

CARING COMPANY CULTURE: REDUCING EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department

Of Psychology

University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements of the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

Sophie Romay

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ABSTRACT

With changing family dynamics, organizations have had to respond by adjusting their policies to remain competitive in attracting and retaining employees. Research has shown that organizations not only need family-supportive policies but also a culture that supports their use. Additionally, with organizational structural changes that include more teamwork and flattened hierarchies, the role of coworkers has become instrumental in providing support in addition to the support of the organization and supervisors, particularly in juggling work-life demands. With the present study, I argue how perceptions of a family-supportive organization can improve workers' well-being. Specifically, I propose a psychological process in which family-supportive organizational perceptions have both direct and indirect (through coworker support) effects on emotional exhaustion and that differences in perceptions of justice moderate the proposed relationships. Results from 220 tenure-track faculty members of a public university indicated that: (1) FSOP is indirectly negatively related to emotional exhaustion through coworker support, and (2) procedural justice moderates the relationship between coworker support and emotional exhaustion.

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Chapter 1

Family dynamics have been radically changing over the past few decades, with an increasing amount of dual career couples (Jacobs & Gerson, 2004; Nomaguchi, 2009). This trend has yielded changes in the work place in order to respond to shifting needs of employees. Consequently, organizations have implemented family-oriented initiatives to aid employees to keep up with both roles and reduce work-family conflict. Initiatives include flexible scheduling, daycare, and leaves of absence (see Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013; Westring, Kossek, Pichler, & Ryan, 2016). This has direct benefits for both employees and the organization. For the employees, this helps them better manage potentially conflicting roles. At an organizational perspective, this fosters organizational commitment, lower likelihood of turnover, and greater job satisfaction, benefitting the organization (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011).

Despite these initiatives, research has found that having these initiatives is not always a good indicator of how family-supportive the organization is (Kirby & Krone, 2002). Galinsky and Stein (1990) argued that the organization's environment is critical to policy implementation and usage. An organization may have initiatives in place but have a culture that frowns upon employees taking advantage of them (Allen, 2001). Judiesch and Lyness (1999) found support for this in that employees who had absences received fewer promotions and smaller salary increases in subsequent years. Furthermore, anecdotal reports have found that many first-line managers do not support the usage of family-friendly benefits, and employees fear that using family-friendly benefits will lead to repercussions (Fierman, 1994; Morris, 1997). Family-supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP) refers to perceptions of how family-supportive the organization is. A family-supportive organization acknowledges that employees have multiple

roles across different dimensions and embraces various employee personal situations, flexibility, and support for employees' family needs and obligations (Lapierre et al. 2008).

Organizational support can be classified as either formal or informal. Organization initiatives and policies are a type of formal support, while informal support is provided by supervisors and coworkers. Informal support is much harder for senior management to implement than formal policies and is arguably the more important of the two support systems. Having a strong informal support system allows employees to feel comfortable to ask and utilize family policies without fearing repercussions or negative impact on their careers (Kirby & Krone, 2002; Thompson et al., 1999). Informal support can be further broken down into instrumental and emotional support. Instrumental support is more task-focused; examples include extending deadlines, helping on a task, and changing work schedules. Emotional support is providing help of a more personal nature, examples include listening to problems, being accessible, and demonstrating concern for health and well-being.

Having supervisor support is crucial, as first-line supervisors are often the gatekeepers to allocating and managing resources for family support (Clark, 2000). Supervisors can offer both emotional and instrumental support to employees. They can provide emotional support by conveying that they care about the well-being of their employees by listening to their concerns and needs, expressing concern over employees' lives outside of work, and developing interpersonal relationships. Instrumental support is provided in the form of help that can directly resolve issues that employees' conflicts, such as by changing and managing work schedules, reducing work, and rearranging work responsibilities. Research has shown that having family-supportive supervisors increases organizational citizenship behaviors (Chen & Chiu, 2008), well-being (O'Driscoll et al., 2003) and job satisfaction (Thompson et al., 2006), and decreases work-

life conflict (Pan & Yeh, 2012). Another part of the informal support is coworker support, which has been studied less in comparison to supervisory support.

Grandey (2001) suggested that in order to better understand why all organizations are not in full support of family friendly policies that the issue needs to be examined within a justice framework. I focus on how fairness of the rewards allocation process interacts with FSOP and coworker support to reduce emotional exhaustion. With the present study, I aim to expand upon the stress and family literatures by investigating a conditional, indirect process model in which a family-supportive organizational perspective yields a decrease in emotional exhaustion through coworker support – a process that is moderated by procedural justice.

Family-Supportive Organizational Perceptions (FSOP)

Years ago, organizations were considered as family-friendly based on the extent to which they provided benefits or policies that were family-friendly (Grover & Crooker, 1995). Formal benefits and policies examples include flextime, childcare (either through an on-site daycare or providing vouchers), elderly care arrangements, job sharing, and maternity/paternity leave. Some industries have specific policies, such as academia having “stop the clock.” This policy allows tenure-track faculty to pause the tenure clock for non-work reasons, such as elderly care, childcare, or personal health. Previous studies have found that family-friendly policies are related to positive outcomes, such as higher organizational commitment (Grover & Crooker, 1995), intentions to stay (Thompson & Prottas, 2006), and lower work-family conflict (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). While all of these formal policies are aimed to help employees decrease conflicts between their work and personal life, implementing policies and benefits is not the final solution. Despite what some research has found, there have also been studies that have

failed to find relationships with job satisfaction (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), intentions to stay (Glass & Riley, 1998), and work-family conflict (Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990).

While organizations have taken steps in order to be more family-friendly by introducing family-supportive benefits, research has found that these benefits are sometimes insufficient in reducing work-family conflict (e.g., Cook, 2009). Instead, it is arguably more important that the organization be perceived to have a family-supportive environment. Having a supportive environment is what enables and facilitates the usage of the formal support (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013). Allen (2001) labeled this informal family-support from organizations as “family-supportive organization perceptions.” It is more formally defined as the “global perception that employees form regarding the extent the organization is family-supportive” (Allen, 2001, p. 416). This is believed to be a separate construct from family-supportive supervisors. The argument that these are distinct constructs can be based on perceived organizational support (POS) literature. Perceived organizational support is defined as an employee’s “beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well being” (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986, p. 501). POS describes an attitudinal reaction to the organization as a whole that is distinct from an employee’s attitudinal reaction to a direct supervisor. In this study, I focus on employees’ attitudinal reaction to the family-supportiveness of the organization.

A family-supportive organization recognizes that the organization’s success is not dependent on employees demonstrating that work is the highest priority in one’s life; employee behaviors, such as putting in long hours or “face time” at work are not the sole indicators of employee commitment and value to the organization (Allen, 2001). This type of organizational environment and philosophy helps lessen the burden of employees who take on multiple roles

between work and family (Jennings, Sinclair, & Mohr, 2016). Organizations with this type of environment and philosophy will act in accordance and engage in behaviors that provide instrumental or emotional support to employees. This environment can also reduce employee stressors by promoting flexibility, which reduces or mitigates potential resource-draining conflicts between work and home duties. Furthermore, being in this type of organizational environment permits employees to feel confident and comfortable asking for and using family resources when in need. The benefits of the family-supportive environment thus assist employees who take on multiple roles between work and family by providing them with resources and reducing demands which consume personal resources, allowing them to retain more resources that can then be utilized to perform well in the workplace.

The benefits of FSOP are rooted in organizational support theory and the principles of POS (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). POS and organizational support theory function under social exchange theory and the sociological principles of reciprocity (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Emerson, 1976; Blau 1964). Blau states that social exchange is the voluntary actions of individuals that are contingent on rewarding reactions from others. Emerson expanded on this by adding that it is mutually contingent, two-sided, and mutually rewarding process that involves exchanges between entities. This creates a psychological contract between two parties with expected mutual obligations. Employees who are being treated well by the organization will feel obligated to reciprocate and reward the organization by performing well. Studies have demonstrated that employees who experience high POS are more likely to have increased work effort, engage in more organizational citizenship behaviors (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMasro, 1990) and have lower intent to quit one's job (Sinclair et al., 1995). Furthermore, Sinclair et al. (1995) found that family-friendly benefits relate to POS.

To reciprocate the organization caring for them and their family needs, employees may engage in positive behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behaviors and respond with a positive attitude toward the organization (Schiemann, 1987). Thus, the social exchange nature of POS explains how having family-friendly policies may result in positive outcomes for the organization.

Coworker Support

More recently, the potential role of coworkers in the work-life interface has been explored (Mesmer-Magnus, Murase, DeChurch, & Jimenez, 2010; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2009). About 90.2% of employees have coworkers with whom they have routine interactions (Fairlie, 2004). As the amount of task interdependency and interdependent work structures increases in organizations, there has been a higher formation of workgroups and teams in organizations, highlighting the potential importance of the role of coworkers. Employees will form their perceptions of the workgroup based off of their social interactions and relationships. Just as Eisenberger et al. (2010) found that supervisors can symbolically embody the organization and convey positive views and support, coworkers can symbolically embody the organization, the organization's support, and working environment.

Coworker support is the amount of instrumental aid and emotional concern that an employee perceives to receive from coworkers (Thoits, 1985; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). Schneider (1987) argued that not only is coworker support a critical component of the working environment, but it can also define it. One such way is by impacting fellow colleagues' role perceptions. Roles are behavioral expectations for a certain position in a social structure (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Coworkers help shape these expectations by offering advice, information, and engaging in behavioral support for some activities while discouraging

others (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). This is not unique to newcomers; veteran employees also seek advice, information, and help from coworkers due to their perceived similarity (Gibson, 2003).

Given their position to influence role perceptions, coworkers can likewise influence various role components, such as role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload. Role ambiguity is the lack of clarity of behavioral requirements as well as the unpredictability of outcomes individual behavior (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Coworkers can provide informational support and thus help provide clarity and direction to reduce role ambiguity. Kahn et al. (1964) defined role conflict as “the simultaneous occurrence of two [or more] sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other.” Having high-quality or frequent exchanges with coworkers can affect employees’ role conflict as they are well positioned to understand colleagues’ job tasks and can offer help in completing tasks. Additionally, coworkers can offer mentorship (Raabe & Beehr, 2003) and provide advice and information on how to best prioritize, organize, and complete tasks in order to reduce conflict. Individuals experience role overload when they feel that they have “too much on their plate,” when there is an excessive amount of demands expected given the amount of time, abilities, and organizational constraints (Rizzo et al., 1970). In this situation, coworkers can again be a vital resource. They can signal what is important, give aid on tasks, and provide emotional support (e.g., be empathetic, provide a listening ear) in order to reduce overload. In all of these situations, coworkers provide some type of support in order to influence others’ role perceptions.

Past research has found that coworker support has positive benefits for individuals, as it reduces stress (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fischer, 1999), burnout (Halbesleben, 2006), and

physical strains (Schwarzer & Lepin, 1989). Additionally, other studies have found coworker support to be related to both positive and negative work behavior outcomes aside from health (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Sherony & Green, 2002). Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) found that coworker support predicts both attitudinal and behavior outcomes of their colleagues, even when leadership influence is taken into account. Their results also indicated that coworker support is positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors and performance and that having low coworker support is related to counterproductive work behaviors. Furthermore, they found that it can be both an instigator and mitigator of employee withdrawal at work.

Researchers have largely overlooked coworker support due to its similarity to supervisory support, and they have usually been grouped it with other constructs rather than measuring with its own scale. Past research has a convoluted view on coworker support due to the methods utilized. For example, it has been combined with other constructs, such as job satisfaction (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002) and has even been combined with supervisory support in a single measure (e.g., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). This is unfortunate, as coworker support can have a non-trivial impact on the family-supportive organizational culture. Frone et al. (1997) examined coworker support as its own construct and found that it is negatively related to work-to-family and family-to-work conflict and that it is negatively related to work distress. Similarly, Loscocco and Spitze (1990) found that employees who have satisfying interpersonal relationships with coworkers have less job distress. As previously mentioned, coworkers are able to influence the amount of role conflict experienced by fellow colleagues. Coworkers are positioned to be able to work closely together and offer assistance when family demands interfere with work demands and requirements. For example, interdependent coworkers are able to help complete a task if a team member is called away on a personal matter. Also, as coworkers are familiar with the same

clients and supervisors, they can step in and settle matters, address concerns, or answer questions on behalf of a team member. This is beneficial for organizations, workgroups, and employees, as it allows a seamless flow of work despite any absent employees, prevents disruption to production, and allows for resolution of personal conflicts.

As Campion, Papper, and Medsker (1996) noted, just because coworkers may have the appropriate skills and knowledge that well positions them to give aid does not mean that they will. Both interpersonal and workplace factors may discourage or motivate coworkers from supporting others. Coworker support is a form of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Ladd & Henry, 2000; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Organ (1988) defined OCB as individual behavior that is not formally recognized by the formal reward system, not an official part of the job description and role, and in the aggregate adds to the essential functioning of the organization. Research on OCB has suggested that leader, group, and organizational characteristics can predict their prevalence in an organization (Mesmer-Magnus & Glew, 2012). Consistent with the principles of POS, having a family-supportive culture is an organizational characteristic that may motivate employees to engage in OCB and provide coworker support. In so doing, they are being consistent with the organization's culture as well as paying the kindness forward. In contrast, organizations can also have characteristics that may discourage employees from engaging in OCB and coworker support. Organizations that have more individualized work tasks are more likely to have a culture that rewards individual productivity and discourages cohesion. This would most likely dissuade employees from helping others as it would detract from their own productivity. Additionally, an organization that does not have a family-supportive culture may breed contempt

among employees, discouraging them from helping others as they themselves are not receiving support for their endeavors.

An organization's culture directs employees' behaviors and attitudes, as it influences how they think, feel, and perceive key issues (Schein, 1992). Thompson et al. (1999) defined a family-friendly organizational culture, as one where the members' assumptions, beliefs, and values support work-family balance. An organization that has a family-friendly culture is likely promoting values that support employees' demands and needs related to both non-work and work issues. The perception of a caring organization influences employees to want to reciprocate through OCB, such as coworker support, in order to maintain the psychological contract. Also, having a culture that promotes an environment where employees are supportive of one another both in and outside of work roles is likely to foster higher quality interpersonal relationships. Higher quality interpersonal relationships tend to lend more support to one another. Furthermore, research has shown that being in a family-supportive work environment that promotes and supports the use of family-supportive benefits will raise employees' comfort and confidence in using the benefits and accommodations in order to meet family demands (Greenberger, Goldberg, Hamill, O'Neil, & Payne, 1989; C. A. Thompson et al., 1999). When an organization has a family-supportive culture, supervisors are more likely to offer aid to employees in order to remain consistent with the values of the organization (Allen, 2001). Similarly, I expect that coworkers are more willing to offer aid to fellow employees when the organization is perceived to be family-supportive. Therefore, I posit the following:

Hypothesis 1: FSOP is positively related to coworker support.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is one of the three major components of Maslach's Burnout theory (Maslach, 1982). It refers to a mental state of fatigue as well as physical exhaustion, and it causes one to feel overextended, drained, and unable to recuperate (Cole, Bernerth, Walter, & Holt, 2010). The other two components of burnout are diminished personal accomplishment and depersonalization. Diminished personal accomplishment is having a negative view of oneself. Depersonalization is better understood in the context of interpersonal interactions, where one needs to be able to connect with others. The more depersonalized one feels, the more detached they feel from their more "humanistic" side, such as feelings of compassion or being able to relate to others.

Emotional exhaustion is one of the most important and frequently identified components of burnout, as emotional exhaustion best describes the "core definition" of burnout (Shirom, 1989). Additionally, Lee and Ashforth (1993; 1996) found that emotional exhaustion typically has stronger relationships with outcome variables than the other two components. Usually, emotional exhaustion is the first step to burnout, making it a critical point for intervention for prevention. Thus, I focus on emotional exhaustion.

Being emotionally exhausted affects both the individual and the organization. On the individual level, emotional exhaustion is associated with various physiological ailments, such as gastrointestinal problems, sleep issues, colds, and headaches (Belcastro, 1982). It has also been related to depression and anxiety. At the organizational level, research has demonstrated that emotional exhaustion is positively related to negative work attitudes (Leiter & Maslach, 1988), increased turnover intention (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986), counterproductive work behavior (Jones 1981), and decreased job performance (Wright & Bonett, 1997).

Emotional exhaustion is caused by a deficit of resources needed in order to effectively meet demands. In propositioning conservation of resources theory (COR), Hobfoll (1989) proposed a basic principle that we all strive to attain, protect, and build resources, and that the potential loss or actual loss of resources is threatening. Resources are defined as both tangible and intangible objects that give the individual physical and/or mental energy. Common examples include time, money, optimism, physical energy, and mental energy. Hobfoll defined stress as the threatened or actual loss of resources. Additionally, Hobfoll noted that in times of stress, individuals tend to reserve resources by limiting their expenditure. In times of no stress, individuals attempt to accrue a surplus of resources in anticipation of future stressors.

COR is an expansion of the job demands-resource (JDR) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), which examines the role of resources and the outcome of stress in response to job demands. According to JDR, in order for employees to effectively respond to work demands they need to have adequate resources. Furthermore, if job demands increase and/or resources decrease, employees will most likely become burned out or dissatisfied with their job. In this study, as I am examining how the organization can help employees with demands encountered at work and in their personal life, I apply COR theory, as it expands upon JDR by including all demands that one can face.

Based on the principles of COR theory, we can consider organizational support as a type of personal resource. Employees are tasked with balancing both life and work demands that consume resources from one's personal bank of resources. In order to avoid a complete depletion of resources, one must replace lost resources and add to the bank. Having organizational support, whether it is formal or informal, adds resources. When organizations provide family-type support, they are providing employees with resources, which allow them to juggle life demands

in addition to work demands (Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005). Lapierre et al. (2008) found that in addition to reducing work-life conflict, organizational family support is related to greater life, family, and job satisfaction.

As previously mentioned, coworkers are well-positioned to understand the job demands, tasks, and expectancies of fellow coworkers. This allows them to be able to seamlessly step in and offer aid if a colleague is having difficulty meeting job demands. The availability of this type of aid is a critical resource that keeps employees from feeling emotionally exhausted due to resource depletion. However, possessing this knowledge and expertise does not ensure that coworkers will step in to help. Having high coworker support means that employees are continuously developing high-quality interpersonal relationships with each other. Employees who have close interpersonal relationships with others are able to provide each other with resources and are eager to help them. Having high amounts of coworker support adds to one's bank of personal resources. Access to these resources helps buffer demands and stressors that an individual may face. The more support one has, the more resources added. Hence, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Coworker support is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Direct and Indirect Effects of FSOP on Emotional Exhaustion

I argue that coworker support is not only an outcome of FSOP, but that it also mediates the relationship between FSOP and emotional exhaustion. That is, the process by which FSOP reduces employee emotional exhaustion is by increasing coworker support. Organizations that are higher in FSOP tend to possess an environment that promotes higher quality relationships between employees. Employees learn from the environment and exude these supportive behaviors, fostering the development of high-quality interpersonal relationships that manifest in coworker support. According to the principles of social exchange theory, employees that

perceive their organization to be family-supportive and caring of their needs are more likely to reciprocate and reward this behavior. This can manifest in OCB that would include helping beyond one's own responsibilities and duties, as well as aiding coworkers that are in need of help. Having high amounts of coworker support builds resources for individuals. Accessibility to resources helps individuals to avoid becoming drained and overwhelmed when facing stressors. Individuals who know they can anticipate receiving resources from coworkers when they face conflicting work-life demands have less stress, as they know they will have access to resources in order to effectively deal with stressors. Conversely, when an organization does not offer family support, it discourages employees from showing an interest in the lives of their coworkers and offering support. Individuals may not feel obligated to "pay it forward" and will opt to reserve their own resources rather than giving them to others, as they do not anticipate receiving resources from the organizations in times of need. Thus, drawing upon social exchange and COR theories, I posit:

Hypothesis 3a: FSOP has an indirect negative effect on emotional exhaustion through coworker support.

At the same time, FSOP can have a direct effect on emotional exhaustion. For example, having low FSOP is likely to create further conflicts for employees that are attempting to juggle multiple roles both in and outside of work. Indeed, past research has found that lower FSOP can lead to resource depletion. For example, Jennings et al. (2016) found lower FSOP was related to detrimental health outcomes, such as depression, musculoskeletal pain and other physical health symptoms among employees with children. The results of past research demonstrate that having little support from their work environment adds additional strain and stressors and lead to resource depletion. If one's resources are consumed by ongoing or increasing demands and are

not replenished by a supportive environment, it leads to a deficit in their bank of resources. I hypothesize this resource depletion from a lack of FSOP will be related to an increase in emotional exhaustion. Therefore, I extend findings from past studies and apply core tenets from COR theory to hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3b: FSOP has a direct negative effect on emotional exhaustion.

Procedural Justice

Historically, the study of justice has been a philosophical interest since the time of Plato and Socrates (Ryan, 1993). From an ethical perspective, justice is defined through the comparison to a prevailing philosophical system. However, difficulty arises when there is disagreement on what that philosophical system consists. Aristotle argued that people in different roles will advocate for different justice rules, “the democrats are for freedom, oligarchs for wealth, others for nobleness of birth” (reprinted in Frost, 1972). Currently, in organizational sciences, justice is a social construct. Under this definition, an act is considered just if most individuals perceive it to be so, as determined by empirical research (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Perceived organizational justice is the individual’s perception that his/her organization treats them fairly according to a moral and ethical standard. Colquitt et al. (2001) further explained that “fairness” is based on research linking facets of decision-making to subjective perceptions of fairness. Furthermore, fairness in organizations is typically focused on antecedents and consequences of two particular subjective perceptions: (1) the fairness on allocations and rewards made, and (2) the fairness of the process and procedures used to determine the allocations and rewards. These types of justice are respectively referred to as distributive and procedural justice.

Initially, the study of justice consisted of examining distributive justice. Adams (1965) conducted much of this research and used a social exchange framework in order to evaluate fairness. Adams suggested that people were less concerned with the absolute levels of outcomes than they were with whether those outcomes were fair. Adam's equity theory explains that one way to calculate fairness is to obtain the ratio of one's input or contributions (e.g., skills, education, amount of hours) to one's outcome (e.g., pay, bonuses) and then compare that ratio to that of another. While Adam vouched for the use of an equity rule to determine fairness, there are other allocation rules, such as equality and need (Leventhal, 1976). Knowing which rule to utilize depends on various factors, such as organizational goals, personal motives, and situational context (Deutsch, 1975).

An environment that endorses rewards based on merit is considered an environment with equity norms, where rewards are typically economic in nature and are given for contributions, such as work performance and time, where employees who input more will receive more rewards than others who contribute less. This is the most common type of reward structure established in organizations, especially in Western cultures. Under the rule of equality, resources are allocated equally across all individuals, regardless of input (Deutsch, 1975). This is normally salient in organizations that encourage cooperation, teamwork, and where getting along with coworkers are important (Leventhal, 1976). This would be predominant in industries where performance hinges on cohesion and teamwork. The last type of allocation rule, the need principle, states that rewards should be given out so that individuals' needs are fulfilled and alleviates their conflicts and difficulties while ignoring individuals' merits (Leventhal, 1976). Family-friendly policies are typically need-based allocations, which can create a perception of unfairness as most organizations reward employees based on either equity or equality rules (Kabanoff, 1991). In

environments that are equity or equality based, giving rewards based on employee needs can be perceived as unfair if low performers are benefitting. This means that organizations need to take extra steps in order to remedy the potential of backlash and promote the fairness of need-based allocations. Otherwise, when employees perceive unfairness in the organization they tend to lash out through poor performance, theft, absenteeism, and turnover (Cowherd & Levine, 1992; Greenberg, 1990), all of which are detrimental to organizational performance.

In this study, I focus on procedural justice, which is the perception of how fairly the organization's policies and official systems are implemented. Procedural justice has roots in legal procedures. Thibaut and Walker (1975) introduced the study of process to the justice literature. They found that in legal cases, disputants were willing to give up control on the decision-making as long as they had control over the process stage. If disputants had control over the process stage they typically also then viewed the procedure as fair. This has been coined the "fair process effect" or "voice" effect (Folger, 1977; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Research has demonstrated the existence of the "fair process effect" by which a fair process can mitigate the negative effects of negative outcomes (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). While Thibaut and Walker were the pioneers in studying procedural justice, they studied it mostly in a legal context. Leventhal and colleagues were the ones who extended this concept to organizational literature. They focused on six criteria that a procedure should meet if a procedure is to be perceived as fair: (1) employees receive equal treatment, (2) no one receives undeserved benefits or punishment, (3) verified and accurate information is used when making decisions, (4) everyone has an equal opportunity to provide input, (5) an appeals process exists to rectify problems, and (6) no norms of conduct are violated (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal et al., 1980).

When organizations engage in fair processes, employees tend to reciprocate and be more loyal, committed, and trusting of the organization. A just organization has several impacts, including building trust, commitment, improving job performance, fostering OCB, and building customer satisfaction and loyalty (Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007). Injustice and lack of justice typically lead to negative consequences, such as retaliation, lower performance, and turnover. I suggest that an organization's implementation of family-supportive benefits will raise FSOP when general benefits, such as merit rewards, are distributed fairly according to established procedure, whereas if those general benefits are distributed unevenly, underprivileged individuals will perceive the policies to be "lip service" and not actually accessible to all employees.

Masterson, Lewis-McClear, Goldman, and Taylor (1997) argued that perceptions of justice augment the social exchange relationship between the organization and the employee, in that without justice, the level of POS is low. Shore and Shore (1995) argued that both distributive and procedural justice contribute to POS. Past research has supported this, as it has found that both distributive and procedural justice explain unique variance in POS when the other is controlled for (Fasolo, 1995). Furthermore, POS mediates the relationship between procedural justice and positive outcomes (Masterson et al., 2000; Moorman et al., 1998). POS theory supports this argument by suggesting that: (1) the way organizations treat employees adds to their perception of motives underlying said treatment, and (2) positive treatment from the organization to the employee is typically interpreted by employees that the organization cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990). When the employee perceives the organization to act fairly, the organization is perceived as positive and caring (Grandey, 2001). When such an act occurs, it inspires the employee to reciprocate and react accordingly.

Conversely, Grandey (2001) has also pointed out that the relationship could be reversed, such that a caring organization is perceived as being fairer. I argue that procedural justice impacts the relationship between FSOP and outcomes. With this study, I examine procedural justice with regard to participant perception of the fairness of the merit review process. Even though in this context we examine procedural justice as it pertains to the merit review process rather than the process of obtaining family supportive benefits, having a high perception of fairness in the merit review process shows that employees feel that the organization cares about everyone equally and enforces fair company policies. This, coupled with the perception that the organization is family-supportive, further enhances the perception that the organization cares about one's well-being. Having this belief that the organization is caring and supportive of the employee engages the psychological contract between the employee and organization, such that the employee will feel obligated to return the favor. Conversely, if an organization has family-friendly benefits and policies but does not have a fair process for reviewing merit, it diminishes the positive effects of having family supportive policies, as employees will feel that the organization has an ulterior motive and does not truly care about their well-being. Receiving mixed signals from the organization could create mistrust and suspicion among employees, discouraging them from wanting to assist the organization.

Oftentimes, it falls to the supervisor to allocate resources, such as family-friendly policies, which is why it is so important for supervisors to support family needs and roles. It is equally important for coworkers to support family needs. Even if a supervisor is supportive, if coworkers feel resentful that others are receiving resources and they are not, it can cause them to lash out against those receiving resources. In order for coworkers to be more supportive, they have to feel that the distribution process is fair. Justice rules that will determine whether a

process is fair depend on the justice culture of the organization. As mentioned, environments can be supportive of resources being distributed based on merit, equity, or need. As most businesses have an environment that supports merit or equity rules, organizations need to be proactive and take measures to ensure employees perceive fairness in the allocation process.

While organizations that have high levels of FSOP typically foster high coworker support, providing high levels of procedural justice can strengthen the relationship between FSOP and increasing coworker support. Having a system in place that assures a fair process for all employees supports the goal of a family-supportive organization. The presence of fairness signals that everyone is equally important and there are no “favorites.” Furthermore, organizations that are high in procedural justice are perceived to value all employees equally and promote a culture of collaboration, which positively influences coworker support. An employee’s justice perception can be one indication of how supportive they perceive their organization to be (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998).

When an organization allows employees to utilize its benefits via a fair established process, this reduces perceptions of competition and allows employees to feel respect and camaraderie with their coworkers (Grandey, 2001). However, if procedural justice is lacking, then coworker support may remain relatively lower regardless of improvements in FSOP. When coworkers receive unequal benefits and consideration, this may reduce their sense of teamwork and community, foster envy or resentment towards better-treated employees, and create a perception of competition rather than cooperation – “every man for himself.” Hence, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4a: The relationship between FSOP and coworker support is moderated by procedural justice, such that the relationship is stronger among employees reporting high rather than low procedural justice.

Ideally, both coworkers and the organization are providing resources via justice and general support. Other things being equal, employees who are receiving both are likely to have the lowest levels of emotional exhaustion compared to those who are receiving resources from only one source or none. There may be low coworker support due to various factors, such as environmental setting, organizational goals, or interpersonal differences and goals. Employees who have low amounts of coworker support have fewer personal resources and are thus more prone to become emotionally exhausted, but an organization with low procedural justice can exacerbate this effect. The lack of support from coworkers can become an additional source of stress when the organization does not offer an established process for correcting mistakes or addressing conflicts, and unequal treatment of employees can increase feelings of competition that further drain personal resources. Additionally, having a low perception of justice signals to employees that the organization does not care for or support them, thus contributing to a lack of incoming resources. In the case where there is low coworker support, I argue that a high level of fairness in the organization is supplemental for employee resources. Employees who perceive high levels of fairness are more likely to believe that the organization cares for them, and that they can expect to receive resources, even if they do not from coworkers. Therefore, I hypothesize that procedural justice moderates this relationship.

Hypothesis 4b: The relationship between coworker support and emotional exhaustion is moderated by procedural justice, such that the relationship is stronger among employees reporting low rather than high procedural justice.

Similarly, when FSOP is low, having lower procedural justice, such as unequal treatment and no formal process to rectify problems, can engender the sense that the organization does not care about the needs of individual employees. This lack of organizational support deprives the employee of necessary personal resources. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4c: The direct relationship between FSOP on emotional exhaustion is moderated by procedural justice, such that the relationship is stronger among persons reporting low rather than high procedural justice.

Control Variable

Hierarchical status (i.e., rank) can affect the amount of resources employees have access to and how effectively they can cope with stressors. Hence, I controlled for rank. Typically, higher-ranking individuals have accrued access to greater benefits, which are usually granted with tenure. In many organizations, employees who have been employed for longer are offered more time off, or have more options available such as the use of flextime. Conversely, lower-ranking individuals have not been a part of the organization long enough to have the same amount of access to resources. Additionally, newer employees may also be assigned more strenuous responsibilities at work. For example, in academia, professors who are seeking tenure are subjected to more demanding responsibilities and work. Also, those individuals who are tenured or higher-ranking may be at a stage in life where they have fewer responsibilities outside of work compared to lower-ranking, younger individuals who may be just starting families. Because they are preoccupied with greater responsibilities both inside and outside of work and have less access to certain work resources, I suspect that lower-ranking employees will be more susceptible to becoming emotionally exhausted.

Chapter II

Method

Sample and Procedure

Data were collected from full-time faculty members at a public university in the USA. After the initial survey was distributed, there were two other reminder emails sent out, and 220 (22%; 40% women) participants completed the entire questionnaire. I selected faculty at a university level because the type of work involved provides ample opportunity for a variety of stressors that can frequently conflict with outside demands. Additionally, academic faculty can attain resources from a variety of sources; universities typically have family-friendly policies and benefits, such as the “stop the clock” policy. Oftentimes, faculty in universities are age-diverse and individuals have reached various life stages, such as young professors who are starting families, middle-aged professors who may be taking care of elderly parents, and older professors who may not have many dependents to look after apart from themselves. This makes faculty an ideal sample for obtaining a general view on how factors such as FSOP and coworker support relate to well-being and emotional exhaustion among people who are at various life stages.

Faculty indicated their rank; 27% of participants were assistant professors, 1% were non-tenured associate professors, 38% were tenured associate professors, and 33% were full professors. They also marked how long they have worked at the university (8% less than a year, 25% one to five years, 19% six to ten years, 13% eleven to fifteen years, 6% sixteen to twenty years, and 26% greater than 20 years). This sample consisted of a diverse age range. Participants marked into which age range they fell; 8% indicated an age range of 25-34 years old, 30% indicated 35-44 years old, 22% indicated 45-54 years old, 18% indicated 55-64 years old, 11% marked 65-74 years old, and 2% marked 75 years old or older. Racially, there was not much

diversity (14% Asian, 2% Black or African-American, 72% White, 3% Other). Additionally, faculty indicated various family-related factors, such as whether they provide care for an older adult for at least 3 hours a week (11% marked yes, 89% no) and their marital status (10% single, 80% married, 5% living with romantic partner but not married, 1% widowed, 3% divorced, and 2% separated). Those participants who marked that they have a spouse/partner indicated if their spouse/partner works outside of the home (30% full-time, 7% part-time, and 12% said no). Participants also indicated how many children they currently live with (54% said none, 23% said one, 16% said two, 6% said three, and 1% said 4). I compared my sample to the university's demographics listed online and found that my sample is representative of the population.

Measures

I present reliability estimates in Table 1 and a complete list of items in Appendices A-D.

FSOP. I assessed FSOP with 5 items (e.g., “In my department, attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children, is frowned upon”) from Allen et al.'s (2001) Family-Supportive Organization Perceptions Scale, which was then reduced to five items by Booth and Matthews (2012). From the original scale I changed “Organization” to “Department.” The items had the following prompt: “To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represent the philosophy or beliefs of your DEPARTMENT (remember, these are not your own personal beliefs, but pertain to what you believe is the philosophy of your DEPARTMENT).” All of the items are reverse coded, meaning that lower scores indicate more positive perceptions of the organization's support for work/life balance. Participants responded to items using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1= *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*.

Coworker Support. I used 7 items (e.g., “My colleagues really care about my well-being”) adapted from Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) Perceived Organizational Support scale to

assess coworker support. Participants responded on a scale of 1= *none*, 2= *a few*, 3= *some*, 4= *many*, 5= *most*. High scores reflect high coworker support. This coworker support scale is different from other scales in that it solely assesses coworker support. In past research, coworker support has often been measured as a part of other constructs, such as informal organizational support, supervisory support, and job satisfaction. In the few studies where it has been examined as its own construct, it is mostly measured in relation to the frequency or presence of specific behaviors. However, in the manner that I measure coworker support, I am measuring individuals' perceptions of whether their coworkers are supportive.

Emotional Exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion was assessed with 5 items (e.g., "I feel emotionally drained from my work") from the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach et al.'s (1996) Burnout Inventory. Participants responded to items using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1= *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*. High scores indicate higher emotional exhaustion.

Procedural Justice. I assessed procedural justice using 3 items (e.g., "Has the merit review process been free of bias") from Colquitt's (2001) procedural justice subscale of the Organizational Justice Measure. Responses were on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1= *to a small extent* to 5= *to a large extent*. High scores reflect higher perceptions of procedural justice.

Rank. Participants selected their ranking out of a list of possible ranks that included: Some other academic rank, Assistant professor, Non-tenured associate professor, Tenured associate professor, and Full professor.

Chapter III

Results

Preliminary Analyses

In Table 1, I present the descriptive statistics, which include the alpha estimates, intercorrelation matrix, means, and standard deviations. All of the alpha reliability estimates were above .70, indicating suitable scale reliabilities. Because the data were collected using the same methodology, I conducted two different confirmatory factor analyses using MPlus. The first was a series of confirmatory factor analyses to test the distinctiveness of the constructs and model fit. In order to test the uniqueness of the variables I ran a confirmatory factor analysis on one-factor, two-factor, and four-factor models and found that the four-factor model is the best fitting model. In order to assess which was the best fitting model, I followed Hu and Bentler's (1999) suggested thresholds. According to Hu and Bentler, there is good fit if the chi-square ratio is less than 3, CFI is greater than .95, SRMR is less than .09, and RMSEA is good if less than .05 or moderate if between .05 and .10. Results indicate that the model is tenable, χ^2 (164, N = 220) = 351.4, $p < .01$; CFI = .951, SRMR = .058, RMSEA = .057 (90% CI = .049, .066). Furthermore, the ratio-of-model chi-square-to-df is 2.142.

The second confirmatory factor analysis tests for the potential impact of common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This allowed me to assess the amount of variance explained by the latent method factor and compare it to the 25% median score in published studies (Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989). Utilizing MPlus, I created a model that permitted items to load onto both a latent method factor and their respective latent factors. Any systematic errors loaded onto the latent method factor, and I then compared the amount of variance accounted for by the latent method factor to that of the theoretical factors. The variance

explained by the common method factor was 28 percent, slightly above the 25 percent average. I present the results in Table 2.

Analyses for Hypotheses

I present the conceptual model in Figure 1 and statistical model in Figure 2. In order to test the hypotheses, I employed the Hayes (2013) PROCESS macro (Model 59) in SPSS. PROCESS uses an ordinary least squares regression-based path analytic framework for estimating direct and indirect effects. In calculating the direct and indirect effects, the output also includes the main effects.

Consistent with Hypothesis 1 and shown in Table 3, FSOP predicted coworker support, $B = .2656$, $SE = .0745$, $p = .0004$. As shown in Table 4 and consistent with Hypothesis 2, coworker support predicted emotional exhaustion, $B = -.4117$, $SE = .0739$, $p = .0000$. As also shown in Table 4, while approaching significance, the relationship between FSOP and emotional exhaustion was non-significant in the dependent variable model ($B = -.1515$, $SE = .0823$, $p = .0669$). These results are consistent with Hypothesis 3a but not 3b, FSOP being significant in path *a*, the significance of coworker support in path *b*, and the non-significance of FSOP in path *c*. These results indicate a full rather than partial mediation.

I conducted formal significance tests of the indirect effect (Hypothesis 3a) in order to test the mediation hypothesis. This is the product of the regression coefficient of the mediator *M* regressed on the predictor *X* (path *a* in Figure 1) and the regression coefficient of the criterion *Y* regressed on the mediator *M* (path *b* in Figure 1) while controlling for *X*. In order to test the significance of the indirect effect, PROCESS utilizes bootstrapped confidence intervals. Bootstrapping is resampling from the sample rather than from the population itself. I used the bootstrapping at 10,000 resamples with a 95% confidence interval. The standard is that when the

95% confidence interval range does not include zero, the effect sizes are considered significant. Because the test of the indirect effect uses the product of the regression coefficients, the distribution would be non-normal. Using bootstrapping in this case is advantageous, as it is robust against violations of assumptions that can normally be related with a theoretical sampling distribution. It is more robust compared to other methods due to it resampling from the data, which allows it to provide better estimates of standard errors and confidence intervals. For the conditional indirect effect, PROCESS includes estimates for the indirect effect of X on Y for various levels of the moderator in addition to bootstrap confidence intervals. PROCESS includes effect estimates of the indirect effect a standard deviation below the mean, at the mean, and one standard deviation above the mean for the moderator. As shown in Table 5 and consistent with Hypothesis 3a, FSOP is indirectly negatively related to emotional exhaustion through coworker support ($b = -.1093$, 95% CI $[-.1951, -.0429]$).

For the moderation mediation hypotheses, I employed PROCESS to conduct a moderated path analysis to integrate moderation and mediation tests (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). These results are presented in Tables 3 and 4. Inconsistent with Hypothesis 4a and as shown in Table 3, the FSOP x procedural justice cross-product term approached significance in the mediator variable model ($B = .0969$, $SE = .0532$, $p = .0698$). In contrast, results in Table 4 supported Hypothesis 4b; the coworker support x procedural justice cross-product term was significant in the dependent variable model ($B = .1464$, $SE = .0539$, $p = .0261$). I present the interaction in Figure 3. As shown there, the relationship is stronger among those experiencing low procedural justice. Inconsistent with Hypothesis 4c, FSOP x procedural justice cross-product term did not predict emotional exhaustion ($B = -.0311$, $SE = .0596$, $p = .6025$).

Chapter IV

Discussion

As I predicted, FSOP was positively related to coworker support. An organization with a culture that is family-supportive encourages employees to care for one another and take interest in each other's roles both inside and outside of work. Fostering these higher-quality relationships is likely to yield high coworker support. In contrast, organizations that have low FSOP most likely have a culture that emphasizes work values and work roles. This type of culture does not encourage employees to demonstrate interest in their fellow coworkers outside of work contexts and leads to lower coworker support.

Also as hypothesized, coworker support is negatively related to emotional exhaustion. Employees who have high amounts of coworker support are receiving resources as part of this support system. Gathering and having access to more resources positions employees to better handle stressors and avoid becoming emotionally exhausted. Employees who have low amounts of coworker support have fewer resources to cope with current and future stressors.

The results are consistent with the hypothesis that FSOP has an indirect negative effect on emotional exhaustion through coworker support. Organizations with high levels of FSOP encourage high-quality interpersonal relationships and foster high levels of coworker support. This, in turn, allows employees to better retain and build resources that they can then utilize to more effectively cope with stressors. I did not find a direct effect of FSOP on emotional exhaustion and can therefore conclude that this is a fully mediational model.

The data revealed that focusing on main effects would be misleading. The relationship between coworker support and emotional exhaustion (path *b*) is stronger among employees experiencing low rather than high procedural justice. The employees most negatively affected

are those that have low coworker support and low procedural justice. They are the most emotionally exhausted, as they receive little support from coworkers and perceive that the organization care little about them. When coworker support is low, it is imperative for the organization to have high levels of procedural justice in order to attenuate the relationship between low coworker support and employee emotional exhaustion. While these employees may not receive resources from their coworkers, having high levels of procedural justice aids the employee by providing fairness, which is a type of support in itself, and gives the impression that the organization cares about them.

This work expands upon previous research by examining emotional exhaustion as an outcome of FSOP, whereas previously it had been mostly examined with such outcomes as work commitment, turnover, job satisfaction, and work-family conflict. By examining emotional exhaustion as an outcome, we gain deeper insight into how FSOP affects employee well-being. Additionally, I examined the role of coworker support in explaining how FSOP is negatively related to employee emotional exhaustion. This expands upon previous literature, as coworker support has methodologically been examined as part of other constructs rather than on its own, obscuring its potential role. However, it is a critical component of the working environment, and its potential impact warrants further examination.

I also demonstrated the impact that procedural justice can have in this psychological process. While this study demonstrates the positive outcome of FSOP on employee well-being, relatively little research has examined it in a justice framework. Results demonstrated the influence that procedural justice has in conjunction with coworker support in diminishing emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, the results support the role of COR and social exchange theories in family literature.

Practical Implications

While these results have theoretical implications, they can also be applied to practical use. As past research and the current study demonstrate, FSOP can have an important impact on employees, particularly on their well-being. It would be of utility to ensure that there is a high level of FSOP. In addition to providing policies and benefits that are family-supportive, organizations should take steps to encourage behaviors that reflect family values to promote supporting employees' needs outside of work. Examples include colleagues taking an interest in fellow employees' lives, demonstrating concern for colleagues' family members, and offering help at work when needed so that colleagues can take care of family issues such as sick children.

Additionally, in order to enhance the beneficial effects of FSOP, it is important for organizations to strive for fairness in the workplace, particularly via procedural justice. Without procedural justice, the positive benefits of other policies may be hindered. It is important to not only enforce procedural justice in general, but especially in relation to family benefits and support. Because family benefits may function under a need-based justice rule which can differ from the organization's typical justice rules, it is important to ensure that fairness is also perceived related to family benefits. Organizations can accomplish by being transparent about how the policies and rules function in granting employees such benefits. Organizations can also offer policies that can benefit all employees regardless of their family status, such as flextime, so that everyone potentially feel as if they can benefit.

Limitations

I emphasize four limitations. First, replication is needed with a larger sample size. Additionally, in order to test the generalizability of these results, I recommend examining different occupations and industries, as this one was focused on academia. Second, the data are

cross-sectional, meaning that I cannot imply causation. It is possible that some of the relationships are inversed. For example, coworker support could be an antecedent to FSOP. As coworkers can embody the organization, individuals may be taking context from social interactions and thus perceive the organization to be family supportive. Third, the data were self-reported, which means that common method variance is a potential issue. This occurs when data were collected from a single source using the same method, and therefore could inflate relationships among the constructs. While the likelihood of same-source bias is small, I encourage future researchers to collect data from other sources such as supervisors, colleagues, and family members.

A fourth limitation is the measurement of some of the scales. For example, the procedural justice scale has items that reflect procedural justice with respect to the general merit process, rather than to rewards that are specific to family needs. While generally an organization that has an overall high procedural justice will typically have a high procedural justice for more specific benefits and rewards, it can still be informative to examine if the fairness of family benefits is different or if it skews general procedural justice views. The FSOP scale can be misleading if participants have not properly read the instructions. In the prompt and items, I specified that participants were to think about beliefs in the department, but it is possible for participants to have answered the questions in regards to their own personal beliefs. Building on this limitation, this study lacked a manipulation check to ensure that employees understood and answered the FSOP items in regards to the organizational perspective. Last, our coworker scale was adapted from the POS scale. However, in past research there is not a consistently-used coworker support scale, as it has been mixed in as a part of other constructs. While the scale measures coworker

support, it does not differentiate between emotional concern and instrumental aid given. Ideally, our version of the coworker support scale should be further validated.

Future Directions

While I did not have sufficient data to study this psychological process as a multilevel model, it would be noteworthy to conduct future studies in order to capture it from a workgroup context. Doing so would account for differences between groups. For example, FSOP could be examined at a group level. Furthermore, it would be beneficial to do a longitudinal study in order to determine causality and direction of effects. Additionally, in a longitudinal study it would be possible to track changes in perceptions and how this affects outcomes. Researchers could examine how different workgroups and departments may change over time as they implement new initiatives, to see if there are benefits and improvements and check if there is a diminishing return on the effects over time.

It would also be worthwhile to further examine the role of coworker support by altering the scale to distinguish between emotional concern and instrumental aid. In this manner, we can compare if FSOP tends to lead to one type of support over the other and if one is more effective in reducing emotional exhaustion. While supervisory support has been shown to have positive benefits and our results demonstrate that coworker support is negatively related to emotional exhaustion, it would be beneficial in future studies to examine if coworker support has incremental value over supervisory support.

Finally, while the results indicate that FSOP is beneficial for employees' well-being, I encourage researchers to examine other outcomes, such as employee performance and safety behaviors. I suggest that employees that have organizational help and support to meet demands both inside and outside of work will be able to effectively perform job tasks and have higher performance than those who do not receive such support. Along the same lines, those who have more resources to effectively cope with various demands will have more resources to help

themselves adhere to safety behaviors and be more aware of potential accidents. Additionally, employees that feel that the organization cares about them may reciprocate by engaging in more safety behaviors in order to reward the organization.

Conclusion

Considering the changing family dynamic and the changing needs of individuals, it is important to study the process that FSOP has on employee's well-being and the role that coworker support plays in this process. The results highlight the importance of providing procedural justice along with a family-supportive environment in order to improve employee well-being.

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Table 1

Intercorrelation Matrix

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
FSOP	3.820	.693	.775				
Coworker Support	3.485	.889	.274**	.923			
Emotional Exhaustion	2.585	.948	-.245**	-.516**	.886		
Procedural Justice	3.493	1.238	.185**	.529**	-.396**	.915	
Rank	2.010	.757	.026	-.034	-.122	.074	-

Note. N= 221. Cronbach alphas are in the diagonal.

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

Table 2

Standardized and Squared Factor Loadings from Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Parameter	Method Latent Factor		Trait Latent Factor	
	Standardized	Squared	Standardized	Squared
<u>Rank</u>				
RANKSURV	0.125	0.02	0.525	0.28
<u>Emotional Exhaustion</u>				
EMOEX1	-0.508	0.26	0.729	0.53
EMOEX2	-0.406	0.16	0.682	0.47
EMOEX3	-0.45	0.20	0.601	0.36
EMOEX4	-0.385	0.15	0.557	0.31
EMOEX5	-0.476	0.23	0.638	0.41
<u>FSOP</u>				
FSOP1R	-0.104	0.01	0.422	0.18
FSOP2R	0.203	0.04	0.673	0.45
FSOP3R	0.36	0.13	0.465	0.22
FSOP4R	0.219	0.05	0.743	0.55
FSOP5R	0.173	0.03	0.634	0.40
FSOP6R	0.145	0.02	0.608	0.37
<u>Coworker Support</u>				
PCS1	0.751	0.56	0.418	0.17
PCS2R	0.802	0.64	-0.204	0.04
PCS3	0.736	0.54	0.386	0.15
PCS4	0.759	0.58	0.445	0.20
PCS5	0.712	0.51	0.321	0.10
PCS6R	0.702	0.49	0.081	0.01
PCS7	0.818	0.67	0.369	0.14
<u>Procedural Justice</u>				
PJ1	0.613	0.38	0.645	0.42
PJ2	0.563	0.32	0.736	0.54
PJ3	0.426	0.18	0.74	0.55

Note. FSOP= Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions.

Table 3

Mediator Variable Model: Coworker Support Regressed on the Predictors

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Constant	2.5258	.1413	1.1633
FSOP	.2656	.0745	3.5658**
Procedural Justice	.3664	.0411	8.9157**
FSOP x Procedural Justice	.0969	.0532	1.8221
Rank	.0829	.0421	1.9665*

Note. $R^2 = .3329$, $F(4/215) = 26.8171$.

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

Table 4

Dependent Variable Model: Emotional Exhaustion Regressed on the Predictors.

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Constant	2.3290	.1217	19.1320**
Coworker Support	-.4117	.0739	-5.5701**
FSOP	-.1515	.0823	-1.8418
Coworker Support x Procedural Justice	.1464	.0539	2.7155**
Procedural Justice	-.1152	.0514	-2.2405*
FSOP x Procedural Justice	-.0311	.0596	-.5215
Rank	.0800	.0455	.0799*

Note. $R^2 = .3273$, $F(6/213) = 17.2732$.

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

Table 5

Conditional Indirect Effects of FSOP at Low, Average, and High Levels of Procedural Justice

Procedural Justice	Effect	Boot <i>SE</i>	Boot <i>LLCI</i>	Boot <i>ULCI</i>
Low	-.0864	.0635	-.1966	.0487
Average	-.1093	.0379	-.1951	-.0429
High	-.0889	.0510	-.2064	-.0107

Note. *LLCI* = Lower Limit Confidence Interval; *ULCI* = Upper Limit Confidence Interval.

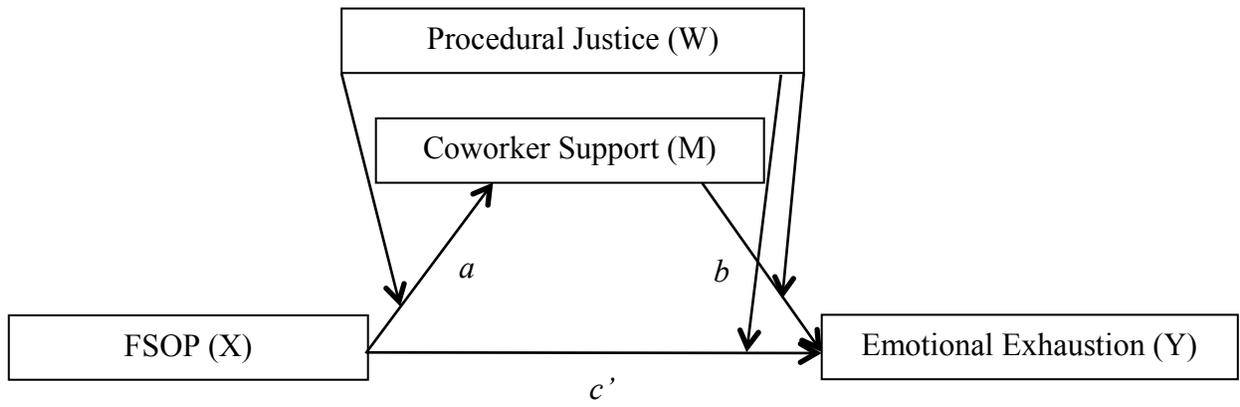


Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model.

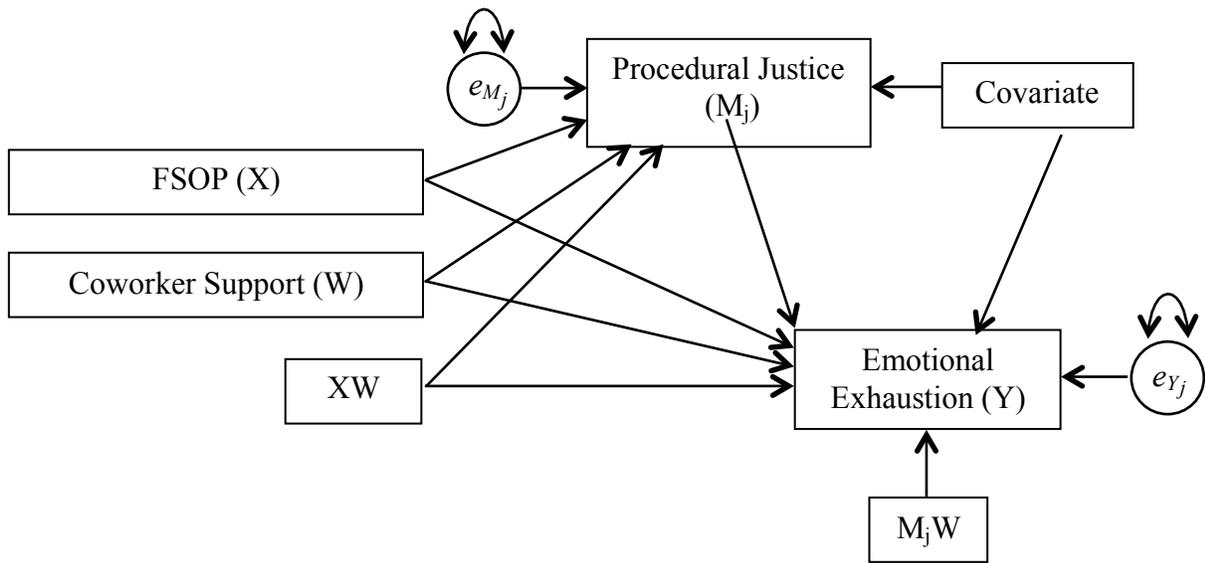


Figure 2. Proposed Structural Model. Covariate: Rank.

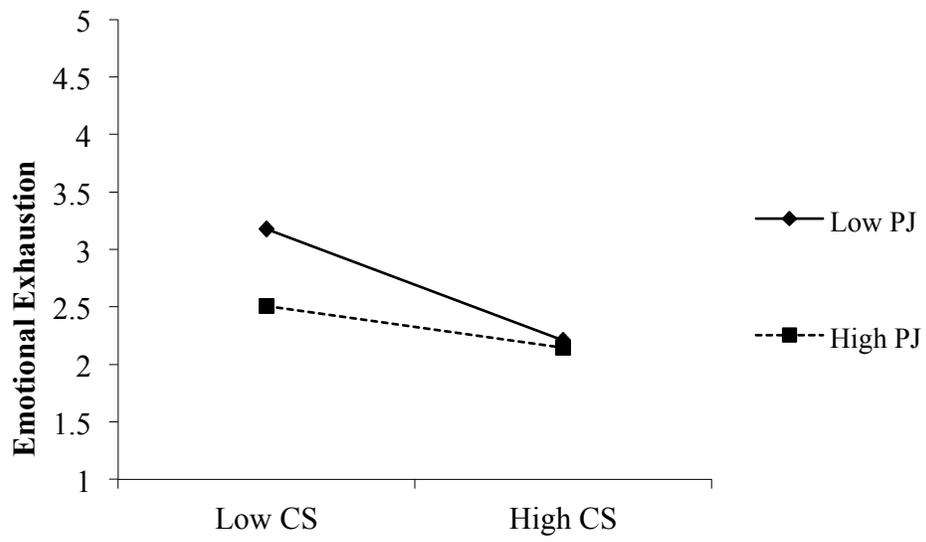


Figure 3. Results of Stage Two of the Mediation (Hypothesis 4b): Emotional Exhaustion Regressed on the Predictors.

Appendix A

Family-Supportive Organizational Perception (Allen, 2001)

Prompt:

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

1. In my department, faculty who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to their work.
2. In my department, attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children, is frowned upon.
3. In my department, faculty who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work.
4. In my department, it is assumed that the most productive faculty are those who put their work before their family life.
5. In my department, the ideal faculty member is the one who is available 24 hours a day.

Appendix B

Coworker Support (Eisenberger et al., 1986)

1. My colleagues strongly consider my goals and values.
2. My colleagues fail to appreciate any extra effort from me.
3. My colleagues really care about my well-being.
4. My colleagues take pride in my accomplishments at work.
5. My colleagues care about my opinions.
6. My colleagues show very little concern for me.
7. My colleagues are willing to extend themselves to help me perform to the best of my ability.

Appendix C

Emotional Exhaustion Scale (Maslach et al., 1996)

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. Working all day is really a strain for me.
5. I feel burned out from work.

Appendix D

Procedural Justice (Colquitt, 2001)

1. Has the merit review process been applied consistently?
2. Has the merit review process been free of bias?
3. Has the merit review process been based on accurate information?