. ITCs for the 7 selected items selected ranged from .63 to .78. Participants were instructed to identify the degree to which items reflect the philosophies or beliefs of their organization as a whole. Sample items include, "Work should be the primary priority in a person's life" (reverse coded) and "Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business." Reported coefficient α for Allen's (2001) full 14 FSOP item scale was .91. Our analysis yielded α of .87.

Supervisor support. Perceptions of supervisor support were measured using Clark's (2001) 3-item scale and obtained a Cronbach's α of .86. Sample items include, "My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member" and "My supervisor understands my family demands."

Family Support. Perceptions of family Support was measured using King et al.'s (1998) Family Support Inventory for Workers (FSIW). The full FSIW scale consists of

44 items measuring perceived emotional and instrumental support from family members. In order to shorten the scale, the 10 items with the highest corrected item-total correlations were selected. Half the selected items measured instrumental support (ITCs ranged from .68 to .79) and the other half measured emotional support (ITCs ranged from .79 to .85). Sample items include, "when I have a problem at work, members of my family expresses concern" (emotional support) and "My family members do their fair share of household chores" (instrumental support). The authors reported coefficient α reliabilities of .97 for emotional sustenance and .93 for instrumental assistance items, and a .59 correlation between the two subscales. The coefficient α reliabilities for the current study were .89 and .92 for emotional and instrumental support, respectively, and a bivariate correlation of .41 between the two dimensions. For internal consistency reliability of the entire modified scale, which included items measuring both emotional and instrumental support was $\alpha = .89$. Given the significant correlation between emotional and instrumental support, and past research suggesting that both forms of support negatively relate to work-family conflict (Adams et al., 1996), we used the combined scores for emotional and instrumental support as our Family Support variable.

CSE. This trait was measured using the 12-item Core Self Evaluation (CSE) scale developed by Judge, Eren, Bono, and Thoresen (2003). The items ask participants the extent to which they identify with statements reflecting emotional stability, generalized self-efficacy, self-esteem, and locus of control. Although the authors' selection of items was inspired by separate measures of each of the four core traits, the measure is uni-dimensional such that individual items are not intended to strictly belong to only one trait. As the authors point out, the item, "There are times when things look pretty bleak

and hopeless to me," could be argued to reflect any one of the four core traits. Our analysis yielded a coefficient α of .90.

Outcomes

WFC/FWC. Work-to-Family Conflict (WFC: work demands create conflict for family roles) and Family-to-Work Conflict (FWC: Family demands create conflict for work roles) were measured using Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) 10-item scale. The scale consists of two subscales, in which five of the items measure WFC and the other five items measure FWC. Our analysis yielded coefficient α 's of .92 for both WFC and FWC. Sample items include "The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill my family responsibilities" (WFC) and "The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities" (FWC). The items in this scale represent a mixture of time- and strain-based conflict, consistent with the majority of research on work-family conflict.

Burnout. Burnout was measured using the 16-item Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) General Survey (Maslach et al., 1996). Participants were asked to rate the frequency in which they experience 3 dimensions of burnout (i.e., Emotional Exhaustion, Cynicism, and Professional Efficacy) on a 7-point scale ranging from (0) "Never" to (6) "Every Day." Sample items include "I feel tired when I have to get up" (Emotional Exhaustion), "I doubt the significance of my work" (Cynicism), and "At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done" (Personal Accomplishment). Professional Efficacy items were reverse coded. Our analysis yielded a coefficient α of .92.

Control Variables

We controlled for number of children and hours worked per week (1 = "<10 hours" ... 9 = "80+ hours"). Previous research suggests that these two variables play important roles in the work-family process (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Wayne et al., 2000).

Statistical Analysis

The current study is a correlational design. To determine if there was an indirect association between social support and burnout through relationships with work-family conflict that is moderated by CSE, we ran two moderated mediation analyses utilizing Model 7 on Hayes's (2014) PROCESS macro with 10,000 bootstrap samples. PROCESS uses ordinary least squares or logistic regression-based path analytic framework to estimate direct and indirect effects in single and multiple mediator and moderator models. Model 7, specifically, estimates the conditional indirect effect of a moderator on a mediation model (i.e., moderated mediation). Using Model 7, we ran two sets of analyses in order to examine the work interface and the family interface separately. The work interface model tested the interaction of supportive work environments (supervisor support and FSOP) and CSE on burnout via WFC; and the family interface model examined the interaction of family support and CSE on burnout via FWC. An alpha level of .05 was used for all hypothesis tests, and the exploratory tests of gender differences used an alpha level of .025 to account for the two separate tests on men and women.

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

The first step in our study was to examine the inter-correlations among variables to understand their relations with one another (Table 4). The study variables correlated in ways we would expect. Supervisor support, FSOP, and family support all correlated negatively with work-family conflict and burnout. These three social support variables also exhibited positive relationships with CSE, as well as with one another. Likewise, WFC, FWC, and burnout were positively correlated with one another, and all three were negatively correlated with CSE.

For exploratory purposes, inter-correlations were calculated separately by gender, which yielded several notable differences between male and female samples. For instance, the two control variables (hours worked and number of children) affected men and women differently, such that for women, number of children related positively to CSE and negatively to family support, whereas for men, hours worked was negatively related to FWC. Furthermore, supervisor support was significantly and negatively correlated to FWC among men, but there was no significant correlation among these variables in the female sample.

Gender differences in the study variables were also tested with t-tests. Significant gender differences were only observed in the two control variables; men reported working more hours and women reported having more children (see Table 1 for t-test statistics of all demographic variables). However, men and women did not report statistically different experiences of CSE, social support, work-family conflict, or burnout. This gave us confidence to proceed with our hypothesis testing.

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1a predicted that supervisor support would negatively predict WFC. As expected, this relationship was significant, such that participants who reported higher supervisor support experienced a decrease in work-family conflict, $B = -.27$, $t(447) = -5.97$, $p < .001$. Similarly, significant results were observed for Hypotheses 1b, which predicted that FSOP would be negatively related to WFC ($B = -.47$, $t(447) = -11.16$, $p < .001$), and for Hypothesis 1c, which predicted a negative relationship between family support and FWC, $B = -.38$, $t(445) = -8.64$, $p < .001$. However, when we tested FSOP and supervisor support together in the same model, only FSOP remained a significant predictor of WFC (Table 5).

Hypothesis 2 aimed to test if CSE would moderate the relationship between social support and work-family conflict. No significant interactions were observed for Hypotheses 2a and 2c, which predicted that CSE would moderate the relationship between supervisor support and WFC (Table 5), and that of family support and FWC (Table 6), respectively. However, with regard to hypothesis 2b, CSE significantly moderated the relationship between FSOP and WFC (Table 5). The interaction remained significant when supervisor support was also included in the model.

The interaction was probed by calculating the simple slopes of WFC on FSOP at high (+1 SD) and low (-1SD) levels of CSE. Contrary to our prediction that high CSE would buffer the impact of low organizational support, such that the relationship between FSOP and WFC would be strongest for low CSE individuals and more negligible for people with high CSE (Figure 2), we found the opposite; our results imply that CSE has a magnifying, rather than buffering, effect on FSOP's influence on WFC, such that people

with high CSE experience a more extreme decrease in WFC when FSOP is high than people with low CSE (Figure 3).

The study supported our third hypothesis, which proposed that burnout would be positively related to both WFC ($B = .51, t(445) = 12.68, p < .001$) and FWC, $B = .51, t(448) = 7.03, p < .001$. Hypotheses 4a, which predicted that WFC would mediate the indirect relationship between supervisor support and burnout was supported ($B = -.18, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI} = -.26, -.11$), where B indicates the indirect effect of supervisor support on burnout through WFC. Likewise, the mediation effect was significant for Hypothesis 4b, which predicted an indirect relationship between FSOP and burnout through WFC ($B = -.32, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI} = -.43, -.22$), as well as Hypothesis 4c, which predicted an indirect relationship between family support and burnout via FWC, $B = -.14, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI} = -.22, -.06$.

Hypothesis 5 predicted a moderated mediation, such that CSE would moderate the indirect relationship between social support and burnout through its effect on the negative relations between social support and work-family conflict. Our analysis yielded a significant effect for the moderated mediation model in Hypothesis 5b; CSE moderated the effect of FSOP on burnout through WFC (index: $-.09, 95\% \text{ CI} = -.19, -.01$). Comparing the mediation effects of WFC on low, average, and high values of CSE, the indirect effect of FSOP on burnout through WFC is strongest when CSE is high (Table 7). The moderated mediation model however was not significant for Hypotheses 5a or 5c.

Exploratory Analyses

After conducting hypothesis testing on the overall sample, we then were interested in comparing results between male and female participants. All hypotheses

were subsequently tested separately for men and women and are reported below. To account for these two additional tests, we protected alpha by splitting it in half, thereby using an alpha level of .025 to determine significance.

Our first hypothesis predicted that social support would be negatively related to work-family conflict. Consistent with Hypothesis 1a, supervisor support was negatively related to WFC in both men ($B = -.35, t(217) = -5.41, p < .001$) and women, $B = -.22, t(225) = -3.36, p = .001$. Similarly, significant results were observed for Hypotheses 1b, which predicted that FSOP would be negatively related to WFC. Again, this was observed in men ($B = -.03, t(217) = -8.01, p < .001$) as well as women, $B = -.46, t(225) = -7.74, p < .001$. However, when both supervisor support and FSOP were included together in the model, supervisor support lost its significance for both genders, while FSOP remained significant for men ($B = -.41, t(216) = -6.03, p < .001$) and for women, $B = -.47, t(224) = -6.80, p < .001$. The same effects were observed for Hypothesis 1c, which predicted a significant negative relationship between family support and FWC, in men ($B = -.37, t(217) = -6.00, p < .001$) and women, $B = -.47, t(223) = -6.22, p < .001$. Thus, all predictions of our first hypothesis remained significant across gender.

Our second hypothesis predicted that CSE would moderate the relationship between social support and work-family conflict. No significant effects were observed for either gender in regards to an interaction of CSE with supervisor support or family support, as was predicted in hypotheses 2a and 2c, respectively. However, CSE significantly moderated the relationship between FSOP and WFC (hypothesis 2b) in men, $B = -.15, t(215) = -2.61, p = .011$. Consistent with the findings of the overall sample, the interaction between CSE and FSOP among men indicates a magnifying effect of CSE on

FSOP's influence of WFC, such that men with high CSE experience a more extreme decrease in WFC when FSOP is high than men who have low CSE (Figure 4). This interaction, however, was not significant among women (Figure 5).

To further explore the gender differences in Hypothesis 2b, we ran a 3-way interaction between FSOP, CSE, and gender using model 3 in PROCESS. The 3-way interaction was not significant ($B = .18, t(215) = 1.02, p = .312$), meaning that the interaction differences between men and women were not strong enough or were lacking sufficient power to detect a significant gender moderation.

Our third hypothesis, which proposed that work-family conflict would be positively related to burnout, was supported in both gender samples. In men, burnout was related to WFC ($B = .51, t(217) = 8.80, p < .001$) and FWC, $B = .26, t(217) = 4.00, p < .001$. Likewise, women's reported burnout was significantly related to WFC ($B = .53, t(225) = 9.26, p < .001$) as well as FWC, $B = .36, t(223) = 5.73, p < .001$. Thus, all predictions of our third hypothesis remained significant across gender.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that work-family conflict would mediate the relationship between social support and burnout. In men, results supported Hypotheses 4a, which predicted that WFC would mediate the indirect relationship between supervisor support and burnout ($B = -.25, p < .001, 95\% CI = -.37, -.14$), whereas B indicates the indirect effect of supervisor support on burnout through WFC. Likewise, the mediation effect was significant among men for Hypothesis 4b, which predicted an indirect relationship between FSOP and burnout through WFC ($B = -.32, p < .001, 95\% CI = -.47, -.18$), as well as Hypothesis 4c, which predicted an indirect relationship between family support and burnout via FWC, $B = -.11, p < .001, 95\% CI = -.24, -.01$. Similarly, significant

mediation effects among women were observed for Hypothesis 4a ($B = -.14, p < .001$, 95% CI = $-.24, -.05$), Hypothesis 4b ($B = -.33, p < .001$, 95% CI = $-.50, -.20$), and Hypothesis 4c, $B = -.16, p < .001$, 95% CI = $-.29, -.06$. Thus, results supported our mediation predictions for both men and women.

Hypothesis 5, which predicted a moderated mediation, was not supported within either gender sample. The indirect relationship between social support (supervisor support, FSOP, and family support) and burnout through work-family conflict (WFC and FWC) did not differ significantly depending on men or women's levels of CSE. It appears that the test of the moderated mediation effect lacked sufficient power when analyzed separately by gender.

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the ways in which individuals' dispositional resources, specifically their core self-evaluations, can relieve work-family conflict and burnout when external sources of support (i.e., family-supportive organizational perceptions, supervisor support, family support) are low. This study also sought to examine the relations between social support variables and work-family conflict, as well as the relations between work-family conflict and burnout. Additionally, we wanted to understand how work-family conflict mediated the relations between social support and burnout, and whether this indirect relationship would be moderated by individuals' core self-evaluations.

Consistent with our predictions, the results of this study support claims that work-family conflict is negatively related to social support. Specifically, supervisor support and FSOP were negatively related to work-to-family conflict, and family support was negatively related to family-to-work conflict. Longitudinal research on social support and work-family conflict suggests that this relationship may be causal, meaning that high FSOP and supervisor support will likely lead to a decrease WFC, and high family support will lead to decreases in FWC (Eng et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 2004). Likewise, results also supported our predictions that work-family conflict (WFC and FWC) would be positively related to burnout. Considering the longitudinal effects of work-family conflict on employee wellbeing over time (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001), it is again reasonable to assume a causal link, such that high WFC and FWC lead to increased symptoms of burnout.

Additionally, our predictions about work-family conflict acting as a mediator were supported. Findings of this study indicate that supervisor support and FSOP are indirectly related to burnout through their negative relations with WFC. Likewise, family support was indirectly related to burnout through its negative relations with FWC. Furthermore, the mediated relationship between FSOP and burnout through WFC was moderated by CSE. High levels of CSE had a stronger effect on the indirect relationship between FSOP and burnout than low CSE, meaning that individuals who work in family-supportive environments experience significantly less burnout when they also have positive internal resources.

A novel contribution of this study is the finding that individual differences and social support interact to shape employee experiences of work-family conflict. Specifically, this effect was detected in the interaction between core self-evaluations and family-supportive organizational perceptions. Drawing on Conservation of Resources Theory, we predicted that strong CSE would be particularly helpful for individuals without social support resources, such as FSOP, to alleviate work-family conflict and burnout. What we found, however, was the opposite; CSE had a magnifying effect on the negative association between FSOP and WFC. This implies that individuals who are high in CSE – that is, individuals who have more positive views of their self-worth and competence – stand to gain more from a family-supportive work environment than individuals who lack these internal resources.

A possible explanation for this magnifying interaction between CSE and FSOP is that individuals who are high in CSE possess an internal locus of control, meaning that they perceive themselves as having an ability to control and cope with stressful events in

their lives. Thereby, people high in CSE would be more likely to feel in control of their ability to balance stressful work and family demands. Consequently, when individuals possess high CSE and also perceive their organization as being more family-supportive, they may be more likely to actively seek out and take advantage of family-friendly benefits offered by their organizations, which would in turn reduce their experiences of work-family conflict. Further research is needed to understand how individuals with strong CSE capitalize on the sources of support offered by their organizations.

Gender Differences

Interestingly, the interaction effect between CSE and FSOP was only present in men. A possible explanation for this gender difference centers on the construct of agency, which is a personality dimension that is typically displayed by men, and is characterized by qualities such as ambition, competition, and independence (Bakan, 1966). Research by Gebauer, Wagner, Sedikides, and Neberich (2012) proposed that self-esteem, a dimension of CSE, is related to agency when agency is self-central, meaning that agentic qualities are of high personal value to an individual. When testing this theory with gender as a moderator, they found that the relationship between self-esteem and agency had a stronger effect for men, meaning that being a man with higher self-esteem translates into higher levels of agentic qualities. This is an important distinction because individuals who are more agentic perceive themselves as being more in control and having a greater sense of power in making decisions that are best for improving their work-life balance (O'Meara & Campbell, 2011). Therefore, men with high CSE may enact agentic qualities such as taking advantage of family-supportive organizational environments and other opportunities to balance their work and family lives.

Alternatively, it may be the case that work-family conflict is more malleable for men than it is for women. Perhaps work-family conflict is more or less a concrete part of life for female employees, and there is only a certain extent to which it can be reduced. Taking into account Conservation of Resources Theory, this would imply that women's internal and external resources (i.e., CSE and FSOP) are less powerful in reducing work-family conflict than men's possession of the same resources due to the immovable nature of work-family conflict in the lives of working women. This would thereby explain why the magnifying effect between FSOP and CSE on work-to-family conflict was only observed in men; there was room for men's WFC to be further decreased with additional resources, whereas women had reached their "cap," so to speak.

Implications

This study revealed that social support (specifically, family-supportive organizational perceptions) is most effective at lowering work-to-family conflict when employees also possess high core self-evaluations. Given these results, it may seem plausible to make the conclusion that despite sufficient work-family support, individuals with low CSE simply cannot be helped. However, we strongly caution against this conviction. The data clearly show that high FSOP reduces WFC for individuals with both low and high CSE scores, but the effect is merely stronger for high CSE individuals. Thus, low CSE individuals should not be neglected from supportive benefits or deemed "too far gone" to help. It is important, however, for organizations to understand the role that personality plays in employee responses to supportive work-family strategies. When developing a family-supportive organizational culture, organizations should understand

that approaches to reducing work-family conflict will not necessarily have the same effects on all individuals.

Additionally, this study emphasizes the strengths of family-friendly organizational culture in reducing work-family conflict. The results illustrate that supervisor support will not reduce work-family conflict when controlling for FSOP, implying that FSOP is the driving force behind supervisor support. Thus, organizations should be mindful of the underlying messages that they are sending to employees regarding their work-family lives and look for ways to signal to employees that their lives outside of work are valued.

As our results show, employees who work in family-supportive work environments are less likely to experience work-to-family conflict, which may subsequently alleviate burnout. The consequences of burnout are potentially very costly for individuals and organizations alike, so any intervention to reduce these symptoms should be seriously considered. Organizations wishing to adopt a more family-supportive culture should actively promote work-family balance at all levels, starting at the top. Given our finding that organizational support is the driving force behind supervisor support, organizations may consider training and rewarding supervisors who show excellence in promoting work-family support. It is important for employees to feel that their organization and supervisor care about their conflicting family demands, and by supporting employees' non-work responsibilities, organizations will help their employees develop a more comfortable balance in their lives.

Considering the magnifying effect of CSE on FSOP, organizations that develop stronger core self-evaluations in their employees will experience an even higher return on

investment for any family-supportive culture interventions. Supervisors are in a powerful position to shape their employees' CSE through meaningful dialogue. For instance, if a supervisor recognizes that an employee has low self-efficacy, he or she can build self-confidence by challenging the employees' beliefs that are limiting their performance, and providing that employee with examples of how they have excelled in the past.

Alternatively, a supervisor can help an employee improve upon a developmental area through mentoring or modeling, for instance, thereby allowing that employee to recognize that he or she is capable of overcoming challenges. By helping employees recognize their competence, capabilities, and abilities to overcome setbacks, supervisors can strengthen employees' CSE, and consequently increase the magnitude in which FSOP will alleviate work-family conflict and burnout.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

The study is limited in several ways. First, it was conducted on a sample from Amazon's Mechanical Turk, and although attention checks were monitored, there is a potential risk that participants were not giving the survey their full attention. Despite this risk, we opted to use MTurk because it allows for a representative sample of working adults from a variety of industries and organizations, which in turn makes results more generalizable than samples taken from students or a single organization. Second, all measures were collected at a single point in time and have not been re-tested by the researchers. Therefore, it is possible that responses may have changed over time. Lastly, we used single-source, rather than aggregate, data from employees in all different organizations, thus opening the possibility that participants reported subjective and perhaps faulty opinions of organizational support rather than a shared and true measure of

organizational climate. As with any study that uses single-source data, there is also a potential for common method bias.

Although the cross-sectional nature of data collection for this study prevents us from making any causal inferences about the relationships between social support, core self-evaluations, work-family conflict, and burnout, previous longitudinal research gives us confidence in our conclusions that social support leads to work-family conflict (Eng et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 2004) and work-family conflict leads to burnout (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001), as opposed to the other way around. Thus, we can reasonably assume that, despite using single-source data, the directions of our hypotheses are correct.

Further research is needed to examine the findings of this study with a more robust sample group. In order to determine clear causal relationships among the study variables, an experimental design will need to be employed. A multi-source collection of FSOP would also strengthen any conclusions about an organization's true climate for work-family supportiveness, as opposed to the subjective perceptions of a single employee within an organization. Additionally, future research is needed to test our speculations about why the magnifying effect of CSE on FSOP is present only in men. It is unknown at this time whether men are more likely to seek out and take advantage of organizational support, or if instead their level of work-family conflict is more malleable than women's, or perhaps some combination of both. Research that explores the availability and actual use of family-supportive benefits across men and women of varying core-self evaluations, as well as gender differences in how the magnitude of work-family conflict decreases over time could begin to address these questions.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study provided a new perspective on the relationship between social support and work-family conflict by exploring the role of personality as a moderator – a variable that is often overlooked in this literature. Overall, the findings were consistent with previous research that has demonstrated a negative relationship between social support, from both work and non-work sources, and work-family conflict (e.g. Michel et al., 2010; Thomas & Ganster, 1999). However, this study revealed underlying complexities within this relationship. That is, employees, particularly men, with higher core self-evaluations experienced more dramatic decreases in work-family conflict when they also had strong family-supportive organizational perceptions compared to employees with low core self-evaluations. This study implies that organizational support leads to positive outcomes (i.e., decrease in WFC and burnout) for employees across the board, but that personality differences will influence the extent to which employees experience these outcomes.

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TABLES

Table 1. Sample Characteristics and t-tests by Gender

	Men (n=222)		Women (n=230)		p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Background					
Age	36.77	10.22	38.46	11.09	.10
Education ^a	1.95	0.77	1.90	0.79	.42
Work Characteristics					
Tenure ^b	6.80	5.37	6.27	4.72	.26
Hours worked/week ^c	44.59	5.75	42.57	5.85	<.001
Line or Staff ^d	1.73	0.52	1.65	0.56	.04
Family Characteristics					
Parental Status ^e	1.38	0.49	1.28	0.45	.02
Number of Children	1.03	1.10	1.67	1.53	<.001
Number of Children Living at Home	0.91	0.99	1.27	1.24	.001
Other Care ^f	1.73	0.44	1.75	0.43	.66
Marital Status ^g	1.10	0.29	1.10	0.30	.94
Household Income ^h	71,154	43,653	65,870	43,122	.20

Notes: $p < .05$ indicates significant difference between samples for Men and Women.

^a 1 = Secondary School, 2 = College Graduate, 3 = Master's Degree 4 = Doctoral, Law, Medical, or Other Terminal Degree

^b Calculated from midpoints of range: Less than 1 year, 1-4 years, 5-9 years, 10-14 years, 15 or more years

^c Calculated from midpoints of range: 30-39 hours/week, 40-49 hours/week, 50-59 hours/week, 60-69 hours/week, 70 - 89 hours/week

^d 1 = Line, 2 = Staff

^e 1 = Has children, 2 = Does not have children

^f 1 = Provides care for other (non-child) family members, 2 = Does not provide care for other (non-child) family members

^g 1 = Married, 2 = Not Married

^h Calculated from midpoints of range: \$0 - \$50,000, \$50,000 - \$99,999, \$100,000 - \$149,999, \$150,000 - \$199,999, \$200,000 - \$249,000, \$250,000 - \$299,999

Table 2. Racial/Ethnic Breakdown by Gender

	Men (n = 221)		Women (n = 230)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Asian/Asian American	9	4.1%	8	3.5%
Black/African American	7	3.2%	21	9.1%
Hispanic Latina/o	13	5.9%	8	3.5%
Native American	1	0.5%	4	1.7%
White/Caucasian	188	85.1%	182	79.1%
Asian & White	1	0.5%	3	1.3%
Black & White	1	0.5%	2	0.9%
Other	1	0.5%	2	0.9%

Table 3. Industry Breakdown by Gender

	Men (n = 220)		Women (n = 224)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Manufacturing and Process Industries	13	5.9%	11	4.9%
Online Retailer	1	0.5%	2	0.9%
Internet or Application Service Provider	4	1.8%	1	0.4%
Communications Carrier	2	0.9%	3	1.3%
Banking/Finance/Accounting	15	6.8%	14	6.3%
Insurance/Real Estate/Legal	6	2.7%	9	4.0%
Federal Government (including military)	8	3.6%	3	1.3%
State/Local Government	10	4.5%	9	4.0%
Medical/Dental/Healthcare	22	10.0%	28	12.5%
Transportation/Utilities	11	5.0%	6	2.7%
Construction/Architecture/Engineering	9	4.1%	8	3.6%
Data Processing Services	4	1.8%	4	1.8%
Wholesale/Retail/Distribution	29	13.2%	22	9.8%
Education	21	9.5%	36	16.1%
Marketing/Advertising/Entertainment	6	2.7%	6	2.7%
Research/Development Lab	3	1.4%	5	2.2%
Business Services/Consultant	8	3.6%	9	4.0%
Computer Manufacturer	7	3.2%	3	1.3%
Computer/Network Services/Consultant	17	7.7%	5	2.2%
Computer Related Retailer/Wholesaler/ Distributor	2	0.9%	0	0.0%
Other	22	10.0%	40	17.9%

Table 4. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Study Variables for Men and Women

Variable	Men	Women	Inter-Correlations								
	M (SD)	M (SD)	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
A. Hours Worked	4.96 (.57)	4.76 (.58)		-.01	-.03	-.07	.07	.05	.08	-.04	.03
B. Number of Children	1.03 (1.10)	1.67 (1.53)	.05		.12	-.02	-.21**	.15*	-.02	.02	-.09
C. Supervisor Support	3.60 (.85)	3.69 (.98)	-.04	.13		.42**	.21**	.25**	-.22**	.05	-.40**
D. FSOP	3.53 (.86)	3.58 (.86)	-.03	.07	.50**		.24**	.21**	-.46**	-.22**	-.37**
E. Family Support	3.67 (.72)	3.55 (.79)	.06	-.06	.29**	.26**		.43**	-.33**	-.38**	-.38**
F. CSE	3.62 (.69)	3.72 (.72)	.12	.09	.37**	.33**	.43**		-.43**	-.42**	-.61**
G. WFC	2.77 (.97)	2.91 (1.02)	.04	-.06	-.35**	-.48**	-.29**	-.41**		.48**	.53**
H. FWC	2.20 (.81)	2.18 (.94)	-.16*	-.03	-.19**	-.43**	-.38**	-.40**	.48**		.35**
I. Burnout	2.52 (1.41)	2.40 (1.39)	-.09	-.09	-.39**	-.42**	-.37**	-.65**	.51**	.27**	

Notes: Inter-correlations for male participants appear below the diagonal and female participants appear above the diagonal.

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

Table 5. Regression Summary and Simple Slopes for CSE, FSOP, and Supervisor Support Predicting WFC (Hypotheses 2a and 2b), $n = 450$

	ΔR^2	F change	p	B (SE)	t	p	95% CI
Step 1	.01	0.59	.56				
Hours				.08 (.08)	1.03	.30	-.08 to .24
Children				-.01 (.03)	-0.30	.77	-.08 to .06
Step 2	.31	66.71	<.001				
CSE				-.45 (.06)	-7.56	<.001	-.57 to -.33
FSOP				-.44 (.05)	-8.37	<.001	-.54 to -.34
Supervisor Support				-.01 (.05)	-0.15	.88	-.10 to .09
Step 3	.01	3.96	.02				
FSOP X CSE				-.18 (.07)	-2.69	<.01	-.31 to -.05
Supervisor Support X CSE				.03 (.06)	0.47	.64	-.09 to .14
Simple slopes for FSOP							
Low CSE							-.34, $t = -5.70$, $p < .001$
High CSE							-.56, $t = -9.54$, $p < .001$

Table 6. Regression Summary for CSE and Family Support Predicting FWC (Hypothesis 2c), n = 448

	ΔR^2	F change	p	B (SE)	t	p	95% CI
Step 1	.01	1.71	.18				
Hours				-.13 (.07)	-1.85	.07	-.27 to .01
Children				-.00 (.03)	-0.12	.91	-.06 to .06
Step 2	.21	61.01	<.001				
CSE				-.38 (.06)	-6.38	<.001	-.50 to -.26
Family Support				-.28 (.06)	-5.17	<.001	-.39 to -.18
Step 3	.00	0.38	.54				
Family Support X CSE				-.04 (.06)	-0.62	.54	-.15 to .08

Table 7. Conditional Indirect Effects of FSOP on Burnout via WFC at Low, Average, and High Values of CSE, n = 451

	Mediator	<i>B</i> (SE)	95% CI
Low CSE	WFC	-.20 (.05)	-.40 to -.16
Average CSE	WFC	-.26 (.04)	-.43 to -.17
High CSE	WFC	-.33 (.05)	-.49 to -.18

Notes: *B* indicates the indirect effect of FSOP on Burnout through WFC.

FIGURES

Figure 1. Hypothesized Relationships among Study Variables

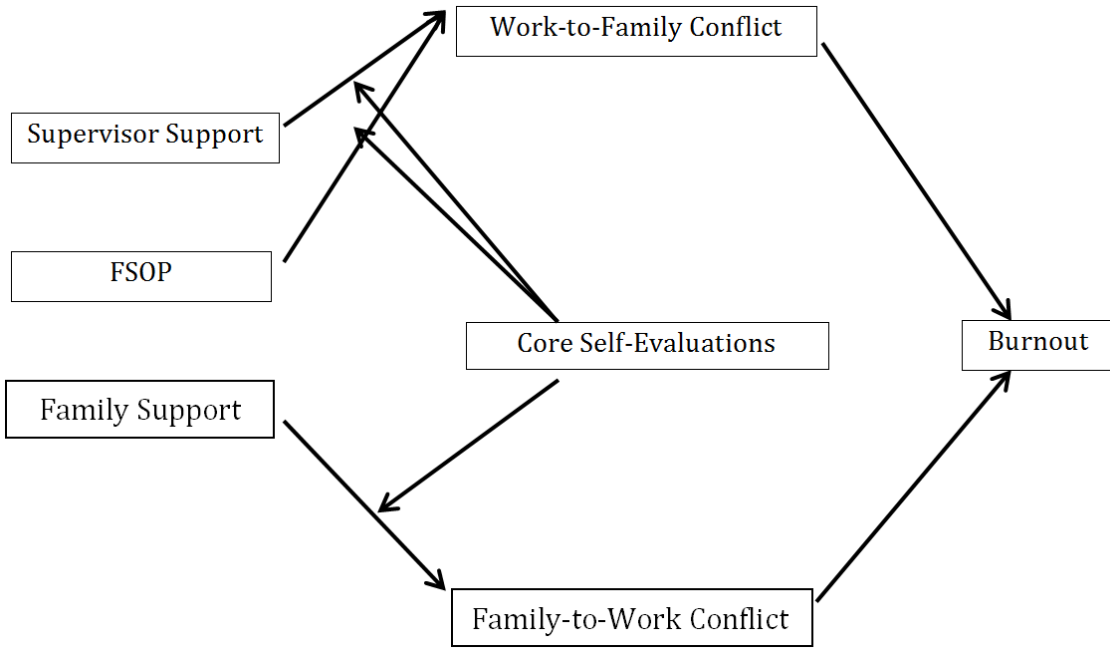


Figure 2. Hypothesized Interaction of Social Support and CSE on Work-Family Conflict

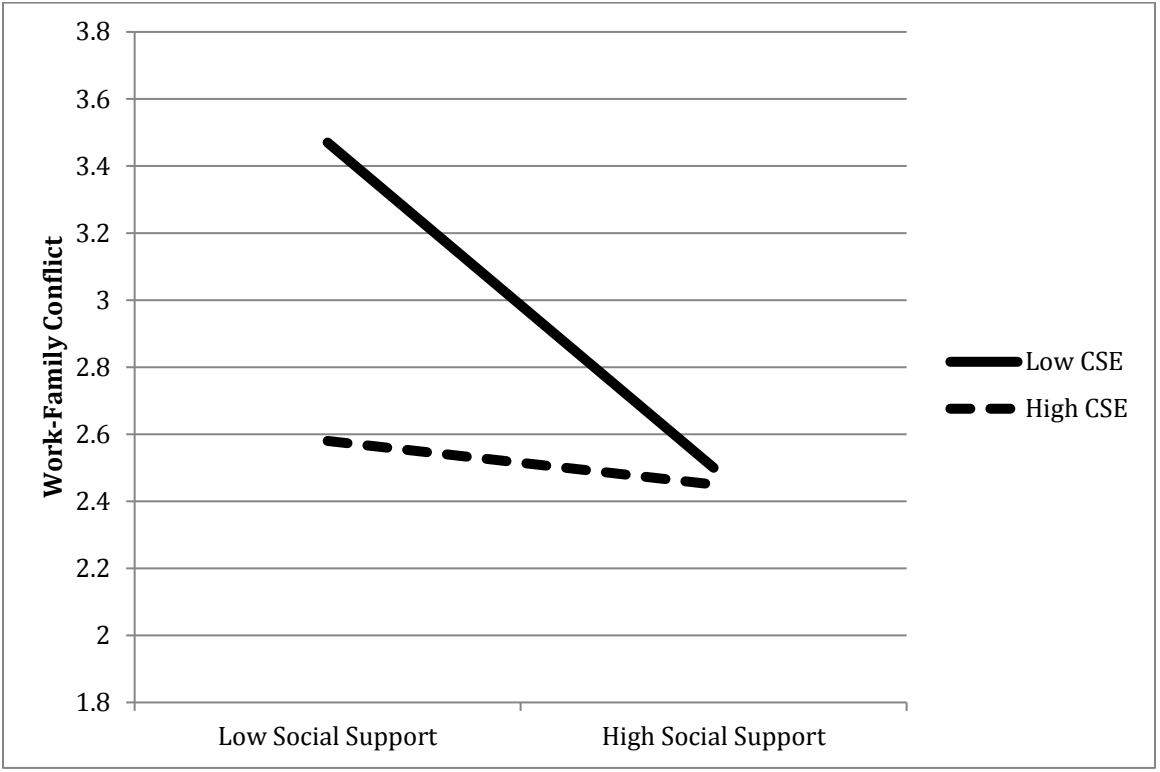


Figure 3. Observed Interaction of FSOP and CSE on WFC (Hypothesis 2b)

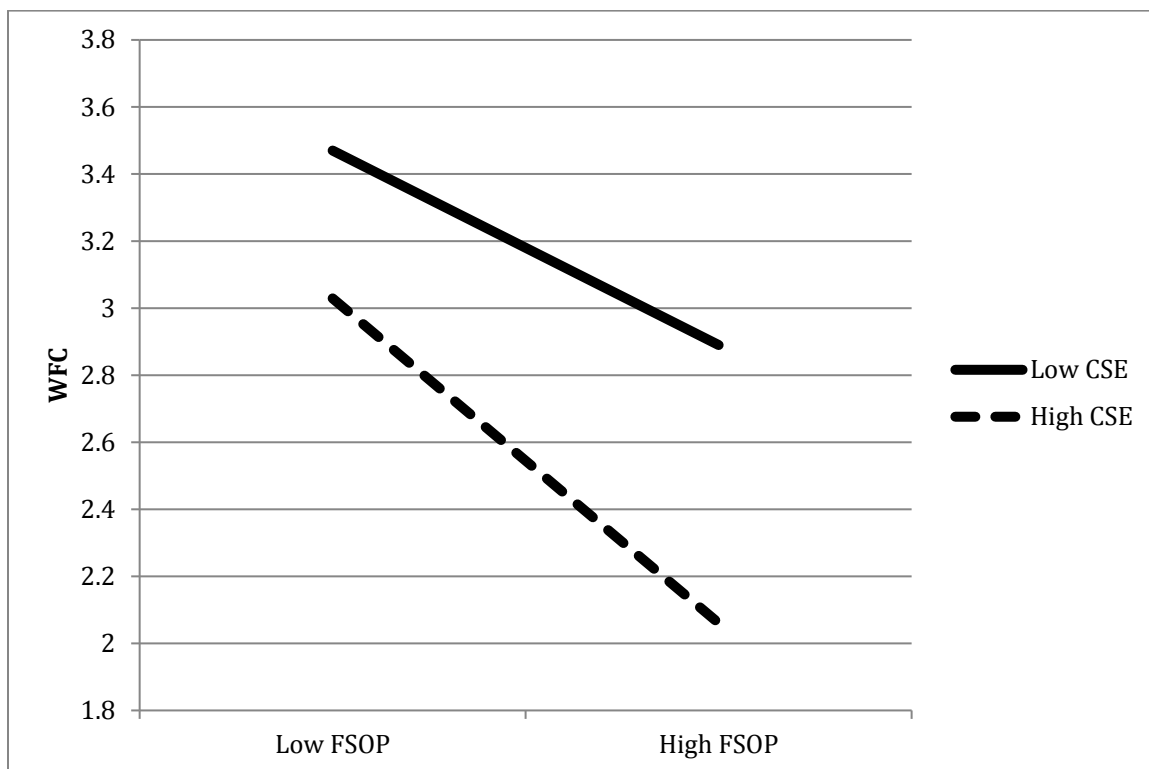


Figure 4. Observed Interaction of FSOP and CSE among Men (Hypothesis 2b)

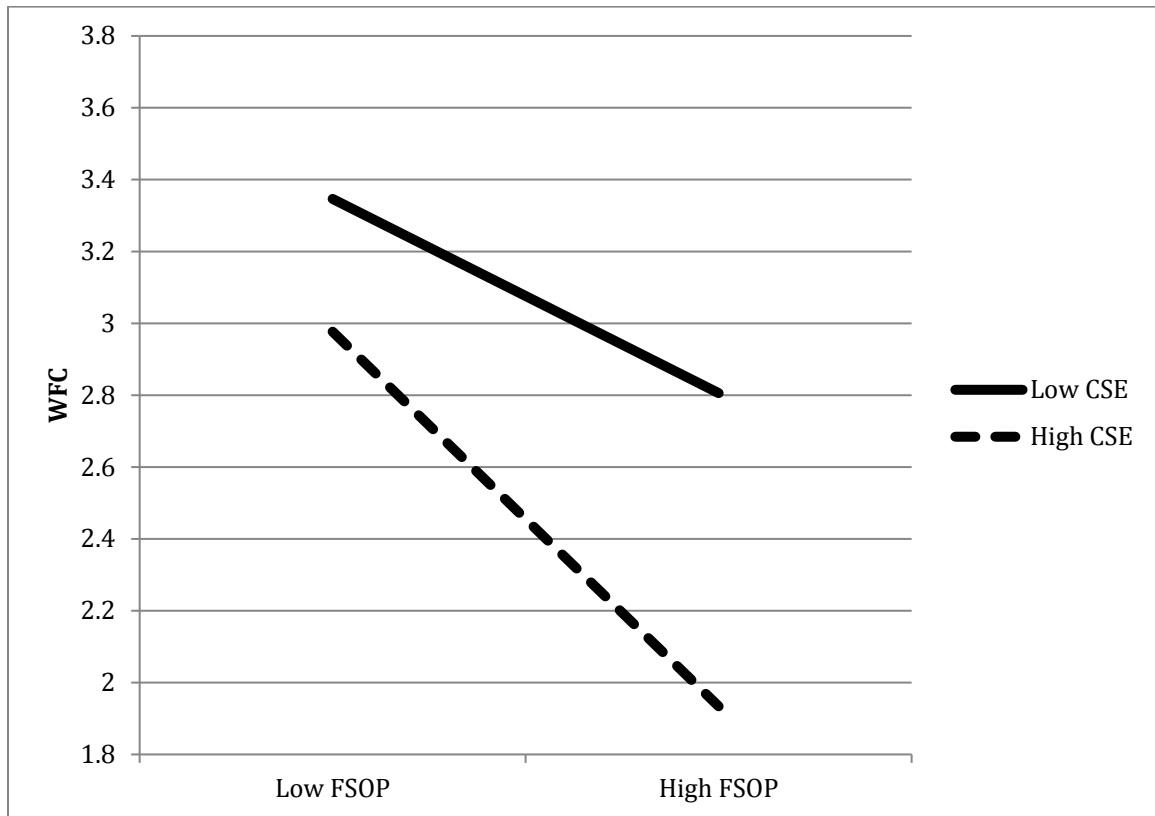
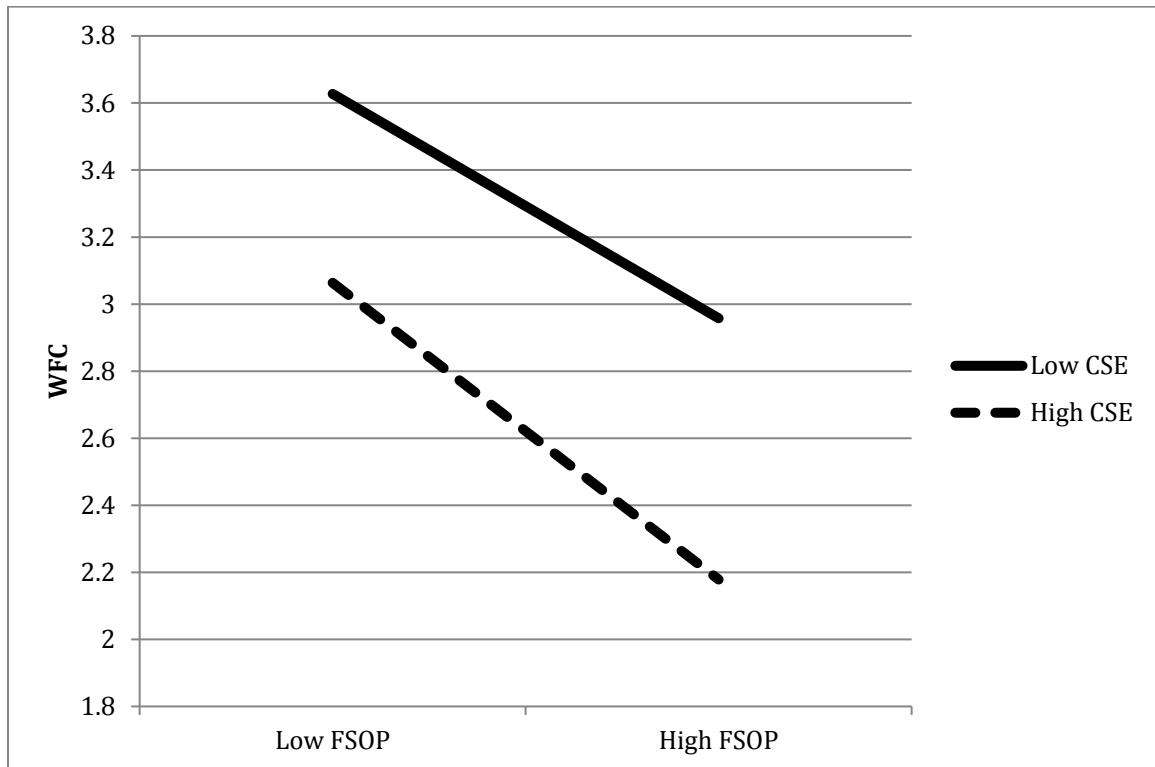


Figure 5. Observed Interaction of FSOP and CSE among Women (Hypothesis 2b)



APPENDIX

Measurement Materials

Sample Characteristics

What is your gender?

- Man
 Woman
 Other

What is your age in years? _____

What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

- Secondary School
 College Graduate
 Master's Degree
 Doctoral, Law, Medical, or Other Terminal Degree

What is your race? You may select more than one.

- Asian/Asian American
 Black/African American
 Hispanic Latina/o
 Native American/Indian
 Pacific Islander/Hawaiian
 White/Caucasian
 Other

How long have you been employed at your current organization?

- Less than 1 year
 1-4 years
 3 = 5-9 years
 4 = 10-14 years
 5 = 15 or more years

During the past 12 months, in the weeks you worked, how many hours did you TYPICALLY work in a week?

- 10 hours or less
 11-20 hours
 21-30 hours
 31-40 hours
 41-50 hours
 More than 50 hours

Please indicate whether your position at your organization is considered "line" or "staff" based on these definitions and considerations:

- **Line** are employees with profit-and-loss or direct client responsibilities.
- **Staff** are employees who provide function support to line operations.
- For example, positions in corporate legal, finance, human resources, and public relations departments are generally staff positions.
- In law firms and accounting firms, however, legal and accounting staff who directly serve clients would be considered to have "line" positions.
- Faculty or instructors at educational institutions would be considered "line" positions. Scientists and Engineers in a firm whose primary business is science or engineering would be considered "line" positions.

Line
 Staff
 Not Sure

Do you have children?

Yes
 No
 Prefer not to answer

How many children do you have? _____

How many children under the age of 18 are currently living with you, including those who may only live with you some of the time? _____

Do you provide primary care for family members who are not your children (e.g. elderly parents, disabled adults)?

Yes
 No

Do you have a spouse or partner?

Yes
 No
 Prefer not to answer

What was your TOTAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME in 2015, including base salaries, bonuses, dividends, and other compensation?

Less than \$50,000
 \$50,000 - \$99,999
 \$100,000 - \$149,999
 \$150,000 - \$199,999
 \$200,000 - \$249,000
 \$250,000 or more

Family-Supportive Organizational Perceptions (FSOP)

To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your organization (*remember, these are not your own personal beliefs—but pertain to what you believe is the philosophy of your organization*).

Work should be a primary priority in a person's life (r)

Employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to their work (r)

Attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children, is frowned upon (r)

Individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work (r)

It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life (r)

Employees should be given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their family responsibilities well

Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business

Notes: Scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Supervisor Support

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your direct supervisor.

My supervisor understands my family demands.

My supervisor listens when I talk about my family demands.

My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member.

Notes: Scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Family Support

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

When I'm frustrated by my work, someone in my family tries to understand.

When I have a problem at work, members of my family express concern.

Members of my family are interested in my job.

My family members are sympathetic when I'm upset about my work.

Members in my family want to listen to work related problems (r)

My family leaves too much of the daily details of running the house to me. (r)

My family members do their fair share of household chores.

Too much of my time at home is spent picking up after my family members. (r)

Members of my family help me with routine household tasks.

Members of my family are willing to straighten up the house when it needs it.

Notes: Scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Core Self-Evaluations

Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.

Sometimes I feel depressed. (r)

When I try, I generally succeed.

Sometimes when I fail I feel depressed. (r)

I complete tasks successfully.

Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my own work. (r)

Overall, I am satisfied with myself.

I am filled with doubts about my competence. (r)

I determine what will happen in my life.

I do not feel in control of my success in my career. (r)

I am capable of coping with most of my problems.

There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. (r)

Notes: Scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Work-to-Family Conflict (WFC)

Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.

The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill my family responsibilities.

Things I do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.

My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.

Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

Notes: Scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Family-to-Work Conflict (FWC)

Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.

I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.

Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.

My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.

Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform my work-related activities.

Notes: Scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Burnout

Please tell us how often you experience the following:

I feel emotionally drained from my work

I feel used up at the end of the work day

I feel tired when I have to get up in the morning and face another day on the job

Working all day is really a strain for me

I feel burned out from my work

I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work

I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does

I've become less interested in this work since I started this job

I have become less enthusiastic about my work

In my opinion, I am good at my job

I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something at work

I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job

I just want to do my job and not be bothered

I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything

I doubt the significance of my work

At work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done

Notes: Scale ranged from 1 (never) to 7 (every day)