WHEN WORKPLACE FAMILY-SUPPORT IS MISALLOCATED: THE

IMPORTANCE OF VALUE CONGRUENCE AND FAIRNESS PERCEPTIONS IN

PREDICTING WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND JOB ATTITUDES

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A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department

of Psychology

University of Houston

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In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

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By

Lisa W. Sublett

May 2014

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Lisa W. Sublett

APPROVED:

_____

Lisa M. Penney, Ph.D.
Committee Chair

_____

James Campion, Ph.D.

_____

Emily M. Hunter, Ph.D.
Baylor University

</div>

_____
John W. Roberts, Ph.D.
Dean, College of Liberal Arts and Social Sciences
Department of English

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ABSTRACT

To better manage our work demands and family demands, we often erect mental or physical "borders" to help us provide order to our experience. However, the preference for how we preserve these borders differs across individuals (i.e., preference to segment or integrate work and family roles). Because supervisors and their support play a huge role in work-family balance, the current study investigated how having work-family values with respect to segmentation-integration that are congruent with one's supervisor can lessen work-family conflict, through the receipt of appropriate work-family support. The present study used fairness perceptions of workplace family-support as an explanation for this process. With a sample of 815 staff members at a southern University, I analyzed the model and hypotheses. The results of the study indicate that value congruence is negatively related to work-family conflict, and positively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment. Furthermore, with analyzing the model in PROCESS (Preacher & Hayes, 2009), the results support partial mediation for both fairness perceptions and work-family conflict as mediators in the model. Several supplemental analyses were also conducted, which examined other serial mediation, moderation, and moderated-mediation models. The full results of these supplemental analyses and analyses performed by subpopulations (e.g., married with children, employees over forty years of age) are provided in detail.

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When workplace family-support is misallocated: The importance of value congruence

and fairness perceptions in predicting work-family conflict and job attitudes

Our roles at work and home are both pivotal parts of our lives. Each role aids us to gain self-concept and meaning, satisfaction, and self-esteem (Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, being a productive and successful employee may fill one's need for competence, while being a loving and fulfilling spouse satisfies the need for relatedness (Warner & Hausdorf, 2009). Because a typical workday requires a person to juggle multiple roles that are often demanding and in conflict with each other, individuals must develop coping mechanisms to manage the demands associated with each role (Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2009; Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). Mental, physical, and emotional boundaries are often erected between work life and home life to provide employees with a "means of simplifying and ordering the environment" (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000, p. 3).

Work-family conflict is a highly researched area in the fields of Industrial-Organizational Psychology, Human Resources, and Management (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Kinnunen, Feldt, Mauno, & Rantanen, 2010). Work-family conflict occurs when family demands and job demands are incompatible, and where one or both family and job suffers. Employees experiencing work-family conflict experience amplified strain and have higher rates of absenteeism (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003), burnout (Kelloway, Gotlieb, & Barham, 1999), and depression (Vinokur, Pierce, & Buck, 1999). Employees may elect to cope with work-family conflict by either segmenting (keeping separate) or integrating these roles to more effectively balance these conflicting demands.

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The choice to evoke a segmentation or integration strategy is largely based on personal preference. For instance, by choosing to segment work and family roles (i.e., creating an inflexible and well-defined boundary), an employee may avoid experiencing negative spillover among the dueling roles. Past research also demonstrates that the organization and supervisor can provide support (e.g., supervisors may provide emotional or instrumental support) that mitigates the effects of work-family conflict (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; O'Driscoll, Poelmans, Spector, Kalliath, Allen, Cooper, & Sanchez, 2003). However, recent research suggests only 36% of U.S. workers are satisfied with workplace family-support (Clay, 2011). The declining trend in worker satisfaction with family support (42% were satisfied in 2009) is somewhat surprising given the increased attention organizations and researchers have paid to the issue of work-family conflict in recent years. One potential explanation is that supervisors and subordinates may have different and sometimes incompatible preferences for managing work and family roles. Thus, the question remains: What happens when the supervisor's and subordinate's own work-family balancing strategies are incongruous?

Having a congruent work-family balance strategy with one's supervisor can lead to many beneficial outcomes, one of which is reducing work-family conflict for the employee. For instance, supervisors often act as the prime allocators of work-family support as they implement company-wide family policies (e.g., supervisor must approve an employee's new flexible schedule). Thus, when a supervisor has congruent values with his or her subordinate, the supervisor will likely provide the most appropriate work-family support for his or her subordinate which can diminish work-family conflict. However, the link and mediating process between supervisor-employee value congruence

and work-family conflict has been largely unexamined (noted exception, Pan & Yeh, 2012). That is, we do not fully understand why value-congruence regarding boundary management strategies might reduce work-family conflict. Therefore, the primary goal of the current study was to examine the process through which value congruence for segmentation and integration with the supervisor reduces work-family conflict, and, in turn, improve job satisfaction and affective commitment (see Figure 1). Specifically, I hypothesized that value congruence is negatively related to work-family conflict, through the allocation of suitable (i.e., fairer) work-family support. In other words, when subordinates have a better fit of values with their supervisor, the supervisor is more likely to allocate more appropriate work-family support that effectively assist the subordinates' balancing of work and family responsibilities based on the employees' personal needs and preferences.

Furthermore, in an effort to answer the call by Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, and Zimmerman (2011) for researchers to "examine the . . . [relationship between family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB)] . . . and family-to-work interaction" (p. 147), I examined whether family-supportive supervisor behaviors strengthen the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions of workplace family-support. This relatively new construct, family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB), combines four dimensions that encompass family-specific supportive techniques: emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling behaviors, and creative work-family management. I suggest that the specific actions of the supervisor may affect the degree to which value congruence influences employees' perception of work-family support fairness. And so, the secondary goal of this study was to investigate whether

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family-supportive supervisor behaviors (Hammer et al., 2011) moderates the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions.

This study makes a unique contribution beyond past work-family research (e.g., Pan & Yeh, 2012) by examining how value congruence can impact work-family conflict through the fair allocation of workplace family-support from the supervisor. I also build on Pan and Yeh's work by extending their model to demonstrate how value congruence with a supervisor influences important job attitudes such as job satisfaction and affective commitment. In doing so, I add the literature by demonstrating the importance of employees' value congruence with their supervisor based on work-family boundary preferences and supervisor behavior for diminishing work-family conflict and by extension, improving job attitudes that are related to performance. Managers will gain much from this research because it will identify what supervisorial support and behaviors (i.e., family-supportive supervisor behaviors) could enable employees to better cope with the stressors of family demands and work-family conflict which affect the majority of employees (Williams & Boushey, 2010). Also, if upper-level managers can effectively provide interventions for supervisors to understand how to fairly allocate workplace family-support, all employees should benefit and experience higher job satisfaction and higher affective commitment to the organization.

To fully explain my theoretical rationale for my model, I first provide background on the hypothesized predictors of work-family conflict. The next section provides a review of the literature on boundary theory and preference for integration and segmentation. I then explain how congruence of these preferences with a supervisor affects job-related outcomes: work-family conflict, and by extension, job satisfaction and

affective commitment. Lastly, I expound on the theoretical rationale for the moderating effect of family-supportive supervisor behaviors (see Figure 1).

Work-Family Conflict

Researchers in several fields have given much well-deserved attention to the interface between work and family (Amstad et al., 2011; Kinnunen et al., 2010). Because family and work both demand attention, time, and energy on a daily basis, conflict can occur when these resources are insufficient to manage these dueling demands. Many individuals find the conflict between family-life and work-life ever complicated and increasingly stressful and straining.   The literature regards an incompatibility between work demands and family demands as "work-family conflict" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Researchers of work-family conflict define the construct as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) describe three types of work-family conflict: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based. Each of these types of work-family conflict can stem from either home or work. Time-based conflict is inevitable because everyone is bounded by a certain number of working hours in a day. In other words, when a person spends his or her time on activities in the home, it inevitably means they cannot spend that time on work tasks. Conversely, strain-based conflict occurs when the roles of work and family are incompatible and create strain for employees who are not able to handle all that family and work domains demand. For example, the anxiety one feels at work may cross the work-family boundary and create anxiety at home as well. Lastly, behavior-based conflict occurs when the pressures of behaving in a certain way in one

role conflicts with the behavioral pressures in another. For example, an overly-lenient and permissible manager may fail to get the job done but be a loving father to his children. These behaviors for separate life roles (manager, father) are conflicting if used in an inappropriate setting. Thus, it takes more effort and self-awareness in order to incorporate appropriate behaviors in the correct setting. These types of work-family conflict are prevalent in today's workers and have been shown to lead to some detrimental consequences for the individual employees and organization.

Consequences of Work-Family Conflict

Balancing personal and work demands is an almost universal problem and can often negatively affect one's work behaviors (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000). Examples of organizational consequences stemming from employee work-family conflict include higher rates of absenteeism (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003), job dissatisfaction (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Kinnunen, Geurts, & Mauno, 2004), and suffered productivity (Witt & Carlson, 2006). Furthermore, work-family conflict can result in physiological ailments. Occupational health researchers report that employees with high work-family conflict may experience higher burnout, depression, substance abuse, and work and family-related strain (Allen, 2001). Work-family conflict also exacerbates objectively measured health and sleep outcomes (Crain, Hammer, Bodner, Kossek, & Buxton, April 2013). For example, employees who experience work-family conflict maintain poorer sleep quality and duration, and consequently have poorer self-regulation. Attitudinal consequences of work-family conflict can also occur including lower family satisfaction and life satisfaction (Allen, 2001).

Beyond affecting the employee's own life, the employee's balance between work and family can also spill over and affect his or her spouse. For example, Carlson, Ferguson, Perrewé, and Whitten (2011) found evidence that work-family conflict experienced by the employee leads to greater relationship tension (between the employee and spouse) which then indirectly diminishes family satisfaction and family functioning.

While some researchers have focused on spousal and organizational consequences of work-family conflict, most work-family researchers have focused on the personal consequences, such as employee attitudes and behaviors. One such commonly studied consequence of work-family conflict is decreased job satisfaction. Overall job satisfaction, defined as one's overall satisfaction with his or her job, is one of the most commonly studied job attitudes (Ford et al., 2007; Grandey, 2005; Kinnunen, Geurts, & Mauno, 2004). With persons experiencing work-family conflict, job dissatisfaction occurs because employees experience discomfort with family roles interfering with their work or their work role interfering with family. In other words, employees may blame their job for not allowing sufficient resources and time to enjoy their non-work lives.

Another commonly studied outcome or work-family conflict is lessened organizational commitment. Commitment to the organization is generally studied under the three-component model (TCM; Allen & Meyer, 1990): affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. All three types of commitment refer to an employee's intent to stay at a particular organization. Affective commitment refers to the emotional connection with the organization, in which a person stays because they "want to." Conversely, employees with continuance commitment stay at an organization because they "need to." Normative commitment refers to the intent to stay

at an organization because one "ought to." Due to the critiques of normative and continuance commitment (Solinger, van Olffen, & Role, 2008), affective commitment remains the main dimension of interest for many researchers. In particular, research in the work-family realm has studied decreased affective commitment as a consequence of work-family conflict (e.g., Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008; Treadway, Duke, Perrewé, Breland, & Goodman, 2011). Also, because the present study investigates the effects of social support (i.e., family-supportive supervisor behavior), I focus on the "affective component" as supervisor and coworker support, both prime examples of social support in the workplace, have been found to be positively related to affective commitment (e.g., Cohen & Wills, 1985; Rousseau & Aubé, 2010).

Theories of Work-Family Conflict

There are many theories regarding work-family conflict, all of which attempt to explain the phenomenon in which employees experience strain due to conflicting demands from work and home. The most common theories that describe how work-family conflict affects work- and family-related consequences deal with resource allocation (i.e., conservation of resource theory, JD-R model).

The first often-cited theory is conservation of resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989). Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) suggested that the COR model might offer a theoretical guide to understanding the work–family literature (as cited in Allen, 2001). According to COR theory, everyone is equipped with a finite supply of resources (e.g., energies, time, and effort) that can be given away or replenished through different mechanisms. Due to the restrictions of hours in the day and physical stamina, employees may not have enough time and energy to distribute to the work- and non-work domains.

As mentioned previously, both work and family demands use resources. When work and/or family demands deplete employees' resource supply, employees are more sensitive to subsequent stressors which intensify physiological and emotional strain due to increased levels of actual or preemptive stress. Previous literature has found these consequential strains (e.g., burnout) can evolve as decreased job satisfaction (e.g., Rubino, Perry, Milam, Spitzmueller, & Zapf, 2012) or impaired engagement (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). Both concurrently and longitudinally, work-family conflict is negatively related to subjective wellbeing. Thus, work-family conflict has a negative impact on job satisfaction and affective commitment when resources are depleted.

Another similar model that provides rationale for work-family conflict and its detrimental outcomes is the job demands-resource model (JD-R; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to the JD-R model, in order to handle job demands, perform well, and experience less strain (i.e., physical or emotional effort exerted for tasks at work), one must have an adequate supply of resources (e.g., time, effort). The JD-R model states that when job demands increase (e.g., work-family conflict) or job resources decrease (e.g., less supervisor support) employees may experience negative outcomes such as job dissatisfaction and burnout. For example, when family demands deplete one's resources, dealing with job demands becomes more challenging and straining. However, supervisor and organizational family-support may decrease work-family conflict by increasing the resources that employees can use to handle job demands.

When resources are insufficient to handle work and family demands, resource loss spirals can occur in which resource loss decreases motivation, increases burnout, and

decreases emotional well-being. Resource loss spirals are typical in a work-family

context because both work and family roles are demanding and draining upon one's

resources. Demerouti, Bakker, and Bulters (2004) describe the process through which a

resource loss spiral can arise in a work-family context. First, work pressure leads to

work-home interference (i.e., work-family conflict), which in turn leads to emotional

exhaustion. In turn, greater exhaustion leads to even more work-home interference and

work pressure over an extended period of time. Given this very real threat to resources,

to prevent potential resource loss spirals (Hobfoll, 2001), organizations may provide

resources through several means. For example, research has shown that family-

supportive organizational environments give the family-conflicted employee more

resources to juggle both family and job demands (Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005).

Examples of such resources include work-family benefits such as flextime (i.e., variable

work schedule), job-sharing (i.e., two or more people work part-time to fulfill a job

normally filled by one person working full-time), and on-site childcare.

  According to work-family researchers, organizations that provide family-support

are likely to create family-supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP; Booth &

Matthews, 2012). FSOP are employee perceptions regarding how family-supportive the

organization is. FSOP is similar to perceived organizational support (Eisenberger,

Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986), which is defined as an employee's "global

beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and care

about their well-being" (p. 501). Results from a study by Allen (2001) show that FSOP

mediates the relationship between family-friendly benefits or policies and work-family

conflict. Thus, the Allen study reveals that the presence of family-friendly policies

creates employee perceptions that the organization is supportive of employee attempts to balance work and family demands which in turn reduce work-family conflict.

Furthermore, Thomas and Ganster (1995) described the mechanism through which FSOP may provide resources to employees. They found that "supportive practices, especially flexible scheduling and supportive supervisors, had direct positive effects on employee perceptions of control over work and family matters" (p. 6). Thus, the effectiveness of family-friendly policies lies in their ability to increase employee control over family and work responsibilities. For example, flexible scheduling provides employees with the means necessary to have greater control over when they handle family demands such as dropping their kids off at school or attending parent-teacher meetings. The increased sense of control then lessens work-family conflict and its detrimental outcomes (e.g., burnout, job dissatisfaction). Thomas and Ganster's (1995) results indicate that higher control perceptions of the employees, a consequence of effective organizational family-friendly policies, have significant implications for lowering strain such as work-family conflict, job dissatisfaction, depression, and high blood cholesterol. These results have been replicated by many (e.g., Lapierre & Allen, 2006; 2012).

Just as effective family-friendly policies can help alleviate the work-family conflict of employees, supervisor support is also critical in predicting work-family conflict. Worrying about and caring for family consumes many crucial resources of employees which in turn reduce the availability of resources for productivity-related activities. The vital support of a supervisor provides a way to replace resources lost due to work-family conflict.

Social support theory (Cohen & Wills, 1985) proposes an explanation of how support from the supervisor acts as a resource. Specifically, supervisors can provide interpersonal support through listening, caring, and empathizing (i.e., social resources) that enable the employee to adequately handle stressors and be more resistant to strain (e.g., Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007). Indeed, researchers (e.g., Lu, Kao, Chang, Wu, & Cooper, 2008) have found that employees with supportive supervisors report less work-family conflict. One explanation, using social-exchange theory (Blau, 1964), suggests employees simply report less work-family conflict when supported by their supervisor (Liao, 2011). Nevertheless, the support from one's supervisor is pivotal for employees striving to find balance between their work and family lives.

In sum, a number of predictors of work-family conflict have been identified, including insufficient supervisor support (Hammer et al., 2007; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011), and ineffective or nonexistent organizational work-family benefits and policies such as FSOP (Allen, 2001; Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Parker & Allen, 2001). Because both supervisors and organizations play a pivotal role in delegating responsibilities and supplying resources to employees, their actions (e.g., work-family support, work-family policies, work-family benefits, and family-friendly culture) can greatly influence work-family conflict.

While organizational and supervisor family-support are common predictors of work-family conflict, recent research suggests that individual differences may influence employee reactions to family-support. For example, men (Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994; Livingston & Judge, 2008), childless employees (Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga,

2007), employees caring for elderly parents (Gautun & Hagen, 2010), unmarried parents (Casper et al., 2007; Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994), and older workers (Davis, 2011) may experience differing types of work-family conflict and thus respond to family-friendly support in various manners. That is, these subpopulations (e.g., men, childless employees) experience different needs in regards to family support and react to organizational family-friendly cultures and benefits in diverse ways. For example, childless employees who are looked over for promotions that favor others with families and thus more perceived financial obligations may view a family-friendly culture as unfair (Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga, 2007). As a result, organizations can experience negative reactions and backlash from those who do not receive the correct type of organizational family support (Rothausen, Gonzalez, Clarke, & O'Dell, 1998).

Employees are diverse and have differing needs when it comes to family-support. In fact, these varying needs may explain why the majority of U.S. workers are dissatisfied with their current workplace family support provided by their employer (Clay, 2011). It is imperative, then, that managers understand the importance of matching family-supportive techniques to the needs of their employees. While many have studied the attitudes of employee subpopulations (e.g., single, childless, or older employees), work-family researchers have just begun to uncover yet another individual difference that affects employees' reactions to workplace family-support. Specifically, employees may differ in how they prefer to manage and maintain the boundaries between family and work roles, and these preferences may influence how employees respond to workplace family-support. For instance, employees may prefer to segment or integrate their work and family roles to better cope with their dueling demands (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark,

2000). Based upon preference for "segmenting" or "integrating" roles, employees may have positive or negative attitudes toward workplace family-support.

Boundary Theory

The theories behind work-family conflict stem from the idea that individuals must balance the resources (e.g., time, energies) required by various roles in their lives. In order to balance time and energy between work and family, for instance, mental, physical, and emotional boundaries are often erected between work life and home life to provide employees with a "means of simplifying and ordering the environment" (Ashforth et al., 2000, p. 3). These well-researched boundaries are referred to by several names, including "mental fences" (Zerubavel, 1991: 2) and "borders" (Clark, 2000).

Past researchers sought to explore these boundaries. For example, Nippert-Eng (1996) used negotiation theories to explain how employees negotiate boundaries between home and work. Later, Kossek, Noe, and DeMarr (1999) argued work-family role synthesis, the active decision-making of an employee, is used to manage roles between work and family. Kossek et al. (1999) posited that there are two major decision-making components: boundary management and role embracement. Boundary management, a term from negotiation strategies (Nippert-Eng, 1995), describes the "strategies, principles, and practices one uses to organize and separate role demands and expectations into specific realms of home and work" (Kossek et al., 1999, p. 106). Role embracement (i.e., intensity) refers to the amount of resources a person chooses to devote to family and work roles.

Despite the explanations offered by Nippert-Eng (1995) and Kossek et al. (1999), work-family research called for a more concrete theory of boundary management.

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Boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000) and border theory (Clark, 2000) arose at the same time at the turn of the millennium. These theories offer complex explanations regarding the seemingly thin and elusive "boundaries" or "borders" we strive to maintain between our family and work roles.

Border theory, as termed by Clark (2000), maintains there are "borders" between family and work life. Boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000) speculates that individuals have specific preferences for the constitution of boundaries between work and personal domains. Employees must actively manage these boundaries between work and family on a daily basis in order to balance the resources allocated to both arenas. For simplicity's sake, I will refer to both boundary theory and border theory as "boundary theory" throughout.

The most salient example of boundary management is through a process termed role transitions. Ashforth et al. (2000) discuss micro-transitions, which are daily occurrences of transitioning from the roles at home and at work. Rather recently in history, this transition was straightforward, as it usually consisted of an employee picking up his or her briefcase and driving home or to work. Today, due to advances in technology, micro-transitions between roles can happen at any time and often without warning (Park, Fritz, & Jex, 2011; Park & Jex, 2011; Winkel & Clayton, 2010). For example, today, a micro-transition can occur at work with a simple phone call from a spouse or at home as employees answer work e-mails that arrive on smart phones (Diaz, Chiaburu, Zimmerman, & Boswell, 2012). An employee can be provoked by these stimuli to mentally or even physically transition to a work role or family role.

Ashforth et al. (2000) explain how role transitions consist of three components: role exit, movement, and role entry. Role exit is when a person psychologically (or physically) disengages from one role. The exiting of a role is usually triggered by cues, both externally and internally. External cues include interruptions or completions of tasks while involved in a role. For example, a working person may hear a "ping" of a new work e-mail which interrupts a family dinner. Furthermore, examples of internal cues can be a sense of exhaustion or guilt in one role which often drives one to exit the role.

After engaging in role exit, individuals must cross the bridge to the other role through "movement" which requires mental and sometimes physical movement between work and home or vice versa. During this transition, individuals must prepare themselves cognitively and emotionally for the demands set forth by the destination role. An employee may have to transition from a task-oriented, dominating manager role at work into an attentive and supportive father at home. In this case, a stern manager may engage in role movement by excusing himself from a work meeting to go to his sick daughter's school to tenderly take her to the doctor.

Micro-transitions conclude with role entry, the entry into another role after exiting the original role. A salient, traditional example of role entry is a man opening up his front door after a long day at work and declaring, "Honey, I'm home!" In modern times, this can range anywhere from answering a child's text message while at work or returning work e-mails while eating dinner with the family. These micro-transitions occur on a daily basis, and the coping techniques of balancing these roles often differ from person to person.

Boundary Management: Segmentation and Integration

According to boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000), employees' boundaries vary in flexibility, permeability, and role identities. Flexibility refers to the degree to which the boundaries (both spatial and temporal) are pliable (Ashforth et al., 2000, p. 474; Hall & Richter, 1988). An inflexible boundary constrains where and when roles can be enacted. Conversely, with flexible boundaries, roles can be enacted across several settings and at any time.

Permeability is the degree to which a role allows one to be physically located in the role's domain but psychologically or behaviorally involved in another role (Ashforth et al., 2000; Pleck, 1977; Richter, 1992). For example, a permeable boundary allows an employee to be at work but take a phone call from home. An employee who accepts personal calls and visits while at work has a permeable boundary between their personal and work life. Conversely, an employee might prefer not to attend to other roles. For example, while at home an employee with an impermeable boundary will make it a priority to attend solely to his or her role as father or mother and ignore (not attend to) work e-mails and phone calls.

Finally, role identities refer to "the extent that a role cues or connotes a certain persona—replete with specific goals, values, beliefs, norms, interaction styles, and time horizons" (p. 475). The contrast between roles, then, describes how compatible each role identity is with one another. Highly contrasted role identities are roles that are not compatible with one another. For example, a supervisor who must act strong and forceful is highly contrasted with the role of mother, where warmth and emotional support is valued.

Segmentation and integration are terms that refer to the degree to which a boundary is flexible and permeable, and has high versus low role identity contrast (see Figure 2). Segmented boundaries, for example, are inflexible and impermeable whereas integrated boundaries between roles are flexible and permeable. Researchers who have studied segmented and integrated boundaries have identified several differences. Eagle, Miles, and Icenogle (1997) discovered that family boundaries were more permeable than work boundaries in that demands of the work role were permitted to intrude more so in one's family role than family demands intruding on work.

Even work-family organizational policies themselves may be viewed as segmentative or integrative in nature. Grandey (2001) discusses two forms of organizational policies: segmentative policies and integrative. A segmentative policy encourages employees to prioritize work. An example of a segmentative policy is onsite childcare wherein organizations encourage employees to deal with family role demands efficiently while focusing mainly on job tasks (Grandey, 2001). In contrast, an integrative policy such as job sharing or flexible scheduling requires employees to restructure the job itself in order to execute family demands.

Boundary management (i.e., maintaining segmented or integrated boundaries) is often utilized based upon individual preference. Employees are motivated to construct their environments to match their preferences for flexible (or inflexible) and permeable (or impermeable) boundary characteristics. Those with a high preference for segmentation prefer to keep work and home separate. These employees might not talk about their family, display family pictures in their office, or take phone calls from a spouse or child while at work. Thus, "segmentators" have inflexible and impermeable

role boundaries and have high contrast for role identities (see Figure 2). Individuals with a high preference for integration between work and family can handle and often prefer such integration. "Integrators" have flexible and permeable role boundaries and have low contrast for role identities.

Segmenting and integrating work and family can have differing consequences for employees. For example, Bulger, Matthews, and Hoffman (2007) examined the segmentation-integration continuum and identified that less flexible and less permeable boundaries were related to more work-family conflict, while more flexible and more permeable boundaries were related to work-family facilitation. Work-family facilitation is often seen as the positive spillover effect of work and family; it "represents the extent to which participation at work (or home) is made easier by virtue of the experiences, skills, and opportunities gained or developed at home (or work)" (Frone, 2003, p. 145).

Researchers discovered that the congruence of these preferences for segmentation-integration and work-family policies influences job satisfaction and commitment (Chen, Powell, & Greenhaus, 2009; Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). When employees with high preference for segmentation are given work-family policies geared toward integration, satisfaction and commitment are lower than when the preference for segmentation-integration is congruent with organizational policies. Kreiner (2006) used person-environment (P-E) fit theory to demonstrate how the fit between one's preference for segmentation and the perceived segmentation provided by the organization influences work-family conflict (or work-home conflict) and job satisfaction.

Supervisors play a major role in the distribution of family support in the workplace, and as a result, play an important role in the work-family dynamic. Clark's (2000) border theory suggests that a supervisor is a "border-keeper", in that he or she "[negotiates] . . . what constitutes the domains and where the borders between them lie" (p. 762). In particular, supervisors are pivotal border-keepers because they have the most control over employees' scheduling and work demands. For this reason, Clark argues that the supervisor holds the most influence over the border between work and family for an employee. This influence over the subordinates' borders is oftentimes perceived as workplace family-support. For instance, a supervisor who allows an employee to leave a meeting to pick up his/her child from school not only influences the employee's boundary management, but also provides workplace family-support. However, supervisors who provide family-support may not always see eye-to-eye with their subordinates in regards to boundary management. For example, what happens when a supervisor is a segmentator and must manage an integrative subordinate?

Supervisor-Employee Value Congruence

The dynamic between supervisor and employee has been studied considerably over the years. Leader-member exchange (LMX) describes how supervisors develop distinctive relationships with each of their subordinates (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). LMX describes how supervisors naturally prefer some subordinates more than others, delineated as the "in-group." The "in-group" is often more liked than others based on similarity and value congruence (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997; Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Major & Morganson, 2011). For example, supervisors may like a subordinate with similar work-family values or similar personality types. Supervisors

then will offer favorable treatment to the "in-group" by providing more resources (e.g., better work assignments) and support (Major & Morganson, 2011). For example, Erdogan, Kraimer, and Liden (2004) showed that both LMX and perceived organizational support interact with work-value congruence (i.e., the degree to which an employee's personal life values match that of the organization and perceived organizational culture) to predict employee attitudes such as job satisfaction. For coping with work-family conflict, Major and Morganson (2011) emphasize how supervisors play a crucial role in providing support. They argue that through LMX, supervisors provide valuable coping resources such as distributing family-friendly policies of the organization and specific resources such as flextime and scheduling.

In the work-family context, similarity is often studied between subordinates and their supervisors. In such studies, researchers emphasize similarity based on gender and race. For example, Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, and Weer (2006) found that family-supportive supervision was highest when subordinates were similar to supervisors in both gender and race. Other research suggests that similarity on other aspects such as values is also pivotal in maintaining a beneficial supervisor-subordinate relationship. Work-family researchers have found that subordinates whose family values are congruent with their supervisors' values report less work-family conflict (Pan & Yeh, 2012) and greater job satisfaction (Thompson, Brough, & Schmidt, 2006). Thompson et al. (2006) found that both supervisor support and supervisor work–family value similarity were significantly related to decreased work–family conflict and increased job satisfaction. Supervisor's work–family value similarity had a direct, negative effect on employees' work–family conflict and a direct, positive effect on supervisor support. Furthermore, through the

indirect effect of work-family conflict, work-family value similarity affected job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion, a component of burnout. In other words, employees who share similar work-family values with their supervisor experience report higher levels of supervisor support and lower levels of work-family conflict, and work-family conflict mediated the relationships between value similarity and job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion.

Value Congruence of Preference for Segmentation-Integration

Few work-family researchers have extended the idea of value congruence to preference for segmentation and integration, although past researchers have looked at work-family value congruence in general. The research by Thompson et al. (2006), which found evidence for work-family value congruence with one's supervisor and its negative effect on work-family conflict, job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion, measured work-family value congruence with items such as "My supervisor and I have similar views regarding work-family issues." The "values" with which the supervisor and employee were congruent were not clearly delineated. The present study specifically investigated how supervisor-employee value congruence based on segmentation-integration affects work-family conflict. For the sake of brevity, I henceforth refer to supervisor-employee value congruence based on the preference for segmentation-integration simply as "value congruence."

The theoretical justification for why value congruence is negatively related to work-family conflict is contingent upon COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989). When value congruence between supervisor and subordinate is high, likeability, emotional support,

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and trust are also likely to be high. Pan and Yeh (2012) described a scenario when subordinates had high value congruence with the supervisor:

> "Subordinates are more likely to disclose work-family problems to their supervisors, and supervisors are more likely to empathize with their employees' efforts to strike a balance between work and family and therefore provide more instrumental and emotional support" (p. 273-274).

According to social-support theory (Cohen & Wills, 1985), the social support of a supervisor can act as a valuable resource when handling role demands. Thus, when value congruence and supervisor support are high, resources are more plentiful and employees are less prone to experience and report work-family conflict.

Pan and Yeh (2012) studied and the effect of employee-supervisor value congruence on work-family conflict. They specifically hypothesized that perceived supervisor support (PSS) mediated the relationship between supervisor value congruence and work-family conflict. Although their mediation hypothesis was not supported, they did find a significant direct effect of supervisor-employee value congruence on work-family conflict ($r = -.13$). That is, subordinates with high value congruence with their supervisor (both high segmentators or both high integrators) reported less work-family conflict compared to employees with low value congruence with their supervisor.

Thus, to replicate these findings of Pan and Yeh (2012), I posit:

Hypothesis 1: Value congruence is negatively related to work-family conflict (see Figure 1).

Fairness Perceptions

With the exception of Pan and Yeh (2012), the mechanism through which value congruence negatively impacts work-family conflict has been largely unexplored. Drawing from employee-supervisor fit theories (Kristof-Brown, 1996; Nielson, Carlson, & Lankau, 2001), Pan and Yeh (2012) suggested that PSS mediates the relationship between value congruence (between a supervisor and employee) and work-family conflict. They argued that when value congruence is high, both the employee and supervisor benefit from a stronger and more constructive relationship due to higher fit. This more constructive relationship then acts as a social resource and decreases stressors such as work-family conflict. Pan and Yeh (2012) further reasoned:

> "Only when both parties share the same work and family values do subordinates perceive supervisor concerns for their well-being, and higher levels of supervisor support for WFC issues." (p.274)

Pan and Yeh (2012) tested their mediation hypothesis by performing a series of nested model comparisons using structural equations modeling. While they found a significant relationship between value congruence and PSS ($\beta = 0.58$, $p < .01$), they did not find a significant path between PSS and work-family conflict. Thus, they found no evidence to support their hypothesis for PSS acting as a mediator between these variables.

While Pan and Yeh's study (2012) provides a great starting point for helping researchers better understand the outcomes of high value congruence and supervisor support, their explanation of PSS as the mediating factor was not supported. One reason for their null finding may be that PSS, which is defined as "employees' general views

about the degree to which their supervisors value their contribution and care about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988), may not fully explain the value congruence-work-family conflict relationship because it's too broad in this specific context. In many other contexts, PSS has been associated with lower turnover intentions, and increased performance and commitment to the organization (Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007; Pazy & Ganzach, 2009). However, the support for work-family balance issues requires a narrower construct to explain the specific support related to work-family issues. Pan and Yeh (2012) used Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1975)'s measure of PSS, which includes very broad items such as, "my supervisor goes out of his/her way to help make my work life easier for me." However, PSS may not have explained the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict in their study because in many cases supervisors may provide adequate support for work-based tasks but either do not know how to allocate or misallocate adequate workplace family-support for their subordinates.

I suggest that when employees perceive low value congruence (based on work-family specific boundary techniques), this affects work-family conflict through the distinctive workplace family-support provided by the supervisor. Rather than generic supervisor support, it is the "right" or "fair" type of workplace family-support from the supervisor that is likely to mediate the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict. Perceived fairness of workplace family-support is defined as, "the extent to which employees perceive their supervisors as making decisions and implementing work-family policies which are: (1) equitably distributed, (2) applied consistently and

free of bias, and (3) distributed based on the personal needs and preferences of the employee (i.e., the employee has some influence over the implementation of these work-family policies)."

When employees and their supervisors maintain different values based on segmentation or integration, employees may simply perceive their supervisor's work-family support as unfair. For instance, the integrative-supervisor may try to help a segmentator-subordinate with balancing work and family demands by allowing the subordinate to telecommute (work from home). Whereas this type of support may suit an integrative subordinate, it may be perceived as unfair for a segmentative subordinate (whose needs and preferences do not match the characteristics of this type of work-family support) and could lead to frustration and higher work-family conflict. The poor fit of workplace family-support thwarts work-family balance because the support is incongruent with the employee's preferences.

Overall, past research has overwhelmingly supported the notion that employees' fairness perceptions in the workplace can impact a number of important outcomes including counterproductive work behaviors (Greenberg, 1987), job satisfaction (Loi, Yang, & Diefendorff, 2009), citizenship behaviors (Moorman, 1991), and affective commitment (Poon, 2012) and unit level productivity (Whitman, Caleo, Carpenter, Horner, & Bernerth, 2012).

The four commonly studied dimensions of organizational justice are distributive justice, interpersonal justice, procedural justice, and informational justice (Colquitt, 2001). Distributive justice refers to perceptions of fairness regarding decision outcomes (e.g., raises, promotions), whereas procedural justice is the perception of fairness

regarding the decision-making process itself. Interpersonal justice refers to employee perceptions of being treated with sincerity and respect. Lastly, informational justice refers to employees receiving adequate and honest explanations of workplace decisions.

In addition to these broad forms of justice, researchers have also examined the fairness of specific work-family policies (e.g., Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991) including work-family benefits (Parker & Allen, 2001). When organizations and supervisors provide family support that benefits some of their employees more than others, some employees may react negatively. Past research in work-family has looked at the reactions of several populations. Casper, Weltman, and Kwesiga (2007) explored single employees who do not have a spouse or children and compared them to employees with families. The researchers found that fairness perceptions regarding equal access to benefits, equal respect for non-work life, and equal work expectations were important to a "singles-friendly culture." They found that fairness perceptions of equal work opportunities were significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions among single employees without children.

Grandey (2001) described how fairness and workplace family-support are intimately related. Overall, she discussed how family-friendly policies which are integrative or segmentative in nature can be inappropriate for some employees. For example, nonusers of segmentative work-family policies such as onsite childcare may report the policies as "unfair" (p.149). Because supervisors often are the gatekeepers to these policies and distribute to subordinates, employees may find the apportioned policy-use from the supervisor as unfair if it does not directly help them with work-family balance. In a study specifically on the family-friendly policy of parental leave, Grover

(1991) found that individual characteristics, such as being of child-bearing age, having children, and having positive attitudes toward women, were positively related to fairness perceptions of parental-leave policies. Thus, Grover's (1991) and Casper, Weltman, and Kwesiga's (2007) results suggest the beneficiaries (and non-beneficiaries) of family-friendly policies make attributions regarding the fairness of such policies (i.e., fairness perceptions). In turn, these fairness perceptions can influence attitude formation in other domains (e.g., commitment) and behaviors (e.g., turnover).

Furthermore, supervisors can play a role in the fairness perceptions and attitude formations in the way they allocate workplace family-support. The justice judgment model (Leventhal, 1980) posits that supervisors act as decision-making agents. Organizations strive to choose supervisors who make fair decisions based upon unbiased and accurate information. Specifically, supervisors who are more responsive to work-family matters of their employees will fairly consider employees' input and make sure the distribution of work-family support is equitable among their subordinates. However, if a supervisor's preference for segmentation versus integration is incongruent with a subordinate's preference, the supervisor may provide work-family support that is considered unfair and misallocated by the subordinate with mismatched views of work-family support. For example, a supervisor who prefers to integrate work and family roles may provide work-family benefits to a subordinate with segmentative preferences which are mismatched. In this case, the supervisor may think that long conversations regarding family issues (an integrative support strategy) will help alleviate work-family conflict, whereas the subordinate who prefers to keep work and home life separate may feel this type of conversation is unnecessary and brazen.

Past researchers have also found that fairness perceptions affect not only attitudes and behaviors but actual stress-levels of employees, through feelings of work-family conflict. Judge and Colquitt (2004) found, for instance, that work-family conflict acted as a mediator between organizational justice and stress, such that high justice lead to decreased work-family conflict which consequently lowered stress levels. Furthermore, Grandey (2001) described how supervisors who introduce work-family policies and support fairly made sure that employees utilize the best-fit options available to them thereby increasing the resources available to employees. Therefore, high value congruence enables supervisors to provide fair and appropriate work-family support (i.e., support that fits their needs and preferences) to their subordinates. In turn, these suitable workplace family-support efforts likely decrease work-family conflict. Using this theoretical justification and extending past research findings, I hypothesize that:

> **Hypothesis 2**: Fairness perceptions of supervisors' workplace family-support mediate the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict (see Figure 1).

Value Congruence and Job Satisfaction

Value congruence should not only decrease work-family conflict, but also generate a direct influence on important employee attitudes, including job satisfaction. Theoretically, researchers describe how work-family conflict leads to job dissatisfaction through attributional blame. Attributional blame refers to how individuals psychologically attribute blame for interference between roles (Wayne, Musica, & Fleeson, 2004). For example, when work interferes with family or family interferes with

work (i.e., work-family conflict), individuals blame the job or family (the perceived source of conflict) which then leads to dissatisfaction.

Whereas job dissatisfaction is often a consequence of work-family conflict itself, it also can occur as a consequence of poor value congruence. Job dissatisfaction occurs in the case of poor value congruence because the supervisor-subordinate relationship becomes strained as supervisors are unable to provide, or are unaware of, the proper resources needed by the subordinate. Indeed, research suggests that employees who experience low value congruence at work report more job dissatisfaction (Edwards & Cable, 2009). While Edwards and Cable (2009) focused on broader life values (i.e., communication, predictability, interpersonal attraction, and trust) and their congruence with the organization, the present study looks at work-family value congruence with one's supervisor.

Supervisors often attempt to provide work-family support to their subordinates to mitigate work-family conflict. For example, Judge, Ilies, and Scott (2006) argue that supervisors can provide support in the form of role modeling in handling work-family stressors. They postulate that a supervisor who effectively deals with work-family conflict in his or her own life can aid subordinates dealing with their own work-family conflict through role modeling behaviors. When supervisors and subordinates have low value congruence, role modeling provided by the supervisor may not help the subordinate effectively cope with work-family conflict. For example, a segmenting supervisor may show how he or she handles work and family through segmentative boundary management (i.e., by having inflexible and impermeable boundaries such as not taking personal calls at work). However, when an integrating subordinate receives this type of

segmentative-role modeling, which is incongruent with their preference for integrative boundary management strategies, the subordinate may feel frustrated and dissatisfied.

Past research has shown a relationship between generic value congruence with the supervisor and job satisfaction (Thompson et al., 2006). On average, employees experiencing value congruence with their supervisors report higher job satisfaction (Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989). Value congruence with a supervisor facilitates the perception of supervisor support, which is related to job satisfaction. Following this logic, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3: Value congruence is positively related to job satisfaction.

Value Congruence and Affective Commitment

Another outcome of work-family conflict and value congruence is affective commitment, or an "employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). In a meta-analysis conducted by Edwards and Cable (2009), value congruence based on broader values (i.e., generic values including communication, predictability, interpersonal attraction, and trust) was positively related to attraction (likeability) and trust. Employees with congruent values for segmentation-integration preferences in an organization or to a supervisor should also experience greater likeability and trust with that entity. According to social-exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees will give back to the organization in the form of higher affective commitment when they feel adequately supported by their supervisors. In general, Johnson and Chang (2008) found that supervisor satisfaction was a significant predictor of affective commitment to the organization. Employees who have congruent values with their supervisors are often

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more affectively committed to the organization as a whole because they feel more supported (Pan & Yeh, 2012). Using social-exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and furthering the findings of value congruence on commitment (Johnson & Chang, 2008; Pan & Yeh, 2012), I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: Value congruence is positively related to affective commitment.

Work-Family Conflict as a Mediator

In the past, researchers have found overwhelming support that family-support from the supervisor has a huge impact on employees' rating of work-family conflict. When employees feel similar to their supervisors, particularly in regards to family values, family-support is often more accessible and helpful. When work-family values are incongruent with the supervisor, work-family conflict can occur.

Past research by Pan and Yeh (2012) and Thompson, Brough, and Schmidt (2006) show how value congruence with the supervisor has a significant impact on work-family conflict. Specifically, employees who experience greater value congruence with their supervisors report lower levels of work-family conflict. However, both studies have their limitations for our understanding of the relationship among these constructs. Firstly, Thompson et al. (2006) did not extend their study to measure specific work-family values such as segmentation-integration preferences. Conversely, whereas Pan and Yeh (2012) did research segmentation-integration value congruence, they did not extend their model to include job attitudes. To extend this research, it is essential to study potential consequences (e.g., positive job attitudes) that can occur due to high value congruence and lowered work-family conflict, such as job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Thus, building on the work of Thompson et al. (2006) and Pan and Yeh (2012), I

propose:

> **Hypothesis 5a and 5b**: Work-family conflict mediates the relationship between
>
> supervisor-employee value congruence and (a) job satisfaction and (b) affective
>
> commitment (see Figure 1).

Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors

Up until now, I have explored the direct relationship of value congruence with

fairness perceptions, describing how supervisors provide more appropriate work-family

support for the subordinates when their work-family balancing strategies are congruent.

In fact, using COR theory, value congruence itself may act as a resource for employees

because it leads to more appropriate emotional and instrumental support from one's

supervisor. However, the specific actions of the supervisor may affect the degree to

which value congruence influences employees' perception of work-family support

fairness. For instance, because supervisor family-support also acts as a resource

(Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012), according to COR theory, the effects of

experiencing both high value congruence and high reported supervisor support in

predicting work-family support fairness should be multiplicative rather than additive.

Supervisor support is an extremely important construct that affects employees'

well-being (O'Driscoll et al., 2003) and organizational citizenship behaviors (Chen &

Chiu, 2008). The support of a supervisor can help alleviate potential stresses for the

employees by interrupting the stressor-strain connection. During the stressor appraisal

stage, an individual cognitively evaluates an event to appraise it as a stressor or not.

Buffering effects of supervisor support occur because the supervisor either prevents the

employee from appraising stressors or the supervisor provides resources through emotional support and instrumental support that mitigate strain outcomes (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

A meta-analysis by Kossek et al. (2011) shows the differences between general versus work-family specific supervisor support. Specifically, Kossek and colleagues found that family-specific organizational interventions and family-specific supervisor support provide greater buffering for family stressor-strain relationship than general support.

Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, and Hanson (2009) recently developed a new construct called family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB). FSSB is a multidimensional construct, consisting of four dimensions: emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling behaviors, and creative work-family management. Supervisors who offer emotional support consider the feelings of the subordinate and correspondingly offer reassurance. Instrumental support is a reactive state in which a supervisor handles subordinates' conflicts on a day-to-day basis based upon crises that may arise. Role modeling behaviors in the FSSB context denote that supervisors mentor subordinates to specifically handle work-family crises (Thompson et al., 2006). In fact, role modeling behaviors from supervisors can boost performance and job satisfaction of the subordinates (Greenhaus & Singh, 2007). Lastly, creative work-family management refers to a strategic, proactive strategy in which managers restructure work demands to adequately balance family demands. Hammer et al. (2009) show that the inclusion of all family-related dimensions in FSSB explains more variance over and above general supervisor support.

It is possible that some employees may report low value congruence while indicating their supervisor is nevertheless acting with great family-support through emotional support and instrumental support. In such cases, employees are likely to perceive that their supervisor is providing fair levels of workplace family-support despite poor value congruence. In other words, these highly perceptive and supportive supervisors can still deliver appropriate and just workplace family-support for subordinates with whom they have poorly matched values. In other cases, employees may have extremely high value congruence, but their supervisor fails to display family-supportive behaviors. These employees are likely to have low fairness perceptions because their supervisors provide little to no workplace family-support despite value congruence. Thus, FSSB is expected to moderate the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions such that:

> **Hypothesis 6**: Family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB) moderates the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions of work-family support and policies. The positive relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions is augmented for employees with highly family-supportive supervisors (see Figures 1 and 4).

Method

Participants and Procedure

The participants were 815 full-time staff members recruited from four southern universities in the United States. The universities are different campuses of a single university system located in and around a large metropolitan area. Data were collected via an online survey that was appended to a larger online survey conducted by the staff

council (a Presidential advisory board consisting of elected staff members) for each university campus as a means to investigate staff morale concerns.

All staff employees at each of the four campuses (approximately 4,500 employees – exact data were not available) were e-mailed a link to the survey. The online survey contained two sections. The first section was the survey created specifically for the purpose of studying staff morale. A total of 1,777 staff completed the first section of the survey. After completing the first section, participants were presented with information about this study and invited to volunteer to continue to the second part of the survey; 815 staff (45.9% of the morale survey participants) completed the second survey. The second part of the survey included items specifically designed to test the hypotheses outlined by the present study. To incentivize their continued participation in the second part of the survey, participants were provided with instructions on how to enter into a drawing to win one of two $50 Amazon gift cards. Two weeks following the conclusion of the study, the winners were randomly chosen and sent the prize earnings via an e-mailed digital gift card.

Measures

  Value congruence. I measured value congruence using the same method as Pan and Yeh (2012; $\alpha = .97$). Following Cable and DeRue's (2002) three-item person-organization fit scale, Pan and Yeh (2012) substituted the word "supervisor" for "organization." Also, to emphasize work-family value congruence, I included the same introductory sentence as Pan and Yeh (2012, p. 275).

   "Some people like to distinguish between work and family activities. For

   example, they don't spend additional time dealing with job-related matters when

they leave the workplace. But others like to integrate their work and family lives. For example, they often talk with coworkers about family matters during work hours."

The response scale ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix A.

Family-supportive supervisor behaviors. I measured FSSB with items from the family-supportive supervisor scale by Hammer et al. (2009; $\alpha = .98$). The scale measures four dimensions: emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling behaviors, and creative work-family management. The response scale ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix B.

Fairness perceptions. Fairness perceptions of supervisor's workplace family-support were measured using a modified version of Colquitt's (2001) Procedural Justice Scale ($\alpha = .95$). The response scale ranged from 1 "from a small extent" to 5 "to a great extent." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix C.

Job satisfaction. I measured job satisfaction with items from the Job Satisfaction Scale (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979; $\alpha = .85$). The response scale ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix D.

Affective commitment. Affective commitment was measured with items from Allen and Meyer (1990; $\alpha = .90$). I used the six items that measure "affective commitment to the organization." The word [my organization] was replaced with the name of the university's campus that employed the participant. The response scale ranged

from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix E.

Work-family conflict. I measured work-family conflict with items from Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2000; $\alpha = .93$). The response scale ranged from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." A complete list of the items can be found in Appendix F.

Demographic variables. Employees indicated their age (M=40.90 , SD=12.68), tenure (M= 8.24, SD=7.65), gender (60.5% Female), ethnicity (53.9% White, 15.4% Hispanic/Latino, 12.3% Black/African-American, 6.6% Decline to Answer), number of dependent children (55.7% have 0 dependent children, 14.8% have 1, 13.3% have 2, 4.1% have 3, 2.1% have 4 or more), marital status (45.2% Married, 26.9% Single, 10% Divorced, 5.8% Unmarried, living with partner, 3% Decline to answer), and living status (31.2% have 1 other person currently residing in the home, 17.9% have 2, 16.1% have 0, 12.4% have 3, 8.6% have 4, and 3.9% have 5 or more other people currently residing in their home).

Results

Prior to the data analysis, I cleaned the data in several steps using SPSS, version 20. First, I deleted the observations of participants who did not choose to complete the second half of the survey. Then, I deleted the observations of those who started the second half of the survey but had inadequate responses (>3/4 missing responses). Furthermore, I cleaned the responses of age and tenure. The prompt for "age" asked "What is your age in years?" Because the participants could respond in any text format, some answers were not in numerical form. I cleaned the answers to resemble only numerical ages. For example, if a participant answered "40 and 6 months," I would

change the response to "40.5". I followed these same procedures for cleaning the

variable "tenure" which asked how many years the participant worked for the university.

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, and sample

size), alpha reliability estimates, and the intercorrelation matrix. All scale reliabilities

were greater than .85, indicating adequate intrascale reliabilities. However, some of the

correlations among the variables were very high (e.g., value congruence and FSSB were

correlated at .75). This could raise suspicions regarding the construct validity of the

scales particularly if some items loaded onto several constructs. To alleviate any

suspicion of this, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis. First, I conducted a

principal axis factor analyses on all items for value congruence, job satisfaction, and

FSSB, which were the variables that had high correlations with one another ($r > .6$). The

rotated factor matrix (varimax rotation) indicated that the items for each construct loaded

on the construct for which they were intended (see Table 2). The results of this factor

analysis indicated that the items loaded cleanly onto the constructs for which they were

designed providing support for the construct validity of these measures.

To test the main effects of Hypotheses 1, 3, and 4, I conducted both Pearson

correlations and simple regression analyses using age and gender as control variables. I

chose to control for age and gender for two main reasons. First, age and gender are

commonly used control variables in work-family research as they are highly related to

fairness perceptions and reports of work-family conflict (e.g., Parker & Allen, 2001) but

not highly related to my predictors (e.g., value congruence). Furthermore, following the

advice of Spector and Brannick (2011) who describe how the "distinguishing feature of

control variables is that they are considered extraneous variables that are not linked to the

hypotheses and theories being tested" (p. 288), I included age and gender as control variables because they partial out extraneous variance when testing the relationship between work-family constructs: value congruence, work-family conflict, fairness perceptions, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. Therefore, by including the control variables in the first step of my regression analysis, the results should display a truer relationship between the variables.

Hypothesis 1 stated that value congruence is negatively related to work-family conflict. The Pearson correlations were significant for Hypothesis 1 ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$). Hypotheses 3 and 4, which stated that value congruence is positively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment respectively, were also supported (r's = .43 & .37, p's < .001, respectively). The results of the simple regression analyses, which are summarized in Table 3, also indicate support for all three main effect hypotheses after controlling for age and gender: Hypothesis 1 (b = -.18, $p < .001$), Hypothesis 3 (b = .34, $p < .001$), and Hypothesis 4 (b = .32, $p < .001$).

Next, to test my hypotheses regarding mediation analysis (i.e., Hypotheses 2, 5a, and 5b), I used the PROCESS macro in SPSS.

PROCESS (Hayes, 2012; 213; Preacher & Hayes, 2008)

PROCESS is a macro that can be used with SPSS and SAS statistical software packages to analyze several models, including but certainly not limited to simple mediation, serial mediation, and moderated mediation. Preacher and Hayes (2008; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007) published this free macro; it is available for use by the public through their website. In fact, an explanation of PROCESS' capabilities is provided by Hayes (2013) on his website.

"It uses an ordinary least squares or logistic regression-based path analytical

framework for estimating direct and indirect effects in simple and multiple

mediator models, two and three way interactions in moderation models along with

simple slopes and regions of significance for probing interactions, conditional

indirect effects in moderated mediation models with a single or multiple

mediators and moderators, and indirect effects of interactions in mediated

moderation models also with a single or multiple mediators. Bootstrap methods

are implemented for inference about indirect effects in both unmoderated as well

as moderated mediation models." (Hayes, 2013)

Because this is a new approach to analyzing these types of models and effects, I

will elucidate the method of PROCESS, starting with an overview of mediation,

moderation, and moderated mediation.

The underlying goal of mediation analysis is to determine the effect of X (an

independent variable, such as value congruence) on Y (a dependent variable, such as

work-family conflict, job satisfaction, or affective commitment), *through* one or multiple

mediators, referred to as $M_1, M_2, \ldots M_x$ (e.g., fairness perceptions, work-family conflict).

In order to analyze the mediation, a number of paths must be estimated. Please refer to

Figure 3 for a visual representation of these paths. The direct effect, path "*c'*" or *c*-prime,

refers to the effect of X on Y without any effect from mediators, $M_1, M_2, \ldots M_x$. The path

from X to M (controlling for Y) is called the "*a*" path, while the path from M to Y

(controlling for X) is termed "*b*." Then, the path from X to Y through the mediators is

referred to as the indirect effect, or the product term of these paths, "*ab*." The total effect

simply refers to the sum of the direct and indirect effects, or rather the total effect of X on Y, referred to as c, with the equation: $c = c' + ab$.

Moderation occurs when the effect (size or direction of effect) of X on Y is altered through changes in a moderator variable, known as W (e.g., FSSB). A moderation effect is indicated by a significant interaction between a predictor variable (e.g., X or M) and the moderator (W). Lastly, moderated mediation, also known as conditional process analysis, refers to a model in which the effect of X on Y, through M, is moderated by W (or conditional on changes in W, the moderator). To test significance of moderated mediation, PROCESS examines the indirect effect at values at the mean and + 1/-1 standard deviation of the moderators, $W_1, W_2, \ldots W_x$.

To test the significance of these effects, PROCESS uses bootstrapped confidence intervals, usually at 95% and defaulted with 1000 resamples (although, the user can opt for more resamples for a more conservative estimate of the results). Bootstrapping is a type of resampling technique that uses the sample data that it resamples from rather than using a theoretical population sampling distribution. Because bootstrapping resamples from the sample data, it is robust against any violations of assumptions that are usually associated with the theoretical sampling distribution (e.g., requiring normal distributions). There are many benefits in using bootstrapping, including its robustness against samples with non-normal distributions (non-normal samples). In fact, bootstrapping is especially useful with mediation and other analyses that use "product terms", because these always have non-normal distributions. Furthermore, the bootstrapping method provides truer estimates of standard errors and confidence intervals. Significant effects are indicated when the limits of the 95% confidence intervals do not contain zero.

I first used PROCESS' model 4 (see Hayes, 2012) to test my simple mediation hypotheses: Hypotheses 2, 5a, and 5b. The results for these hypotheses are displayed in Table 4. Hypothesis 2 states that fairness perceptions mediate the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict. As shown in Table 4, the indirect effect of value congruence on work-family conflict through fairness was significant (b = -.07, 95% CI [-.10,-.05]). Both the total and direct effects were also significant (b's = -.17 & -.10, respectively; *p's* < .001). This demonstrates support that fairness perceptions partially mediate the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b state that work-family conflict mediates the relationship between value congruence and both job satisfaction and affective commitment, respectively. For Hypothesis 5a, the total effect (b = .35, *p* < .001), direct effect (b = .30, *p* < .001), and indirect effects (b = .06, 95% CI [.04, .08]) were all significant, indicating support for partial mediation in predicting job satisfaction. For Hypothesis 5b with affective commitment as the outcome variable, the total effect (b = .32, *p* < .001), direct effect (b = .26, *p* < .001), and indirect effect (b = .05, 95% CI [.04, .08]) were all significant, indicating partial mediation.

Finally, Hypothesis 6 stated that FSSB moderates the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions. To test this hypothesis, I conducted multiple regression in several steps (i.e., models). In the first model, I included the control variables age and gender as predictors of fairness perceptions. In the second model, I added value congruence and FSSB as predictors. In the last model, I added the interaction term value congruence*FSSB as a predictor of fairness perceptions. The

results find support for FSSB moderating the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions (see Table 5). In other words, the product term of FSSB and value congruence in predicting fairness was significant in the third model (b = .06, $p < .05$).

In order to visualize the direction of the effect, I followed the steps by Aiken and West (1991) to graphically display the significant interaction (see Figure 4). All variables were grand-mean centered prior to analysis to help with interpretation. Table 6 summarizes the significant differences between the simple slopes at low and high FSSB. As shown by Figure 4, under high FSSB (+1 standard deviation), the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions is more positive than with low FSSB (-1 standard deviation). Thus, Hypothesis 6 was supported.

Supplemental Results

In addition to testing the a priori hypotheses, I ran several post-hoc analyses primarily using Preacher and Hayes' (2008) PROCESS macro to test alternative models. The purpose of the post-hoc analyses was test a more complete version of my model (e.g., conditional process analysis or moderated mediated analysis) and test alternative models. I first tested my hypothesized serial mediation model. Then, I tested alternative models including a transposed serial mediation model, a model with FSSB moderating at different stages, and a model with fairness perceptions as a moderator (instead of as a mediator). Refer to Appendices G-J which provide clear diagrams for my supplemental analysis models. The results are described in detail below.

Tests of Hypothesized Mediation Models

First, I tested the full hypothesized serial mediations (value congruence >fairness > work-family conflict > job satisfaction and affective commitment). I used PROCESS

model 6 to test the model with two mediators acting separately and operating in sequence (see Table 7). Refer to Appendix G for the visual representation of the models. By doing this post-hoc analysis, I was able to go beyond my simple mediation tests (Hypotheses 2, 5a, and 5b) and find differences in the influence of the mediators in serial and alone.

After 1000 resamples using the bootstrapping procedure, the results produced a significant indirect effect for fairness perceptions as the sole mediator (b = .09, 95% CI [.05, .12]), fairness perceptions and work-family conflict as serial mediators (b = .02, 95% CI [.01, .03]), and work-family conflict as the sole mediator (b = .03, 95% CI [.03, .10]). Because the 95% confidence intervals did not contain 0, I concluded that all three mediation models were significant in predicting job satisfaction.

Additionally, I included three contrasts in the analysis which let me directly test the difference between these indirect effects (see Table 7). The results indicate fairness acting as a mediator alone explained more of the relationship between value congruence and job satisfaction (b=.09) than did fairness perceptions and work-family conflict as serial mediators (b=.02) and work-family conflict as the sole mediator (b=.03). This indicates that the indirect effect of fairness as the sole mediator (b=.09) is significantly stronger than the indirect effect of work-family conflict as the sole mediator (b=.03) or fairness and work-family conflict as serial mediators (b=.02). I can thus conclude that the model with fairness perceptions explains more of the relationship (variance) between value congruence and job satisfaction.

Next, I replicated the same serial mediation analyses using affective commitment as the outcome variable. The results of bootstrapping indicate support for fairness perceptions as the sole mediator (b = .06, 95% CI [.03, .10]), fairness perceptions and

work-family conflict as serial mediators (b = .02, 95% CI [.01, .04]), and work-family conflict as the sole mediator (b = .03, 95% CI [.01, .05]). Because the 95% confidence intervals did not contain 0, I concluded that all three mediation models were significant in predicting job satisfaction. Again, the three contrasts let me directly test the difference between these effects (see Table 7). The results indicate fairness acting as a mediator alone explained more of the relationship between value congruence and affective commitment (b=.06) than did fairness perceptions and work-family conflict as serial mediators (b=.02). However, the other mediation contrast models were not statistically significant (i.e., indirect effects were not significantly different). When there are non-significant contrasts, this suggests that the mediators are telling a similar story. In other words, "fairness perceptions as the sole mediator" explaining the relationship between value congruence and affective commitment is no different in magnitude than "work-family conflict as the sole mediator" explaining the relationship.

Furthermore, I tested a model with the mediators acting in parallel instead of in sequence (serial) in PROCESS' model 4 to see if the contrasts between the indirect effects of multiple mediators changed. The results, which are summarized in Table 8, are in congruence with the results from PROCESS' model 6's serial mediation. In other words, when job satisfaction is the outcome variable, fairness perceptions as the sole mediator (b=.09) explained more of the effect between value congruence and job satisfaction than does work-family conflict as the mediator (b=.05). With affective commitment as the outcome variable, however, there was no significant difference between fairness alone as the sole mediator (b=.06) and work-family conflict as the sole mediator (b=.05).

Overall, these results support my original hypothesized model theoretical rationale for how fairness perception of workplace family-support is a key mechanism through which value congruence influences job attitudes.

Tests of Alternative Serial Mediation Models

Next, I tested the alternative serial mediation with the order of the mediators reversed (value congruence>work-family conflict>fairness>job satisfaction and affective commitment). Refer to Appendix H for a visual representation of this model. I used PROCESS' model 6 to test the model with two mediators acting simultaneously and operating in sequence (mediator 1, work-family conflict, affecting mediator 2, fairness perceptions). See Table 9 for the results of PROCESS for serial mediation in predicting job satisfaction and affective commitment. By testing this alternative mediation, I was able to test the significance of the inversed mediators and, again, test differences in the indirect effects of the mediators in the model. The process in testing the alternative serial mediation was identical to the overall process in testing the hypothesized serial mediation, with the exception that the order of the mediators was reversed (i.e., work-family conflict precedes fairness perceptions).

First, I tested the alternative serial mediation model predicting job satisfaction (see Table 9). After 1000 resamples using the bootstrapping procedure, the results produced a significant indirect effect for work-family conflict as the sole mediator (b= .05, 95% CI [.03, .07]), work-family conflict and fairness as serial mediators (b= .01, 95% CI [.00, .01]), and with fairness perceptions as the sole mediator (b= .08, 95% CI [.05, .12]). Because the 95% confidence intervals did not contain 0, I concluded that all three mediation models were significant in predicting job satisfaction.

The contrast results indicate that both fairness acting as a sole mediator (b=.08) and work-family conflict as the sole mediator (b=.05) explained more of the relationship between value congruence and job satisfaction than did work-family conflict and fairness perceptions acting as serial mediators (b=.01). However, when contrasting the indirect effects of the mediators alone, there was no significant difference in fairness perceptions or work-family-conflict as sole mediators of the relationship.

I then replicated the same alternative serial mediation using affective commitment as the outcome variable (see Table 9). The results produced a significant indirect effect for work-family conflict as the sole mediator (b= .05, 95% CI [.03, .07]), work-family conflict and fairness perceptions as serial mediators (b= .01, 95% CI [.00, .01]), and with fairness perceptions as the sole mediator (b= .06, 95% CI [.02, .10]). Because the 95% confidence intervals did not contain 0, I concluded that all three mediations were significant in predicting affective commitment.

The contrast results indicate that both fairness acting as a sole mediator (b=.06) and work-family conflict acting as a sole mediator (b=.05) explained more of the relationship between value congruence and affective commitment than did work-family conflict and fairness perceptions acting as serial mediators (b=.01). Thus, fairness perceptions and work-family conflict as sole mediators best explain the relationship between value congruence and affective commitment. Including both work-family conflict and fairness perceptions as serial mediators explained the least variance informative in the relationship between value congruence and affective commitment.

In summary, these results indicate that perhaps the better explanation of why value congruence is positively related to job satisfaction or affective commitment is

either the amplification of fairness perceptions of support or the lessening of work-family conflict rather than successive processes of fairness perceptions and work-family conflict together.

Tests of FSSB Moderating at Different Points in Model

I next tested FSSB acting as a moderator at different points in the model. Because the proposed model requires the mediators to act in serial, I could not use PROCESS to test the interaction of FSSB at different points in the model with two mediators acting in serial. Due to this limitation of PROCESS, I tested FSSB as a moderator using multiple regressions at several steps in the model. These results are summarized in Tables 10, 11, and 12. See Appendix I for a visual representation of these analyses.

As previously summarized, the hypothesized interaction, value congruence*FSSB, predicting fairness perceptions was significant (see Table 5) and the direction of the effect was also as hypothesized (see Figure 4). As predicted, at high levels of FSSB, the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions was more positive than with low levels of FSSB.

To rule out alternative explanations, I tested FSSB as a moderator at other points in the model. First, I tested the alternative model, fairness perceptions*FSSB predicting work-family conflict. See Table 10 for the full set of results. In the first model, I included the control variables age and gender as predictors of work-family conflict. In the second model, I added fairness perceptions and FSSB as predictors. In the last model, I added the interaction term fairness perceptions*FSSB as a predictor of work-family conflict, which was non-significant

(b = .01, *ns*).

Next, I tested the interaction work-family conflict*FSSB in predicting job satisfaction and affective commitment (see Table 11). In the first model, I included the control variables age and gender as predictors of job satisfaction. In the second model, I added work-family conflict and FSSB as predictors. In the last model, I added the interaction term work-family conflict*FSSB as a predictor of job satisfaction, which was non-significant

(b = .01, *ns*). I then replicated these multiple regression steps with affective commitment as the dependent variable (see Table 12). In the last model, the interaction work-family conflict*FSSB in predicting affective commitment was non-significant (b = -.03, *ns*).

Therefore, my conclusion that FSSB interacts with value congruence specifically to predict fairness perceptions is reinforced by demonstrating that other interactions including FSSB as a moderator are non-significant in the model.

Tests of Fairness as a Moderator

For my next supplemental analysis, I examined an alternative model in which fairness perceptions acted as a moderator rather than a mediator in predicting work-family conflict. Refer to Appendix J for a visual representation of the model. I used PROCESS' model 7 to test fairness perceptions moderating the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict in predicting both job satisfaction and affective commitment. See Table 13 for the full results.

First, I tested whether fairness perceptions moderated the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict (see Table 13). The results indicate that value congruence (b = -.15, *p* < .01) and fairness perceptions (b = -.18, *p* < .01) had significant

main effects on job satisfaction as indicated by p-values less than .01, and the bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals both did not include 0. However, the interaction between value congruence and fairness perceptions through work-family conflict was not significant (b=.02, *ns*, 95% CI [.33, -.02]). The indirect effects for the mediations could not be conditional for predicting either job satisfaction or affective commitment.

Thus, the results suggest fairness perceptions do not moderate the value congruence to work-family conflict path of the model. Furthermore, there is no evidence for fairness perceptions moderating the second mediated path in the model from work-family conflict to job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Examination of Hypothesized Model with Different Subpopulations

As past work-family research suggests, different subpopulations, such as older employees, single employees, childless employees, and males, often have different reactions to workplace family-support (Casper et al., 2007; Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga, 2007; Davis, 2011; Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994; Gautun & Hagen, 2010; Livingston & Judge, 2008). Therefore, I tested my hypotheses (i.e., main effects, mediation effects, and interaction effects) for several subpopulations to see if any relationships between the constructs changed (e.g., from significant to non-significant, from positive to negative effect) from the overall results from the entire sample.

Specifically, I tested the hypotheses separately with employees who are (1) married with children, (2) married without children (3) single with children, (4) single without children, (5) female, (6) male, and (7) employees over 40 years of age. Using SPSS, I created separate datasets based on the participants' demographics (e.g., age, gender, marital status). The results of each subpopulation showed that the main effects,

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mediation effects, and moderating effects were, for the most part, equivalent to the results from the entire sample. However, there were some key differences when examining the results by subpopulation. First, Hypothesis 6, which stated FSSB moderates the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions, was non-significant in every subpopulation except employees over 40 years of age. Next, all of the hypotheses were non-significant for the single employees with children, which is most likely attributable to low power due to the small sample size (N=25). Refer to Table 14 for a summary of the results for each subpopulation and Appendix K for a detailed synopsis of the results.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of having congruent values based on segmentation/integration preferences for balancing work and family with one's supervisor. Specifically, the goal of this study was to determine whether fairness perceptions of workplace family-support mediated the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict, and, by extension, whether work-family conflict mediated the relationships between value congruence and job attitudes (job satisfaction and affective commitment). Lastly, I investigated whether FSSB acts as an additional resource that augments the positive relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions of workplace family-support. To test these hypotheses, I used a diverse sample of 815 staff members of a southern University who completed an online questionnaire. The results of this study were largely supported and indicate that, indeed, fairness perceptions and work-family conflict both act as partial mediators in the model,

and that FSSB moderates the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions.

The results of this study demonstrate how value congruence and family-supportive supervisor behavior can act as powerful resources that help employees balance work and family demands. Consistent with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) and social support theory (Cohen & Wills, 1985), the results indicate that employees who receive value-congruent workplace family-support from their supervisors are more likely to report greater fairness of family-support which in turn enables employees to better manage their work and family demands. Furthermore, when subordinates experience higher value congruence, they are more likely to report lower work-family conflict, and higher job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Moreover, family-supportive supervisor behaviors appear to intensify the positive relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions and by extension reduce work-family conflict. In other words, employees who have congruent values with supervisors who provide ample emotional support, instrumental support, role modeling behaviors, and creative work-family management –support report the highest fairness perceptions of workplace family-support.

Finally, the results demonstrate evidence for partial mediation for all mediation hypotheses. Partial mediation refers to a model in which the total, direct, and indirect effects are all significant meaning while there is a direct path from the independent variable X to the dependent variable Y, the relationship is also indirect with the inclusion of the mediator, M. My results indicate that fairness perceptions partially mediate the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict. In other words, value

congruence is directly, negatively related to work-family conflict and also indirectly related through fairness perceptions (i.e., the relationship is mediated by fairness perceptions). This extends our understanding of why having congruent values with one's supervisor is negatively related to work-family conflict. As the results of the study suggest, value congruence is related to work-family conflict because value congruence is associated with an increase in perceptions of properly or fairly allocated support. When workplace family-support is fairly allocated, employees appear to be better able to manage work and family responsibilities and thus experience decreased conflict.

Furthermore, work-family conflict partially mediated the relationship between value congruence and job satisfaction and affective commitment. Value congruence was not only directly, positively related to these job attitudes, but also was indirectly related through the reduction of work-family conflict. In other words, when employees have values in alignment with their supervisors, employees are less likely to report experiencing work-family conflict, and, in turn, report higher levels of job satisfaction in affective commitment. However, results of testing the full serial mediation model in the supplemental analyses in PROCESS, indicated that fairness perceptions as the sole mediator best explains the relationship between value congruence and job satisfaction. In contrast, fairness perceptions as a sole mediator was not statistically different from work-family conflict mediating the value congruence and affective commitment relationship. Because the post-hoc results demonstrate that fairness perceptions explains the relationship between value congruence and the job attitudes best, this provides greater support for the theoretical explanation for why value congruence with the supervisor is related to these outcomes (i.e., organizational justice theory, social exchange theory).

Finally, the supplemental analyses by different subpopulations provided more insight into value congruence, fairness perceptions, and work-family conflict for employees with different family structures, ages, and genders. All in all, the hypotheses were generally supported for each demographic group with the exception of "single with children" (N=25). However, there were two hypotheses that were replicated the least amongst the subpopulations. One was Hypothesis 2, that fairness perceptions mediate the relationship between value congruence and job satisfaction. The other, Hypothesis 6, states that FSSB interacts with value congruence to predict fairness perceptions. In fact, the only subpopulation for which this interaction was significant was employees older than 40. Because these hypotheses did not replicate for many of the subpopulations, this may indicate that these hypotheses may not be a robust finding and not generalizable to other populations.

Practical Implications

In addition to the valuable theoretical contributions of the study, the results of this study also offer constructive practical implications for managers and organizations. Managers should be aware that "not one size fits all" when it comes to family-support. Because employees have specific and differing preferences when it comes to work-family balance, the type of supportive behavior from the supervisor can impact subordinates in different ways depending on their preference for segmentation. In other words, managers should take notice of their subordinates' behaviors and preferences with regard to managing work and home life. If a subordinate does not answer work e-mails during non-work hours, the supervisor should pick up on those cues and may conclude this subordinate tries to segment between work and family. Because of those segmentative

preferences, the supervisor should allocate work-family support that is congruent with their segmentation preferences. Conversely, if a manager overhears a subordinate discussing their non-work duties and tasks to their coworkers several times throughout the day, a manager may conclude this subordinate has integrative preferences and prefers to keep blurred and fluid boundaries between work and family. To provide adequate and fair support for this subordinate, the supervisor should offer integrative work-family support such as providing emotional support for family-matters.

Moreover, the results have similar practical implications for organizations, on a broader level. The results of this study demonstrate that employees not only have varying preferences for work-family balance, they also range in their perceptions of fairness of their workplace family-support. Because one type of workplace family-support cannot possibly please all employees, organizations may want to implement a cafeteria style plan of family policies such that the beneficiaries are able to pick and choose certain support policies which best match their preferences and needs.

Furthermore, the study shows that family-supportive supervisor behaviors, in general, are related to high levels of fairness perceptions. The results suggest that it is in the employees' best interest that supervisors continue to focus their efforts on providing family-supportive behaviors as it positively related to fairness perceptions of workplace family-support and by extension, lower work-family conflict and greater job satisfaction. Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, and Zimmerman (2011) recently demonstrated the utility of FSSB training among supervisors. They found that both computer-based training and face-to-face training for increasing family-supportive supervisor behaviors increased employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and health for employees who

reported high family-to-work conflict. The results of this study also suggest that FSSB training may be advantageous in increasing fairness perceptions of workplace family-support.

Strengths and Limitations

There are many strengths of the present study. First, this study includes a large, demographically diverse sample of employees. In fact, due to the access to a large and diverse sample, I was subsequently able to conduct the supplemental analyses for different subpopulations. With the exception of "single with children" (N=25), the sample sizes of the subpopulations were large enough to have adequate power to test the hypotheses.

Another strength of this study was its exploratory use of PROCESS, a relatively new and powerful statistical tool for researchers. This allowed me to conduct not only the hypotheses specifically stated a-priori, but also to examine the model in different configurations. This is the first study to my knowledge to utilize PROCESS to specifically examine value congruence and work-family conflict in relation to workplace attitudes.

While there are many interesting and significant findings from the present study, as is the case with any study, there are some limitations. First, the study was conducted in a cross-sectional format, so causality and directionality of the observed relationships cannot be established. Second, while the measures of value congruence were a direct replication of the Pan and Yeh (2012) study, the scale itself may not have been entirely clear to participants. For example, an actual item to which participants responded was "my personal values match my supervisor's values and preferences." The only reference

to value congruence specifically based on preference for segmentation appears in the prompt at the beginning of the survey items. Past research has found that participants taking surveys do not always read the prompts or questionnaire instructions closely, which can bias the way in which participants answer the subsequent items (Stieger & Reips, 2010). Thus it is possible that when the employees answered questions regarding "value congruence" in the actual items, they were thinking with a different frame of reference, and perhaps answered in terms of values other than work-family boundary preferences, such as cultural values.

Furthermore, the family-supportive supervisor behavior scale contains items that refer to "work" and "family" as "work" and "nonwork," respectively. For instance, one item from the scale reads, "My supervisor is willing to listen to my problems in juggling work and nonwork life." Many researchers in the work-family domain are pushing toward calling family "nonwork" or "life" as to not exclude single or childless employees (Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009). However, using different terminologies of a construct within the same survey can lead participants to answer using a different mental framework which could bias the results of the study.

Another limitation of the study was the use of single-source, self-report data which may raise concerns of common method variance (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Spector, 2006). Common method variance refers to relationships among variables being artificially inflated simply due to the similarity in the source of the ratings. Because of the dyadic nature of the supervisor-employee value congruence construct, it would be greatly beneficial to collect data from multiple sources to control for common method bias. However, Spector (2006) suggests that the common method

variance is most often an urban legend and exaggerates potential artificial inflation effects. In fact, Spector (2006) notes several studies which looked at large samples with self-report questionnaires and did not detect common method variance between self-report variables. So while common method variance is still at the center of debate in organizational research, there are inconsistent results of whether common-method actually biases the results of psychological studies.

Finally, one unexpected finding and possible limitation of the study was that work-family conflict was higher among men than women, ($r = -.08$, $p < .05$; male=1, female=2). Concerning work-family research, this result is rare, as working women, who largely maintain the greatest share of family responsibilities, usually report higher work-family conflict than men. However, this finding in contemporary times is not necessarily alarming because many men are starting to share and even take-over many of the non-work tasks.

One possible explanation for this unanticipated finding is that some of the job categories were disparately dispersed among men and women. For instance, 15.7% of men were in technical and service craft professions, while only 2% of women were in such positions. Conversely, 29% of women report having administrative/clerical assistant positions, as opposed to only 7.6% of men. The natures of these jobs are sometimes vastly different. For instance, the technical and service craft positions may require more inflexible and unpredictable hours (i.e., shift work), while administrative assistants have predictable job hours. Past research demonstrates that shift-work can make balancing work and family more challenging (Root & Wooten, 2008), so the

gender inequality among job categories may also account for the difference in work-family conflict.

Another possible explanation is that, because the stigma that women still share most of the household duties still prevails, supervisors may be biased to provide more workplace family-support to their female subordinates. In fact, the women in this sample report higher value congruence with their supervisors (r=.09, $p <.05$; male=1, female=2), which may account for why they report lower work-family conflict. Because women as a whole have more congruent values with their supervisor, they may experience lower conflict between work and family and, consequently, higher job satisfaction (r= .08, $p <.05$; male=1, female=2). However, neither fairness perceptions nor FSSB were related to gender and I cannot infer causality, so these reasons are speculation and not necessarily statistically justified. Of course, further research should be done to account for this peculiar finding of men reporting higher work-family conflict in other samples.

Directions for Future Research

There are many avenues of future research that are appropriate for the continuation of the present study. For example, future research can look at how spousal preferences for segmentation and integration affect the employee. As mentioned previously, work-family balance affects the home life and the spouse as well as the employee. So, it makes sense that having incongruent preferences for segmentation with one's spouse can also intensity work-family conflict for the employee. Just as a supervisor can provide inadequate support due to poor value congruence, the spouse may interact in such a way which could compound work-family conflict (such as an

integrator-spouse constantly calling their segmentator-spouse regarding family demands when the segmentator-spouse is at work).

Also, due to the limitation of the study using solely self-report data, it would benefit future studies to use a method in which both the supervisor and subordinate provide their perceptions. For instance, it would be incredibly interesting to understand the concept of value congruence and workplace family-support if both the supervisor and subordinate rate using their differing perspectives.

Also, there are other interesting constructs that could be included in understanding the relationship between value congruence, fairness perceptions, and work-family conflict. First, it would be interesting to see if gender-matched or gender-mismatched supervisor-employee pairs would change how these variables are related. For instance, perhaps female supervisors with female subordinates are better matched based on segmentation and integration and are better able to provide adequate support. The other construct to include in a later study is the actual preference for segmentation or integration. Because this study only measured "value congruence," it was unclear in what direction the congruence or incongruence functioned. For instance, perhaps only segmentative subordinates with incongruent values feel negative repercussions (e.g., higher work-family conflict) whereas employees with integrative preferences do not necessarily experience the deleterious consequences to the same degree.

The results of this study open up many doors for future researchers who wish to study the impact of preference for segmentation and supervisor-employee value congruence. Work-family research has been prevalent for many years and, as such, has made great strides in our understanding of work-family balance (e.g., Ashforth et al.,

2000; Clark, 2000; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Unfortunately, employees still report an alarming rate of dissatisfaction with their current

workplace family-support (only 36% of U.S. workers satisfied; Clay, 2011). My study

suggests that perhaps workplace family-support, even when it is provided, is not fair or

appropriate for many employees. Because employees have personalized needs and

preferences when it comes to balancing work and family demands, these preferences

should be taken into consideration when offering workplace family support. In fact, this

is especially true for supervisors as they are the foremost source of support for

employees. Perhaps the results of this study will instigate not only future research in this

area but also persuade some organizations to take a different perspective when it comes

to the implementation of work-family policies and supervisor support.

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Table 1. Descriptive Statistics, Alpha Reliabilities, and Correlation Matrix

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Value Congruence	3.31	1.14	(.97)							
2. Fairness	3.08	1.23	.54**	(.95)						
3. Work-Family Conflict	2.35	.72	-.27**	-.30**	(.93)					
4. Affective Commitment	3.42	1.00	.37**	.33**	-.32**	(.90)				
5. Job Satisfaction	3.84	.95	.43**	.41**	-.35**	.64**	(.85)			
6. FSSB	3.43	1.15	.75**	.64**	-.32**	.39**	.51**	(.98)		
7. Age	40.90	12.68	.05	.03	-.11*	.21**	.10*	-.03		
8. Gender	1.69	.46	.09*	-.04	-.08*	.03	.08*	.05	-.05	

Note. N ranged from 773 to 815. Numbers in parentheses along the diagonal are estimated (α) reliabilities, where applicable.

FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior. For Gender, 1=Male, 2=Female.

+ $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 2. Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation of FSSB, Value Congruence, and Job Satisfaction

	Factor		
	1	2	3
FSSB1	**.788**	.286	.193
FSSB2	**.821**	.309	.168
FSSB3	**.833**	.313	.198
FSSB4	**.818**	.312	.208
FSSB5	**.766**	.271	.221
FSSB6	**.769**	.257	.218
FSSB7	**.836**	.255	.226
FSSB8	**.758**	.390	.269
FSSB9	**.765**	.360	.274
FSSB10	**.765**	.369	.285
FSSB11	**.780**	.313	.262
FSSB12	**.783**	.275	.220
FSSB13	**.774**	.279	.272
FSSB14	**.787**	.288	.316
valcong1	.447	**.803**	.194
valcong2	.429	**.838**	.190
valcong3	.466	**.808**	.212
JobSat1	.233	.129	**.718**
JobSat2	.231	.160	**.812**
JobSat3	.206	.124	**.762**
Eigenvalue	13.52	1.62	1.07
% of Variance	67.60	75.70	81.04

Note: Factor 1: Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior; Factor 2: Value Congruence; Factor 3: Job Satisfaction; The factor loadings of each item in the measure on each factor are in boldface.

Table 3. Results of Simple Regression of WFC, Job Satisfaction, and Affective Commitment on Value Congruence

Criterion	Work-Family Conflict		Job Satisfaction		Affective Commitment	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Age	-.01**	-.01*	.01*	.01*	.02**	.02**
Gender	-.12+	-.09	.18*	.11	.11	.05
Value Congruence		-.18**		.34**		.32**

Note. $+ p < .10$ $* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

Table 4. Simple Mediation Effects and Confidence Intervals for the Indirect Effects

Mediation	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	SE	95% CI	
					LL	UL
VC-Fair-WFC[a]	-.17**	-.10**	-.07	.01	-.10	-.05
VC-WFC-JS[b]	.35**	.30**	.05	.01	.04	.08
VC-WFC-AC[c]	.32**	.26**	.06	.01	.04	.08

Note. [a]Hypothesis 2, [b]Hypothesis 5a, [c]Hypothesis 5b. Bootstrapped confidence intervals were constructed using 1000 resamples. Values that do not contain 0 within the 95% confidence intervals yield significant effects. VC=Value Congruence, Fair=Fairness Perceptions, WFC=Work-Family Conflict, JS=Job Satisfaction, AC=Affective Commitment, SE=standard error. The standard errors and confidence intervals refer to the indirect effects, specifically.

$+ p < .10$ $* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

Table 5. Results of Moderated Regression Analysis Predicting Fairness Perceptions

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Controls			
Age	.00	.00	.00
Gender	-.05	-.15+	-.15+
Value Congruence (VC)		.16**	.18**
FSSB		.57**	.59**
VC X FSSB			.06*
R^2	.00	.43**	.43**
Adjusted R^2	.00	.42	.43
ΔR^2		.42**	.01**

Note. FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior

$+ p < .10$ $* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

Table 6. Tests of Simple Slope Differences

Group	Slope	SE	*t*
(1) Low FSSB	0.11**	0.03	3.25**
(2) High FSSB	0.25**	0.04	6.37**

Note. FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior. SE=standard error.

+ *p* < .10 * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01

Table 7. Results of PROCESS for Hypothesized Serial Mediations for Predicting Job

Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

| | Indirect Effect | SE | 95%CI | |
			LL	UL
Total effect:	.14*	.02	.10	.18
VC-Fair-JS	.09*	.02	.05	.12
VC-Fair-WFC-JS	.02*	.00	.01	.03
VC-WFC-JS	.03*	.01	.03	.10
(Contrast 1)	.07*	.02	.03	.10
(Contrast 2)	.06*	.02	.02	.10
(Contrast 3)	-.01	.01	-.03	.01
Total effect:	.11*	.02	.07	.16
VC-Fair-AC	.06*	.02	.03	.10
VC-Fair-WFC-AC	.02*	.01	.01	.04
VC-WFC-AC	.03*	.01	.01	.05
(Contrast 4)	.04*	.02	.00	.08
(Contrast 5)	.03	.03	-.01	.08
(Contrast 6)	-.01	.01	-.03	.01

Note. Bootstrapped confidence intervals were constructed using 1000 resamples. N
=768. VC=Value Congruence, Fair=Fairness Perceptions, WFC=Work-Family
Conflict, JS=Job Satisfaction, AC=Affective Commitment. Confidence intervals that
do not contain 0 are deemed significant.

Contrast 1 = difference of indirect effect of VC-FA-JS and VC-FA-WFC-JS.
Contrast 2 = difference of indirect effect of VC-FA-JS and VC-WFC-JS.
Contrast 3 = difference of indirect effect of VC-FA-WFC-JS and VC-WFC-JS.
Contrast 4 = difference of indirect effect of VC-FA-AC and VC-FA-WFC-AC.
Contrast 5 = difference of indirect effect of VC-FA-AC and VC-WFC-AC.
Contrast 6 = difference of indirect effect of VC-FA-WFC-AC and VC-WFC-AC.

LL = lower limit, UL= upper limit, SE= standard error.

+ *p* < .10 * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01

Table 8. Results of PROCESS for Mediators Acting in Parallel in Predicting Job

Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

| | | | 95%CI | |
	Indirect Effect	SE	LL	UL
Total effect:	.35**	.03	.30	.41
VC-Fair-JS	.09*	.02	.05	.13
VC-WFC-JS	.05*	.01	.03	.07
(Contrast 1)	.04*	.02	.00	.08
Total effect:	.32**	.03	.26	.37
VC-Fair-AC	.06*	.02	.03	.10
VC-WFC-AC	.05*	.01	.04	.07
(Contrast 2)	.01	.02	-.03	.06

Note. Bootstrapped confidence intervals were constructed using 1000 resamples. N =768. VC=Value Congruence, Fair=Fairness Perceptions, WFC=Work-Family Conflict, JS=Job Satisfaction, AC=Affective Commitment. Confidence intervals that do not contain 0 are deemed significant.

Contrast 1 = difference of indirect effect of VC-Fair-JS and VC-WFC-JS.
Contrast 2 = difference of indirect effect of VC-Fair-AC and VC-WFC-AC.

LL = lower limit, UL= upper limit, SE= standard error.

$+ p < .10$ $* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

Table 9. Results of PROCESS for Alternative Serial Mediations for Predicting Job

Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

	Indirect Effect	SE	LL	UL
			95%CI	
Total effect:	.14*	.02	.10	.18
VC-WFC-JS	.05*	.01	.03	.07
VC-WFC–Fair-JS	.01*	.00	.00	.01
VC-Fair-JS	.08*	.02	.05	.12
(Contrast 1)	.04*	.01	.03	.06
(Contrast 2)	-.03	.02	-.07	.01
(Contrast 3)	-.07*	.02	-.11	-.05
Total effect:	.11*	.02	.07	.16
VC-WFC-AC	.05*	.01	.03	.07
VC-WFC-Fair-AC	.01*	.00	.00	.01
VC-Fair-AC	.06*	.02	.02	.10
(Contrast 4)	.05*	.01	.02	.07
(Contrast 5)	-.01	.03	-.05	.04
(Contrast 6)	-.05*	.02	-.09	-.02

Note. Bootstrapped confidence intervals were constructed using 1000 resamples. N =768. VC=Value Congruence, Fair=Fairness Perceptions, WFC=Work-Family Conflict, JS=Job Satisfaction, AC=Affective Commitment. Confidence intervals that do not contain 0 are deemed significant.

Contrast 1 = difference of indirect effect of VC-WFC-JS and VC-WFC-Fair-JS.
Contrast 2 = difference of indirect effect of VC-WFC-JS and VC-Fair-JS.
Contrast 3 = difference of indirect effect of VC-WFC-Fair-JS and VC-Fair-JS.
Contrast 4 = difference of indirect effect of VC-WFC-AC and VC-WFC-Fair-AC.
Contrast 5 = difference of indirect effect of VC-WFC-AC and VC-Fair-AC.
Contrast 6 = difference of indirect effect of VC-WFC-Fair-AC and VC-Fair-AC.

LL = lower limit, UL= upper limit, SE= standard error.

$+ p < .10$ $* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

Table 10. Results of Moderated Regression Analysis Predicting Work-Family Conflict

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Controls			
Age	-.01**	-.01**	-.01**
Gender	-.12+	-.11+	-.10+
Fairness Perceptions (Fair)		-.08*	-.08*
FSSB		-.14**	-.14**
Fair X FSSB			.01
R^2	.02**	.12**	.12**
Adjusted R^2	.01	.11	.11
ΔR^2		.10**	.00

Note. FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior

$+ p < .10$ $* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

Table 11. Results of Moderated Regression Analysis Predicting Job Satisfaction

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Controls			
Age	.01*	.01**	.01*
Gender	.18*	.10	.10
Work-Family Conflict (WFC)		-.26*	-.26*
FSSB		.38**	-.37**
WFC X FSSB			.01
R^2	.02**	.30**	.30**
Adjusted R^2	.01	.30	.30
ΔR^2		.29**	.00

Note. FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior

$+ p < .10$ $* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

Table 12. Results of Moderated Regression Analysis Predicting Affective Commitment

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Controls			
Age	.02**	.01**	.01*
Gender	.10	.10	.10
Work-Family Conflict (WFC)		-.24**	-.23**
FSSB		.32**	-.32**
WFC X FSSB			-.03
R^2	.05**	.24**	.24**
Adjusted R^2	.04	.23	.23
ΔR^2		.19**	.00

Note. FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior

$+ p < .10$ $* p < .05$ $** p < .01$

Table 13. Results of PROCESS for Fairness Perceptions Moderating Value Congruence

in Predicting Work-Family Conflict

	Coefficient	SE	*t*	95% CI LL	UL
VC	-.09	.03	-3.46**	-.15	-.04
Fair	-.12	.02	-2.91**	-.17	-.08
VC X Fair	.02	.02	.97	-.02	.05

Note. Bootstrapped confidence intervals were constructed using 1000 resamples. N =768. VC=Value Congruence, Fair=Fairness Perceptions. Confidence intervals that do not contain 0 are deemed significant. LL = lower limit, UL= upper limit, SE= standard error.

+ $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 14. Summary of Results by Subpopulation

Hypothesis	Entire Sample	Married with Children	Married without Children	Single with Children	Single without Children	Female Only	Male Only	Employees >40 Years of Age
	N=815	N=202	N=170	N=25	N=200	N=508	N=229	N=264
1: VC (-) WFC	Support	Support	Support	No Support	Support	Support	Support	Support
2: VC>Fair>WFC	Support	No Support	Support	No Support	No Support	Support	Support	No Support
3: VC (+) JS	Support	Support	Support	No Support	Support	Support	Support	Support
4: VC (+) AC	Support	Support	Support	No Support	Support	Support	Support	Support
5a: VC>WFC>JS	Support	Support	Support	No Support	Support	Support	Support	Support
5b: VC>WFC>AC	Support	Support	Support	No Support	Support	Support	Support	Support
6: FSSB moderator	Support	No Support	No Support	No Support	No Support	No Support	No Support	Support

Note. FSSB=Family-Supportive Supervisor Behavior, VC=Value Congruence, Fair=Fairness Perceptions, WFC=Work-Family Conflict, JS=Job Satisfaction, AC=Affective Commitment. Support=hypothesis supported, No Support=hypothesis not supported.
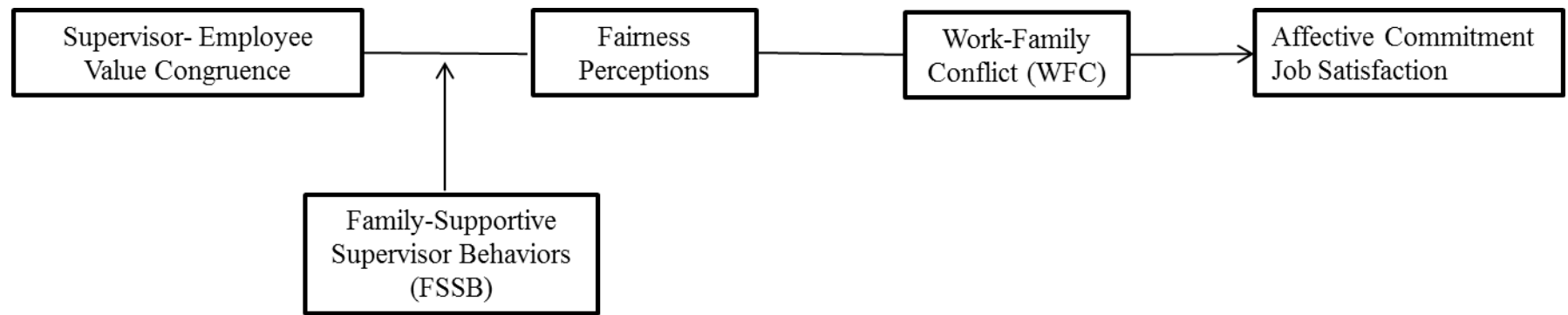
Figure 1. The hypothesized model

The Role Segmentation–Role Integration Continuum

Segmented roles	Integrated roles

High contrast in role identities

Low contrast in role identities

Inflexible and impermeable role boundaries

Flexible and permeable role boundaries
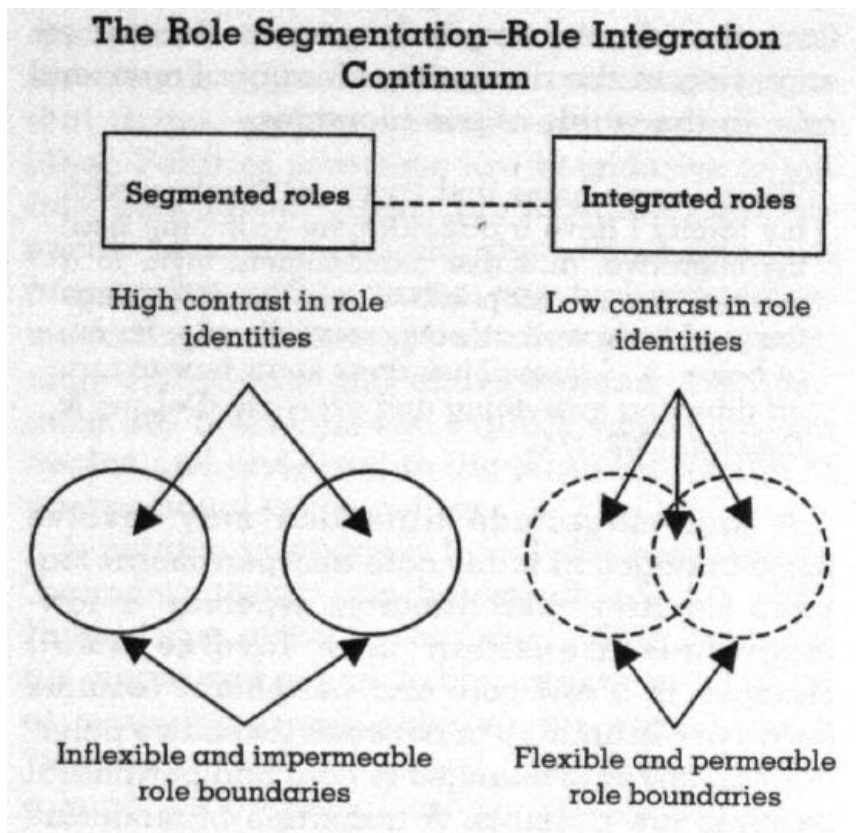
Figure 2. Ashforth et al. (2000): The role segmentation-role integration continuum. This chart depicts segmentation and integration and its characteristics based upon: flexibility and permeability of role boundaries and contrast in role identities.
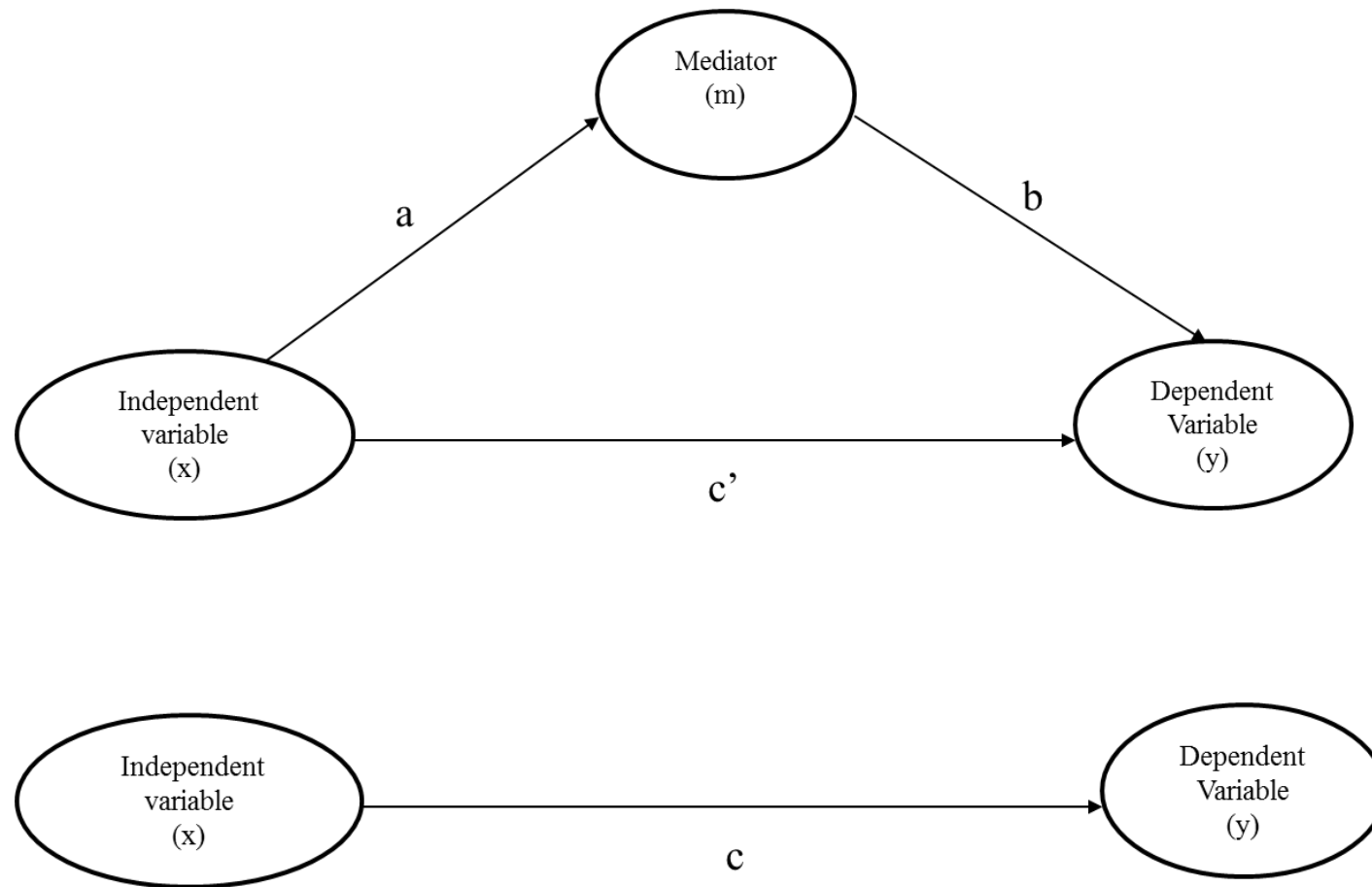
Figure 3. Paths and effects in simple mediation
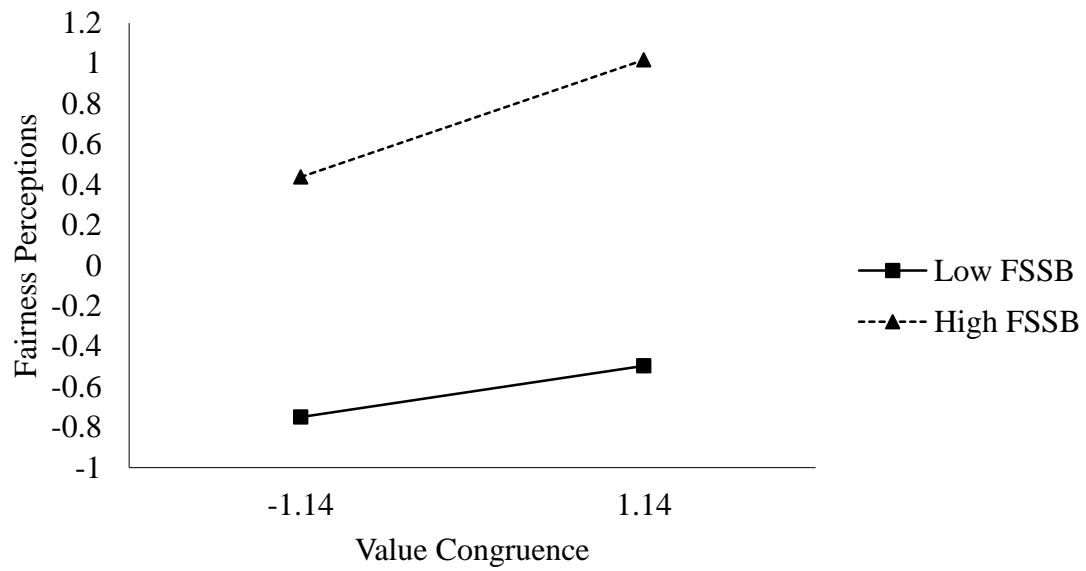
Figure 4. FSSB moderating value congruence and fairness perceptions

Note. Metric for value congruence and fairness perceptions is in standard deviations
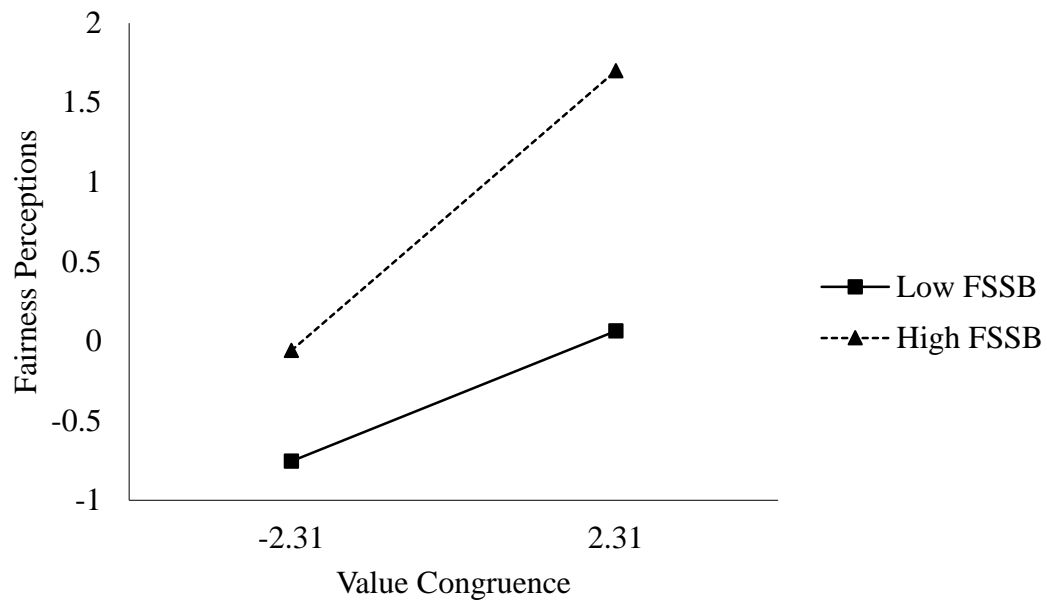
Figure 5. FSSB moderating value congruence and fairness perceptions for employees

over 40

Note. Metric for value congruence and fairness perceptions is in standard deviations.

Appendix A

Supervisor-Employee Value Congruence of Preference for Segmentation and Integration
Scale

(altered version of Cable & DeRue, 2002; Pan & Yeh, 2012)

Prompt:

Some people like to keep their home and work lives separate. For example, they do not

talk about home life at work, and they do not deal with job-related matters when they go

home. But others like to integrate their work and family lives. For example, they often

talk with coworkers about family matters during work hours, and take work home.

Please read the items below and respond to them considering your values about home and

work life and YOUR SUPERVISOR'S values about home and work life.

1. The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my supervisor values.

2. My personal values match my supervisor's values and preferences.

3. My supervisor's values and preferences provide a good fit with the things that I value in

   life.

Appendix B

Family-Supportive Supervisor Behaviors Scale (Hammer et al., 2009)

1. My supervisor is willing to listen to my problems in juggling work and nonwork life.

2. My supervisor takes the time to learn about my personal needs.

3. My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and nonwork.

4. My supervisor and I can talk effectively to solve conflicts between work and nonwork issues.

5. I can depend on my supervisor to help me with scheduling conflicts if I need it.

6. I can rely on my supervisor to make sure my work responsibilities are handled when I have unanticipated nonwork demands.

7. My supervisor works effectively with workers to creatively solve conflicts between work and nonwork.

8. My supervisor is a good role model for work and nonwork balance.

9. My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and nonwork balance.

10. My supervisor demonstrates how a person can jointly be successful on and off the job.

11. My supervisor thinks about how the work in my department can be organized to jointly benefit employees and the company.

12. My supervisor asks for suggestions to make it easier for employees to balance work and nonwork demands.

13. My supervisor is creative in reallocating job duties to help my department work better as a team.

14. My supervisor is able to manage the department as a whole team to enable everyone's

needs to be met.

Appendix C

Fairness Perceptions of Work-Family Policies Scale (altered version of Colquitt, 2001)

Prompt: Supervisors often support employees' efforts to achieve work-family balance in a variety of ways such as making decisions and implementing work-family policies that benefit their subordinates. The following questions refer to decisions made by your manager regarding work-family policies. To what extent:

1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?

2. Have you had influence over work–family policies arrived at by those decisions?

3. Have work–family policies been applied consistently?

4. Have work-family polices been free of bias?

5. Have work–family policies been based on accurate information?

6. Have you been able to appeal work–family policies arrived at by those procedures?

7. Have work-family polices upheld ethical and moral standards?

Appendix D

Job Satisfaction Scale (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979)

1. In general, I don't like my job. (R)

2. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.

3. In general, I like working here.

Appendix E

Affective Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with [my organization].

2. I enjoy discussing [my organization] with people outside the organization.

3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at [my organization]. (R)

4. I do not feel emotionally attached to [my organization]. (R)

5. [My organization] has a great deal of personal meaning to me.

6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to [my organization]. (R)

Appendix F

Work-Family Conflict Scale (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000)

1. My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.

2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.

3. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.

4. The time I spend on family responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities.

5. The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.

6. I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.

7. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.

8. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.

9. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

10. Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.

11. Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.

12. Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.

13. The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.

14. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.

15. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.

16. The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.

17. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.

18. The problem-solving behavior that works for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.

Tests of Hypothesized Serial Mediation Models with PROCESS' Model 6

Supervisor- Employee Value Congruence		Fairness Perceptions		Work-Family Conflict		Affective Commitment Job Satisfaction
	→		→		→	
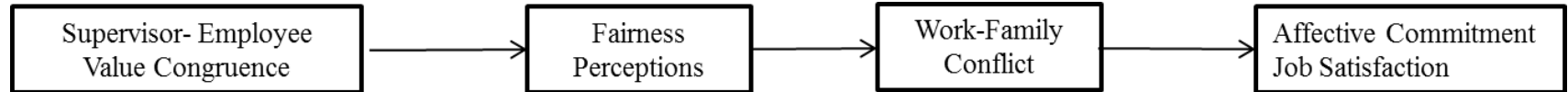
Model 6
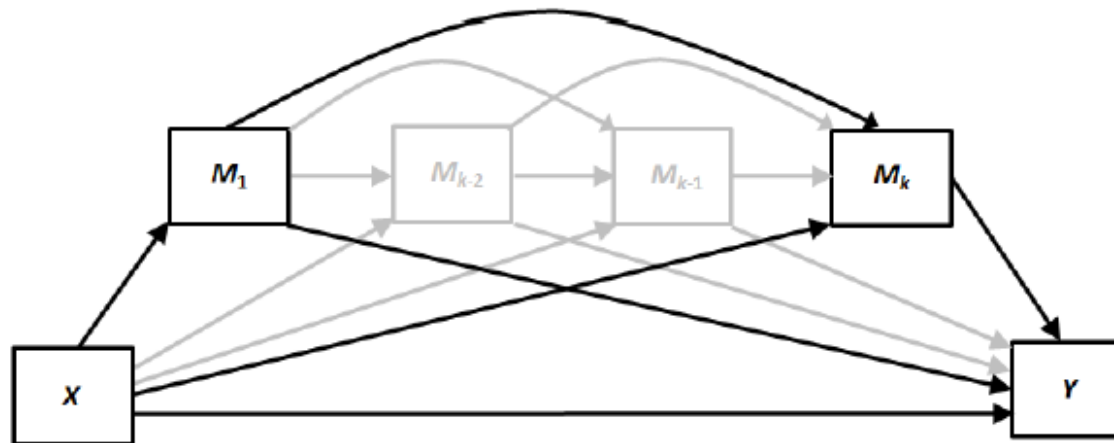
Conceptual Model

Appendix H

Tests of Alternative Serial Mediation Models with PROCESS' Model 6

Supervisor- Employee Value Congruence	→	Work-Family Conflict (WFC)	→	Fairness Perceptions	→	Affective Commitment Job Satisfaction
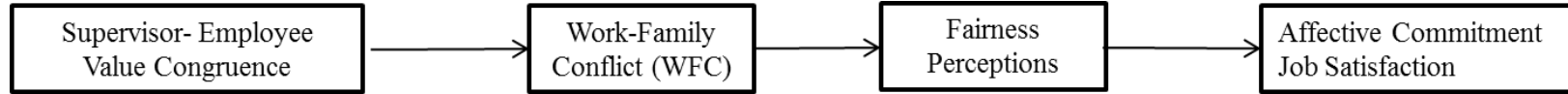
Model 6

Conceptual Model
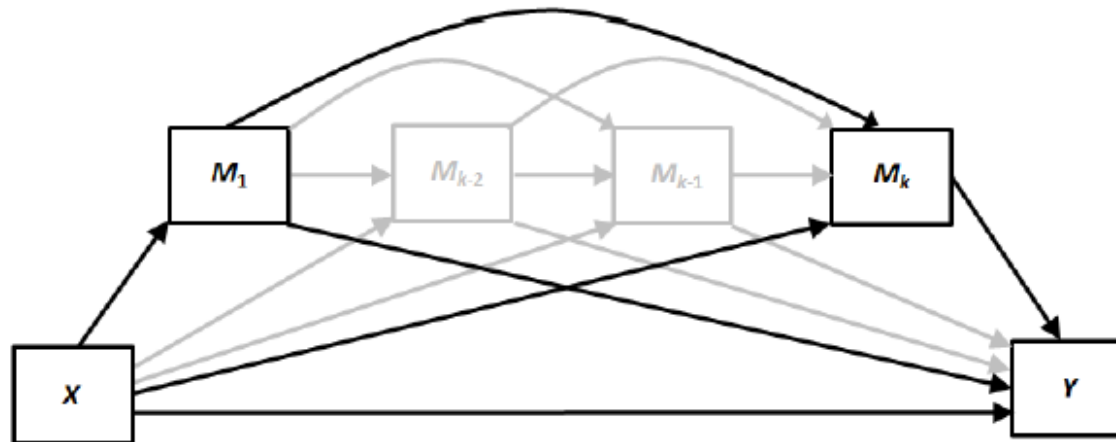
Appendix I

Tests of FSSB-interactions in the model

Hypothesized interaction (significant):
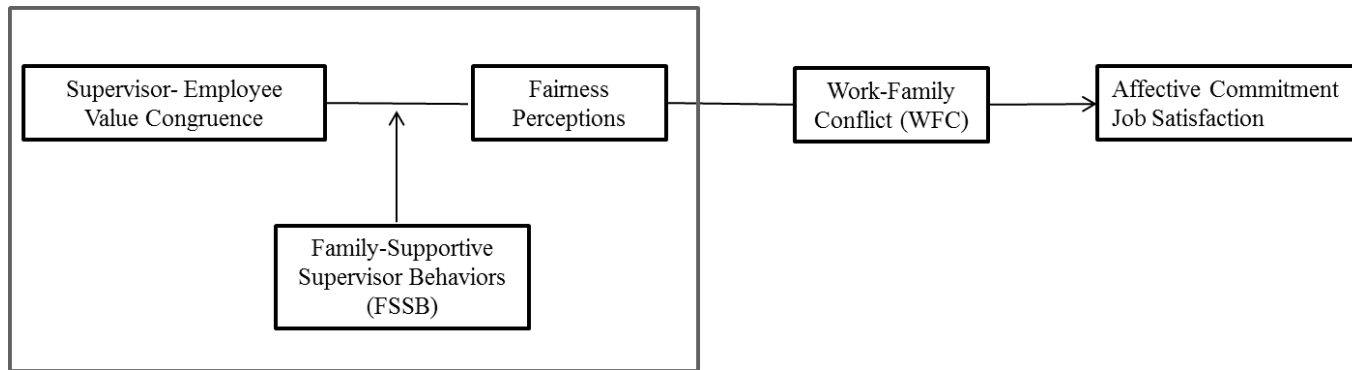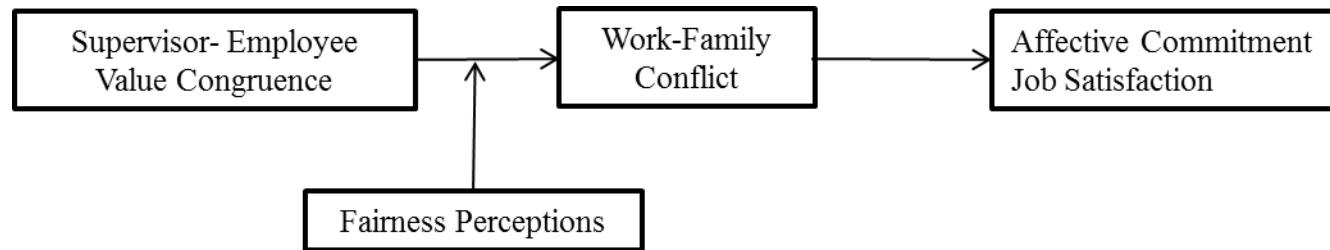

Alternative interaction (non-significant):
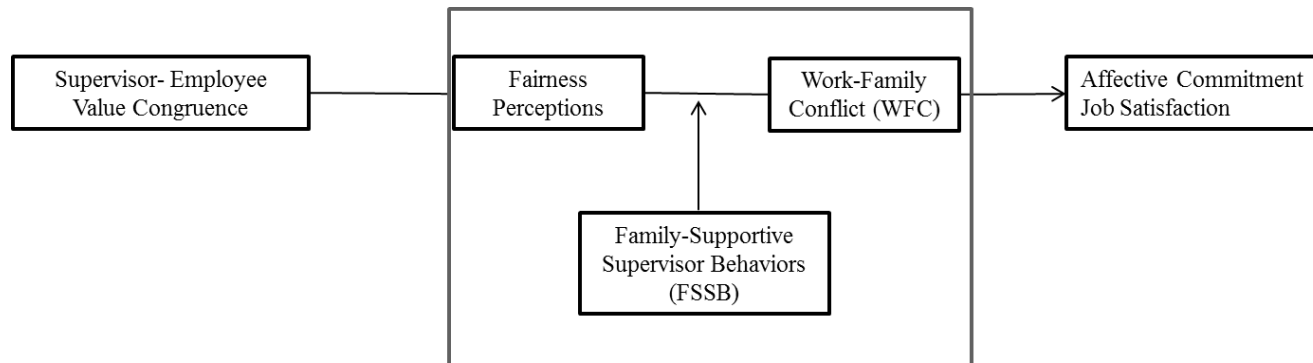
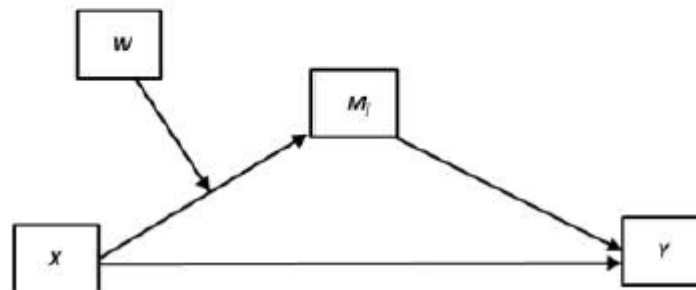Alternative interactions (both non-significant):
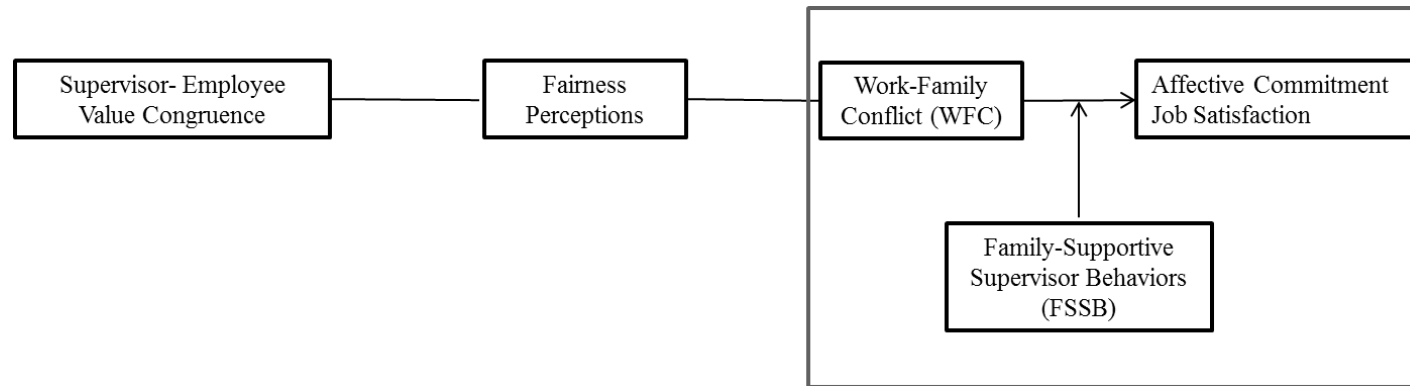
Tests of Fairness Perception as a Moderator with PROCESS' Model 7

Model 7

Conceptual Model

Appendix K

Detailed Results by Subpopulation

Hypothesis 1, 3, and 4

Hypothesis 1 states value congruence will be negatively related to work-family conflict. The results for all subpopulations, except "single with children" (b = .06, *ns*), remained significant and in the hypothesized negative direction: married with children (b = -.26, *p* < .001), married without children (b=-.13, *p* < .01), single without children (b = -.16, *p* < .01), female only (b = -.19, *p* < .001), male only (b = -.14, *p* < .01), and employees over 40 (b = -.16, *p* < .01).

Hypothesis 3 states that value congruence will be positively related to job satisfaction. Again, the results for all subpopulations, except "single with children" (b = .27, *ns*), remained significant and in the hypothesized positive direction: married with children (b = .38, *p* < .001), married without children (b = .32, *p* < .001), single without children (b = .33, *p* < .001), female only (b = .32, *p* < .001), male only (b = .36, *p* < .001), and employees over 40 (b = .38, *p* < .001).

Lastly, Hypothesis 4 states that value congruence will be positively related to affective commitment. The results for all subpopulations, except "single with children" (b = .32, *ns*), remained significant and in the hypothesized positive direction: married with children (b = .40, *p* < .001), married without children (b = .37, *p* < .001), single without children (b = .19, *p* < .01), female only (b = .33, *p* < .01), male only (b = .30, *p* < .001), and employees over 40 (b = .33, *p* < .001).

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 states that fairness perception mediates the relationship between value congruence and work-family conflict. I tested this hypothesis using model 4 in

PROCESS using the same analysis methods used with the entire sample.   When

analyzing the results for each subpopulation, the female only, male only, and married

without children subpopulations had significant mediation effects. Specifically, the total

and direct effects were significant for female only (b = -.18, $p < .001$; b = -.11, $p < .01$).

For male only and married without children, the total effect was significant but the direct

effect was non-significant (b = -.16, $p < .01$; b = -.08, ns; b = -.15, $p < .01$; b = -.03, $p > .05$,

respectively). For these subpopulations, the indirect effect 95% confidence intervals did

not include 0, which demonstrates support for mediation (for females, b= -.07, 95% CI [-

.10, -.04]; for males, b= -.08, 95% CI [-.14, -.03]; for married without children, b= -.11,

95% CI [-.19, -.06]).

No support for hypothesis 2 was found for the remaining subpopulations. For

married with children (b = -.29, $p < .001$, b = -.26, $p < .001$) and employees over 40 (b = -

.16, $p < .001$; b = -.14, $p < .01$), the total effects and direct effects were significant.

However, the 95% confidence intervals of the bootstrapping method for testing mediation

effects for the indirect effect included 0 (married with children: b= -.03, 95% CI [-.08,

.02], employees over 40: b= -.08, 95% CI [-.14, .00]).

For single employees with children, all effects were deemed non-significant (total

effect: b=.06, ns, direct effect: b=.14, ns, indirect effect: b=.09, 95% CI [-.30, .03]).

Lastly, for single employees without children, while the total effect was significant (b = -

.11, $p < .05$), neither the direct nor indirect effects were significant (b=-.06, ns, b= -.04,

95% CI [-.10, .01], respectively).

Hypotheses 5a and 5b.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b state that work-family conflict will mediate the relationship

between value congruence and (a) job satisfaction and (b) affective commitment.

To analyze Hypothesis 5a, I again ran model 4 from PROCESS to test the

significance of the total, direct, and indirect effects. I found that, as with the entire

sample, support for work-family conflict mediating the relationship between value

congruence and job satisfaction was found for all of the subpopulations except single

with children. Specifically, the total effect and direct effects were significant with

married with children (b = .39, $p < .001$; b = .32, $p < .001$), married without children (b =

.33, $p < .001$; b = .28, $p < .001$), single without children (b = .33, $p < .001$; b = .28, $p <$

.001), female only (b = .35, $p < .001$; b = .29, $p < .001$), male only (b = .35, $p < .001$; b =

.30, $p < .001$), and employees over 40 (b = .38, $p < .001$; b = .34, $p < .001$). Also, the

95% confidence intervals for the indirect effects did not include 0 for these

subpopulations, indicating evidence of partial mediation (married with children: b = .06,

95% CI [.02, .12], married without children: b = .04, 95% CI [.01, .08], single without

children: b= .05, 95% CI [.01, .11], female only: b = .06, 95% CI [.04, .09], male only: b

= .05, 95% CI [.03, .10], and employees over 40: b = .05, 95% CI [.02, .10]).

However, for single employees with children, neither the total effect (b = .35, *ns*)

nor the indirect effects were significant (b= -.05, 95% CI [-.20, .13]); however, the direct

effect was significant (b = .39, $p < .05$). This demonstrates non-significant results for the

presence of mediation for single employees with children.

To analyze Hypothesis 5b, I tested the significance of the total, direct, and indirect

effects in PROCESS. I found that, as with the entire sample, support for work-family

conflict mediating the relationship between value congruence and affective commitment

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was found for all of the subpopulations except single with children. Specifically, the total effect and direct effects were significant with married with children (b = .37, $p < .001$; b = .28, $p < .001$), married without children (b = .39, $p < .001$; b = .33, $p < .001$), single without children (b = .19, $p < .01$; b = .16, $p < .05$), female only (b = .33, $p < .001$; b = .28, $p < .001$), male only (b = .31, $p < .001$; b = .25, $p < .001$), and employees over 40 (b = .35, $p < .001$; b = .30, $p < .001$). Also, the 95% confidence intervals for the indirect effects did not include 0 for these subpopulations, indicating evidence of partial mediation (married with children: b = .06, 95% CI [.01, .12], married without children: b = .06, 95% CI [.02, .13], single without children: b = .03, 95% CI [.00, .08], female only: b = .05, 95% CI [.03, .08], male only: b = .06, CI [.03, .11], and employees over 40: b = .04, 95% CI [.01, .08]).

For single employees with children, both the total and direct effects were significant (b's = .39 & .42, respectively; $p's < .01$). However, the 95% confidence intervals for the indirect effect included 0 and were thus not significant for the evidence of mediation (b= -.03, 95% CI [-.17, .05].

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 states that FSSB will moderate the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions. Interestingly, the only subpopulation where this interaction was significant was with employees over 40. For married with children (b = .01, $p > .05$), married without children (b = .08, $p > .05$), single with children (b = -.36, $p > .05$), single without children (b = .06, $p > .05$), female only (b = .06, $p > .05$), and male only (b = .08, $p > .05$), the interaction term FSSB*Value congruence in predicting fairness perceptions in the third model of hierarchical regression was not significant.

For employees over 40 years of age, however, Hypothesis 6 was significant (b = .08, $p < .05$). In order to visualize the direction of the effect, I followed the steps by Aiken and West (1991) to graphically display the significant interaction (see Figure 5). All variables were grand-mean centered prior to analysis to help with interpretation. As shown by Figure 5, under high FSSB (+1 standard deviation), the relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions is more positive than with low FSSB (-1 standard deviation). The graph indicates that for employees who report high FSSB, there is a stronger, positive relationship between value congruence and fairness perceptions.