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December, 2016

MANAGING ROLE BOUNDARIES WITH LOW VALUE CONGRUENCE:  
AN EXAMINATION OF WORK-TO-FAMILY CONFLICT, CONSCIENTIOUSNESS,  
AND UNETHICAL WORK BEHAVIOR INTENTIONS

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A Dissertation

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

Doctor of Philosophy

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## ABSTRACT

This study investigated the impact of segmentation/integration value congruence on work interference with family (WIF) and how WIF may influence employees' intentions to engage in unethical work behavior (UWB). The scarcity hypothesis and the conflict perspective were used to explain why low segmentation/integration value congruence may diminish employees' resources, hinder employees from fulfilling family responsibilities, and potentially contribute to WIF. Organizational support theory, social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity offered insight regarding why WIF may increase the likelihood that employees will engage in UWB. Finally, this study explored how conscientiousness may impact various relationships between segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and UWB intentions. Findings did not offer enough evidence supporting WIF as a mediator between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. However, partial support was found for the hypothesized model, as conscientiousness significantly interacted with both segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF (respectively) to predict UWB intentions.

*Keywords:* value congruence, segmentation, integration, work-family conflict, unethical work behavior, counterproductive work behavior

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## Managing Role Boundaries with Low Value Congruence: An Examination of Work-to-Family Conflict, Conscientiousness, and Unethical Work Behavior Intentions

It is Friday at 4:00 pm, and you are looking forward to finishing the final hour of the work week before heading home. All of a sudden, your supervisor appears at the door of your office and says, “I need you to send me a report of our latest results over the weekend. Have a finalized report ready first thing Monday morning.” In this scenario, the supervisor is not-so-subtly endorsing a practice that allows work demands to creep into the employee’s family domain. When an organization or supervisor imposes policies or practices that violate employees’ preferred work/family boundaries, employees may potentially experience work-family conflict (WFC; Chen, Powell, & Greenhaus, 2009).

WFC is a pervasive issue in the workplace today that has captured the focus of researchers for the past few decades. WFC is associated with a variety of adverse employee outcomes (e.g., poor physical health, depression; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997) as well as organizational outcomes (e.g., reduced job performance, organizational commitment, increased turnover; Kelly et al., 2008; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). Previous researchers have studied work-family initiatives and their relation to WFC, although findings have generally been mixed (e.g., Allen, 2001; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Kelly et al., 2008). Other researchers have explored how employee preferences for keeping work and family roles segmented or integrated may impact WFC (e.g., Chen et al., 2009; Kreiner, 2006). Few empirical studies, however, have examined the extent to which employees share similar segmentation/integration preferences with their organization or supervisor (i.e., segmentation/integration value congruence). According to researchers, higher levels of segmentation/integration value congruence enable

employees to maintain work-family boundaries more effectively than solely preferring segmentation or integration (e.g., Cooper et al., 2013; Kreiner, 2006; Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2009). When organizational policies and practices conflict with employees' segmentation/integration preferences, the scarcity hypothesis and conflict perspective suggest that employees may be less able to fulfill their family responsibilities (Goode, 1960; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Therefore, the first goal of the current study is to strengthen the existing work-family research by replicating previous researchers' findings that segmentation/integration value congruence negatively predicts WFC. Specifically, I examine WFC in the work-to-family direction, also known as work interference with family (WIF).

This study also furthers work-family research by examining how WIF may contribute to unethical work behavior (UWB). Organizational support theory (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggest that employees may resent their organization/supervisor for enacting policies or practices that violate their personal segmentation/integration preferences – especially if said policies and practices contribute to or exacerbate WIF. Although WIF has been linked to UWB such as tardiness, early work departure, and absenteeism (Boyar, Maertz, Jr., & Pearson, 2005; Demerouti, Bouwman, & Sanz-Vergel, 2011; Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003; Yardley, 1994), researchers have not yet tested a full model linking segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and UWB intentions (or any type of UWB). If employees experience increased WIF specifically due to incongruent organizational policies or practices, they may feel that the organization/supervisor lacks compassion towards them and cares little for their well-being. Employees may

reciprocate negatively towards their organization/supervisor by engaging in norm-violating behaviors. Therefore, the second goal of this study is to investigate whether employees experiencing WIF due to low segmentation/integration value congruence are likely to engage in unethical work behavior (UWB).

A final goal of the current study is to expand work-family research regarding individual differences. This study is the first to examine how conscientiousness may influence relationships between segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and UWB intentions. For instance, low-conscientious employees may be less likely to prioritize work that violates their preferred work/family role boundaries. Accordingly, low-conscientious employees who perceive lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence may experience reduced levels of WIF as well as greater intentions to engage in UWB (e.g., delaying or forgoing work entirely). Furthermore, the sunk-cost effect (Staw, 1976) suggests that high-conscientious employees may feel more invested in their work due to past sacrifices, such as devoting relentless hours to a project. Therefore, among employees experiencing lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence or heightened levels of WIF (respectively), high-conscientious employees may be less likely to engage in UWB compared to those low on conscientiousness.

Findings from this study may potentially offer numerous practical contributions for organizations. If low segmentation/integration value congruence is associated with increased WIF, it becomes important that companies consider amending policies and practices that interfere with balancing work and family roles. Furthermore, if organizational policies and practices contribute to elevated WIF levels, employees may be more likely to respond negatively through UWB. UWB may harm company

performance and cost organizations a substantial amount of money over time. To reduce UWB, organizations may consider focusing on promoting both formal policies as well as informal practices that allow people to balance work and family roles according to their desired preferences. Additionally, this study highlights the importance of personality and how it may influence individuals' likelihood of engaging in UWB. Companies may screen for conscientiousness among applicants and current employees to help detect if certain people have a greater tendency to partake in UWB. Organizations may also consider assessing segmentation/integration value congruence to determine applicant fit. For example, a questionnaire might ask whether applicants prefer to bring extra work home versus work late onsite, or whether applicants prefer to work in the office every day versus work from home once a week.

This paper is organized as follows: first, I define and present an overall background on WFC. Then, I discuss two dimensions of WFC (work-to-family and family-to-work) as well as various predictors and outcomes of WFC. Next, I provide a background on boundary theory (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996), which describes how people may manage their work and family roles. I then segue into a discussion of segmentation/integration value congruence between employees and their organization/supervisor. Referencing the scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1960) and the conflict perspective (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999), I explain why segmentation/integration value congruence may influence WIF perceptions. Organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) are then used to discuss why WIF may partially mediate the relationship between segmentation/integration value

congruence and UWB intentions. Finally, I explain why conscientiousness may moderate relationships between segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and UWB intentions through a discussion of the sunk-cost effect (Staw, 1976).

### **Background on Work-Family Conflict**

In the work-family literature, a family is generally defined as “persons sharing a residence and household who are related by biological ties, marriage, social custom, or adoption” (Piotrkowski, Rapoport, & Rapoport, 1987, p. 252). This definition may include married couples, long-term partners, couples with or without children, single-parent families, those sharing a home with an aging parent, or other family forms entirely. Individuals may inhabit one or several roles, or “expected pattern or set of behaviors,” such as being a parent and/or spouse at home, and an employee at work (Kossek, Noe, & DeMarr, 1999, p. 105). Each role is associated with its own distinct responsibilities and demands (Cooper, Kidwell, & Eddleston, 2013; Kossek et al., 1999). According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), work-family conflict (WFC) is “a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (p. 77). In other words, role demands from one domain (e.g., work) conflict with role demands from another other domain (e.g., family) in a manner that makes it extremely difficult, if not impossible, to simultaneously meet both demands.

### **Types of Work-Family Conflict**

There are two types of WFC: work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. In the 1980s, researchers often treated WFC as a broad, unidimensional construct and aggregated all WFC items together. However, in more recent decades, researchers

advocated analyzing work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict separately, as they represent distinct constructs with unique antecedents and outcomes (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Byron, 2005; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Eby et al., 2005; Frone et al., 1997; Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996).

Work-to-family conflict, also known as work interference with family (WIF), is a type of interrole conflict wherein work demands interfere with family demands, creating conflict in the family domain. Alternatively, family-to-work conflict (also known as family interference with work; FIW) is a form of interrole conflict wherein family demands interfere with work demands, creating conflict in the work domain. In general, workplace demands and the work environment tend to predict WIF, whereas family demands and the home environment tend to predict FIW (Anderson et al., 2002; Byron, 2005). Outcomes of WIF are generally family-related, and outcomes of FIW are generally work-related, although researchers have sometimes found WIF and FIW to directly relate to both work and family outcomes (Gignac, Kelloway, & Gottlieb, 1996; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Hammer et al., 2003). Furthermore, although WIF and FIW are distinct constructs, researchers have found them to be moderately related to one another (e.g., Frone et al., 1997). Their relationship is consistent with the spillover hypothesis, which claims that effects from one domain (e.g., dissatisfaction) may transfer over to another domain (Byron, 2005). Because this manuscript examines how workplace characteristics (i.e., organizational policies and practices) may potentially interfere with employees' abilities to maintain work-family balance, I have primarily focused on WIF.

### **Predictors of Work-Family Conflict**



WFC can generally be classified as time-based, strain-based, or behavioral-based (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In this current section, I discuss several aspects from both the work and family domains that may contribute to these particular forms of WFC as well as additional sources of WFC.

**Sources of Time-Based WFC.** Time-based WFC is experienced when time dedicated to one role (e.g., being an employee) makes it difficult to meet the demands of another role (such as being a spouse/parent; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Many predictors of time-based conflict come directly from the work domain, such as time pressures or deadlines (Kreiner, 2006), long work hours (Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987), work/schedule inflexibility (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002; Byron, 2005; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007), unpredictable work routines (Fox & Dwyer, 1999), role overload (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991), work role ambiguity, long work commutes (Voydanoff, 2005), or high work commitment (Wiley, 1987).

Sources of time-based WFC may also arise from the family domain. Some of these sources include being married (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977), having the greater responsibility for raising children (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982; Bohen, 1981; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), having both a work-oriented spouse and a larger family size (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982), or having existing family stressors (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Another contributing factor is having children— particularly young children (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1980; Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981; Pleck et al., 1980). According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2014), 64% of mothers with at least one child under six

years old are employed, suggesting that a substantial number of families may be experiencing time-based WFC.

**Sources of Strain-Based WFC.** Strains may also exacerbate WFC. Strain-based conflict occurs when strain experienced from one role makes it difficult to comply with the demands of another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Voydanoff, 2005). For example, a person may experience tension and irritability at home, which may negatively affect his/her performance at work. Or, a person may be fatigued at work, which may subsequently affect his/her abilities to fulfill family responsibilities upon arriving home. Although time-based conflict and strain-based conflict are conceptually distinct, they do share some overlapping antecedents. Sources of strain-based WFC include high work travel, overtime, long and inflexible hours, role overload, role conflict, role overload, role ambiguity, low supervisor support, and family stressors such as marital conflict, parental conflict, or having children living at home (Eby et al., 2005; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Ford et al., 2007; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

**Sources of Behavioral-Based WFC.** WFC may also be behavioral-based, which occurs when the behaviors required by one role are inconsistent with the behaviors required by another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, an employee may display few emotions at work, but a spouse may expect more expressiveness at home. Or, an employee may behave aggressively in work meetings, but be expected to show more sensitivity at home. Behavior-based WFC may occur when it becomes difficult for the employee to transition from one behavioral expression to the other, due to competing role expectations (Chen, 2011; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

**Additional Sources of WFC.** Various personality traits have significantly predicted WFC, including neuroticism, negative affect, introversion, and low self-monitoring (Eby et al., 2005). Demographic characteristics, including career type, age, and gender, have also been associated with WFC. For instance, women who have radically different careers from their husbands have tended to experience higher WFC compared to those with similar careers (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982). It is possible that spouses in similar careers have greater empathy regarding the demanding aspects of their jobs, thereby helping to reduce WFC. Age has also been negatively linked to WFC (e.g., Allen & Finkelstein, 2014; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). According to researchers, older workers may be in the ‘empty nest stage’ where there are no children still living in the home, reducing the potential for experiencing WFC. Older workers may also be less concerned in general with WFC compared to younger workers (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014). Additionally, Huffman, Culbertson, Henning, and Goh (2013) found a curvilinear relationship between age and WIF in two samples, with middle-aged employees tending to experience the highest levels of WFC. Lastly, findings have been relatively inconsistent regarding gender effects (Eby et al., 2005). In some cases, significant gender differences have been found in relation to WFC (e.g., Boyar et al., 2005; Ferguson, Carlson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012; Karambayya, & Reilly, 1992; Thompson, 1997), whereas other research has failed to detect such effects (e.g., Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle, 1997; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999).

### **Outcomes of Work-Family Conflict**

WFC is associated with a variety of negative outcomes for both the organization and the employee. Psychological strains from WFC include depression (Frone et al.,

1997), job and life dissatisfaction (Byron, 2005; Frone et al., 1997; Perrewé et al., 2003), and burnout (Byron, 2005; Kelly et al., 2008). Various physical strains associated with WFC include poor physical health and hypertension (Frone et al., 1997). Employees may also experience an assortment of behavioral strains from WFC, ranging from drug/alcohol dependence (Frone, 2000; Frone et al., 1997) and general interpersonal and organizational deviance (Darrat, Amyx, & Bennett, 2010) to specific withdrawal behaviors, such as absenteeism, lateness, early work departure (Blau, 1995; Boyar et al., 2005; Eby et al., 2005; Gignac, Kelloway, & Gottlieb, 1996; Goff et al., 1990; Hammer et al., 2003, Jackson & Schuler, 1985), and turnover (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999).

Other adverse outcomes of WFC have consisted of reduced job performance, organizational commitment (Kelly et al., 2008; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999), and employee engagement (Eby et al., 2005). One interesting finding came from Wiley (1987) who found that WFC was positively related to organizational commitment. The author theorized that perhaps employees were so dedicated to their careers that they had little time left for their family life, resulting in WFC. Although affective, normative, and continuance commitment are usually outcome variables, Wiley (1987) insinuates that in some contexts, commitment may actually be a predictor of WFC.

### **Mitigating Work-Family Conflict**

Researchers have previously investigated how work-family initiatives and other types of work-family support may help to mitigate WFC. According to Kelly et al. (2008), “work-family initiatives are deliberate organizational changes—in policies, practices, or the target culture—to reduce work–family conflict and/or support employees’ lives outside of work” (p. 4). Initiatives include work benefits such as

flexible work hours/flextime, onsite childcare, telecommuting, and parental leave.

Manager/supervisor support may also help to provide work-family balance and influence the work-family culture of the organization (Anderson et al., 2002; Eby et al., 2005; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz & Beutell, 1989; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk & Beutell, 1996; Rodgers, 1992). I will now highlight a few of these work-family resources.

Flexible work hours are generally considered one of the most preferred work policies among employees (Rodgers, 1992). For example, Anderson et al. (2002) found that WIF partially mediated the relationship between schedule flexibility and job satisfaction concerns, such that increased schedule flexibility was linked to reduced WIF, which in turn, was associated with increased job satisfaction. In other words, employees likely felt more satisfied with their jobs because their work flexibility enabled them to attain sufficient work-family balance. Similarly, Galinsky, Bond, and Friedman (1996) found that employed parents who had greater control over schedule flexibility reported reduced levels of WFC and stress. Although organizations generally intend schedule flexibility to help employees maintain work-family balance, some studies have found no significant relationship between schedule flexibility and WFC (e.g., Ganster & Bates, 2003; Markel, 2000; Parasuraman et al., 1996; Voydanoff, 2005). It is possible that employees may not frequently take advantage of flexible scheduling options. For example, employees may be less inclined to use flextime if they are physically needed in the office, their coworkers seldom leave the workplace during work hours, or their supervisor actively discourages the usage of flextime. It is also possible that employees

simply prefer a greater degree of integration between their work and family roles rather than designating distinct times to either work or family.

Another work-family initiative that researchers have investigated is onsite childcare. Employees may feel more at ease working if they know their children are nearby, and may enjoy visiting with their children during the day. Onsite childcare also reduces commuting time, as employees do not need to make a separate daycare stop (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). Galinsky et al. (1996) found that onsite childcare helped employees feel that that organization was trying to assist with work-family balance. In contrast, Goff et al. (1990) failed to detect a significant relationship between onsite childcare usage and WFC. According to the authors, this finding may have been due to low satisfaction levels with the actual childcare center. It is also possible that employees generally preferred keeping work and family domains separate as opposed to integrated.

Manager/supervisor support is an additional resource that has been associated with reduced WIF. For instance, Anderson et al. (2002) found that WIF partially mediated the relationship between manager support and job satisfaction, such that manager support was associated with reduced WIF, which in turn, was linked to increased job satisfaction. According to Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness (1999), manager support may influence whether or not employees take advantage of work-family initiatives. Formal family-friendly policies are substantially less effective for reducing WFC if supervisors do not support the policies. Employees also tend to show greater commitment to the organization if they have managers who support family-friendly policies (Thompson et al., 1999). For example, Nielson, Carlson, and Lankau (2001)

found that mentors, such as a supervisor, are more effective for reducing WFC when they share similar work-family values with the employee. Similarly, Galinsky et al. (1996) found that employed parents with higher levels of supervisor support tended to report lower levels of WFC and overall stress.

### **Boundary Theory and Role Segmentation/Integration**

Although various resources may help employees reduce WIF, coinciding policies and practices may still interfere with employees' efforts to keep work and family life separate or integrated. In the following section, I provide a background on segmentation and integration through boundary theory, which describes how people create boundaries to organize their work and family roles. Then, I discuss various influences on employees' role boundaries.

#### **Boundary Theory**

According to boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996), individuals create and maintain physical/spatial, temporal, cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioral boundaries (also called "fences") around work and family roles in order to simplify and organize their environment. People create thicker boundaries to keep roles more distinct (or segmented), and create thinner boundaries to keep roles more blurred (or integrated; Ashforth et al., 2000). The extent that people keep their roles segmented or integrated lies on a segmentation-integration continuum (Nippert-Eng, 1996; see Figure 1). Extreme segmentation or integration is cited as being fairly aberrant (e.g., Ashforth et al., 2000). Examples of extreme integration include working from home full-time (with frequent switching between roles), working in a family business, or being a landlord who lives in his/her own building. Examples of extreme segmentation include never checking

work emails on weekends, never taking work calls at home, or only interacting with work colleagues during designated business hours.

The degree to which people keep roles segmented or integrated is often based on the structure of their work and family roles (Ashforth et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2009). For example, does the individual's work role allow him/her to telecommute on Fridays? Does the person's work role allow him/her to make personal calls onsite? Does the individual's family role allow him/her to stay late at work, or is the person expected to be home every night by dinnertime? Roles tend to be more segmented when they "permit few cross-role interruptions" and are bound to "specific settings and times" (Ashforth et al., 2000, p. 476), whereas roles tend to be more integrated when they allow for frequent shifting between roles, and can be conducted in various locations and times. These role boundary characteristics are known as permeability and flexibility.

**Permeability.** Permeability is the extent to which a role allows a person to be physically in one domain (e.g., work), but psychologically and/or behaviorally in another domain (e.g., family; Ashforth et al., 2000). Another way to describe permeability is the extent to which "elements from one domain are readily found in the other domain" (Bulger, Matthews, & Hoffman, 2007, p. 366; Murray, 1999; Voydanoff, 2005). For example, an employee who openly displays family photographs in his/her office may have a more permeable work boundary, as the photographs may allow for psychological transitions between roles (Bulger et al., 2007). In other words, the employee would be physically present in the work domain, but psychologically occupied with the family domain. Permeable role boundaries also have the potential to allow for numerous cross-role interruptions (Ashforth et al., 2000). Conversely, if a person has impermeable



boundaries, he/she would not transition between work and family roles; instead, work would remain at work, and family matters would remain at home. For instance, an employee with impermeable boundaries might allocate extra work for the following work day rather than bring the work home. Those who prefer impermeable boundaries generally feel that keeping work and family domains psychologically separate helps to reduce stress, eliminate distractions, and minimize WFC (Voydanoff, 2005).

Work and family domains are not both considered equally permeable. In a study of university employees, Eagle et al. (1997) found that family role boundaries showed significantly more permeability compared to work role boundaries. According to the authors, the family domain can better tolerate cross-role interruptions than the work domain (Eagle et al., 1997; Murray, 1999). For example, a spouse often may accept work calls at home with few repercussions, whereas an employee who frequently accepts family calls at work might receive a docked performance evaluation. However, if an employee's family strongly dislikes work constantly intruding into the family domain, the employee may have to accommodate towards the family's preferences and enact more segmentative role boundaries.

**Flexibility.** Another role boundary characteristic is flexibility. Flexibility is “the extent to which temporal and spatial boundaries allow roles to be enacted in various settings and at various times” (Voydanoff, 2005, p. 492). In other words, it is “the degree to which the spatial and temporal boundaries are pliable” (Ashforth et al., 2000, p. 474). Examples illustrating flexible role boundaries are being able to leave work early for a doctor's appointment or arrive later to work after working extra hours the previous night. Inflexible boundaries dictate that family role activities cannot be adjusted to take place at

work or during work hours, as this violates firm temporal and physical/spatial boundaries. Likewise, work role activities cannot take place at home or during family-designated hours.

**Segmented Roles.** Employees with segmented roles generally have boundaries low in flexibility and permeability (Clark, 2000). For instance, people with segmented roles may designate 9:00 a.m. – 5:00 p.m. from Monday through Friday for the work domain, and allot all other hours for the family domain (Ashforth et al., 2000). For people who prefer segmentation (i.e., segmenters), violations of established spatial and temporal boundaries may contribute to unwanted interruptions and distractions, as well as WIF (Voydanoff, 2005).

**Integrated Roles.** Employees with integrated roles generally have boundaries high in flexibility and permeability. For instance, people who integrate their work and family roles may accept personal calls during work hours, respond to work emails while at home, or bring work home rather than stay late onsite (Ashforth et al., 2000; Voydanoff, 2005). For people who prefer integration (i.e., integrators), blending the work and family domains may provide a desired level of cross-role interruptions, thereby conserving resources as well as reducing WIF (Chen et al., 2009; Jett & George, 2003).

Ultimately, neither permeability nor flexibility is inherently “all good” or “all bad.” The more a role boundary’s permeability and flexibility reflect the individual’s personal segmentation/integration preferences, the less likely the individual should experience WIF. Furthermore, employee outcomes are dependent on the extent that role boundaries are *consistently* im/permeable and in/flexible. For instance, individuals who usually keep work and family roles separate are likely to be irritated upon receiving a

work phone call on their day off. Similarly, people who usually telecommute on Fridays are likely to feel displeased if a meeting that day calls for mandatory office attendance. Breaking routines is likely to result in conflict and stress for individuals, regardless of whether their routines are based around im/permeable or in/flexible boundaries (Voydanoff, 2005).

### **Influences on Role Boundaries**

The extent to which people keep their roles segmented or integrated may depend on several aspects. These include established organizational policies and practices, the organizational culture, the employee's work arrangement, the employee's personal segmentation/integration preferences, and the organization's/supervisor's preferences for segmentation or integration (Bulger et al. 2007; Kossek et al., 1999).

**Policies and Practices.** Organizational policies and practices may naturally shape roles to be segmented or integrated. Formal rules and procedures, as well as informal general practices, outline various degrees of flexibility and/or permeability for employees' work roles. According to Rothbard et al. (2005), "some organizational policies may help individuals to strengthen or reinforce boundaries between work and nonwork roles, whereas others may help weaken the boundaries between these roles" (p. 245).

One policy that may impact role boundary maintenance is mandating that all work be completed onsite. Some organizations do not allow technology (e.g., company laptops, flash drives) or other sensitive materials to be taken home due to increased security risks. A worksite-only policy tends to promote segmentation because it eliminates flexibility and reduces permeability between work and home domains. Integrators may be

particularly affected, as they generally prefer to complete extra work at home, and can easily engage in cross-role transitions to meet both work and family demands. If work materials must be kept onsite, an integrator may have to stay late at work to meet an assigned deadline, therefore moderately segmenting his/her work and family roles.

Being pressured to work more hours than one actually wants or being assigned to work overtime involuntarily are practices that may also affect one's constructed role boundaries (Berg et al., 2003; Jansen et al., 2004; Kelly et al., 2008; Voydanoff, 2005). If there is a shortage of hourly employees, other hourly employees may be strongly pressured to absorb some of those time slots (with the alternative being disciplined or fired). Having to work extra hours or work involuntary overtime generally reduces flexibility for employees, as more hours must be designated specifically to the workplace, thus taking time away from the family domain. Permeability is also moderately reduced by requiring employees to remain at work during family hours, as there are fewer cross-role interferences (compared to working from home).

Telecommuting opportunities may also impact employees' management of role boundaries. Telecommuting promotes both flexible and permeable boundaries; it allows employees to work from home while simultaneously balancing family-related duties. For instance, an employee can engage in swift role transitions by performing work at home, stopping to make his/her child lunch, and immediately resume working. Telecommuting also enables employees to stay home with sick kids without forfeiting organizational productivity or taking a vacation day. If telecommuting is offered, integrators should be more likely to utilize the policy, whereas segmenters should be more likely to decline and continue segmenting their roles. Furthermore, organizational culture may impact the

extent that employees take advantage of the policy, as will be discussed shortly.

However, if telecommuting is *not* offered— such as in 2013, when Yahoo CEO Marissa Mayer banned telecommuting in favor of an office-only policy— integrators may be forced to keep their work and family roles more segmented than desired.

Finally, technological communication, such as phone calls, texts, or emails, may influence employees' abilities to keep their roles more segmented or integrated.

Supervisors may expect employees to respond to work-related calls, texts, or emails after work hours (e.g., late at night), during days off, or while on vacation. Employees often feel obligated to respond or risk losing a promotion, raise, or even their job entirely (Porter, 2010). Many employees find it necessary to maintain communication with supervisors, even if the employees are currently in their family domain. Integrators may not mind these disruptions, or may welcome them to some extent. However, should the supervisor encourage communication during nonwork days/hours, segmenters will generally have to integrate their work and family roles more than preferred.

**Work Arrangement.** The workplace arrangement, including expected hours of work and job type, may influence the extent that employees segment or integrate their work and home roles. A standard work schedule (9:00 a.m. – 5:00 p.m., Monday – Friday) involves moderately low flexibility and permeability, and generally encourages employees to keep work and family domains segmented. Individuals are expected to be present in the office and to have few interruptions from other domains. Shiftwork and night jobs also tend to promote segmented roles due to low flexibility and permeability. People must devote extensive time towards the work domain, and there might not be adequate time to have exchanges with family members (Ford et al., 2007; Greenhaus &

Beutell, 1985). Or, one's family may not be available for interruptions (e.g., family members might be asleep during the employee's night shift). Assembly line workers also tend to have relatively fixed temporal and spatial boundaries; their presence is required at a particular time and location, constituting little flexibility (Kossek et al., 1999). Employees who work in very chaotic and stressful occupations (e.g., 911 dispatchers, air traffic controllers) may also generally have segmentative roles due to significant time pressures and prominent consequences for not performing their jobs quickly, efficiently, and correctly. For other employees, the workplace arrangement may encourage integration between work and family domains. This is very common in family firms (i.e., family-owned businesses) where relatives comprise many of the employees (Cooper et al., 2013). Boundaries are extremely permeable in family firms; if an employee is related to the owner, it becomes nearly impossible to separate the roles of 'employee' and 'family member,' as they are naturally blended together (Cooper et al., 2013). Employees in family firms must frequently integrate their work and family roles regardless of their personal preferences.

**Organizational Culture.** The organizational culture additionally may impact how employees manage boundaries between work and family domains. Organizational culture is composed of common assumptions, norms, values, and beliefs shared by individuals in the organization (Schneider, 1987). A supportive work-family culture is more likely to offer work-family initiatives that aim to help balance the two domains, such as flextime, onsite childcare, or telecommuting. Segmenters and integrators can choose among the policies that best fit with their preferred way of managing role boundaries (e.g., flextime for segmenters, onsite childcare and telecommuting for

integrators; Rau & Hyland, 2002; Rothbard et al., 2005). However, if the organizational culture itself is not family-friendly, then employees may hesitate to use any formally-offered work-family initiatives. For instance, employees may shy away from using flextime or telecommuting if the norm for employees is to be present in the workplace, or if the supervisor strongly frowns upon employees performing work from home. The organizational culture may also specifically support segmented roles in other ways. If employees in the organization hold shared beliefs about being part of a highly competitive team, they might often stay late at work together. Integrators would thus be pressured to enact more segmentative roles. In contrast, the organizational culture could naturally be more integrative. Employees may frequently talk about their families during work hours or invite coworkers into their homes. This pattern of interaction contributes to setting more integrative role boundaries.

**Preferences for Segmentation/Integration.** People's personal preferences may impact the degree to which they segment or integrate their roles. According to boundary theory, people's preferences for segmentation or integration range on a single continuum (Ashforth et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2009; Edwards & Rothbard, 1999; Nippert-Eng, 1996). As mentioned earlier, those who prefer a greater degree of separation between their work and family domains are called "segmenters," whereas those who prefer a greater degree of overlap between work and family are called "integrators" (Nippert-Eng, 1996). Segmenters generally prefer more distinct physical/spatial, temporal, cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioral boundaries around work and family roles, whereas integrators generally prefer to blur those boundaries (Ashforth et al. 2000; Kreiner, 2006; Nippert-Eng, 1996).

Individuals' preferences for segmentation or integration may or may not reflect the preferences of their organization/supervisor. The organization's/supervisor's preferences are manifested by existing formal work policies and informal general practices (Kossek et al., 1999; Rothbard et al., 2005). For instance, a supervisor may commonly assign work over the weekend and ask for work progress updates. This general practice inherently encourages a degree of integration, as most employees will need to bring work home over the weekend. Moderate integrators may not mind or even prefer some work infiltrating into the family domain, but an excessive amount of weekend work may exceed their own preferences for integration. Segmenters may particularly dislike work being assigned over the weekend, as they have family obligations and responsibilities at home, and therefore will likely have to complete extra work while in their family domain. Extreme segmenters may resign themselves to coming into the workplace over the weekend, but even so, they are only establishing spatial boundaries between the work and family domains. Temporal role boundaries are still being violated if segmenters come to work during non-work days/hours, as that time is designated for their family. Going to work over the weekend may also violate cognitive boundaries as well, as employees may be thinking about their families' needs during that time. Ultimately, it can be problematic for employees to meet work and family demands if organizational policies and practices contradict employees' segmentation/integration preferences.

In summary, role boundaries are generally shaped by a variety of characteristics (i.e., policies and practices, the workplace arrangement, the organizational culture, personal preferences). These aspects may all influence the extent that employees segment



or integrate their work and family roles (Ford et al., 2007; Kossek et al., 1999; Thompson et al., 1997). It should be noted, however, that neither segmentation nor integration is consistently considered a superior method of managing role boundaries (Kossek et al., 1999). Rather, employee outcomes are best determined by the degree of congruence between a person's segmentation/integration preferences and the preferences of his or her organization/supervisor (Kreiner, 2006). I will now elaborate on more of this particular type of value congruence and its relation to employee outcomes.

### **Segmentation/Integration Value Congruence and WIF**

In the upcoming section, I provide a general background on overall value congruence as well as more specific types, including work-family value congruence and segmentation/integration value congruence. I then refer to the scarcity hypothesis and conflict perspective to explain why segmentation/integration value congruence may impact WIF perceptions.

### **General Background on Value Congruence**

According to researchers, values are consistent, normatively-guided beliefs that influence one's attitudes, judgments, decisions, and behaviors (Cable & Judge, 1997; Edwards & Cable, 2009). Organizational values describe an organization's beliefs regarding how employees should behave and how resources should be distributed. Organizational values are often communicated through a company's mission statement, vision, and stated policies and practices (Suar & Khuntia, 2010). When employees' values reflect their organization's values, this is known as value congruence (the most common type of person-organization fit; Kristof, 1996). Value congruence can be determined in several ways. For instance, it can be measured by the employee's own

perceptions of fit, or it may be measured by having others (e.g., coworkers, a supervisor) determine the extent that the employee shares similar values with the organization (Edward & Cable, 2009). When employees display higher levels of value congruence, they are more likely to feel that the organization has suitable principles/standards, integrity, and trustworthiness (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995).

Overall value congruence between employees and the organization has consistently been associated with positive outcomes, including increased job satisfaction, organizational identification, organizational commitment, employee communication, and reduced role ambiguity and turnover (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Chatman 1991; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Edward & Cable, 2009; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Riketta, 2005). Value congruence has also been indirectly linked to higher levels of task and contextual performance. For example, Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010) found in a study of  $N=245$  firefighters that job engagement significantly mediated the relationship between value congruence and task performance as well as organizational citizenship behaviors. According to Kahn (1992) as cited in Rich et al. (2010), when employees feel a sense of value congruence, they tend to feel more positively about their job roles in general, and view their roles as more “inviting, valuable, and worthwhile” (p. 621). These perceptions positively impact both employee task and contextual performance.

Researchers have also examined work-family value congruence and how it relates to WFC, among other relevant outcomes. Work-family value congruence is a narrower form of overall value congruence, and is defined as the extent to which employees and their organization/supervisor share similar perspectives and beliefs regarding work-

family balance (Nielson et al., 2001). Nielson et al. (2001) investigated the relationships between mentoring, work-family value congruence, and WFC. The authors found that employees who share similar work-family values with their mentor tend to experience lower levels of WFC (specifically, FIW;  $r = -.22$ ). Another study from Thompson, Brough, and Schmidt (2006) examined work-family value congruence among employees and their supervisors. The authors surveyed employees regarding supervisor support, WIF, work-family value congruence, job satisfaction, and emotional exhaustion. The authors found that having similar work-family values to one's supervisor was negatively related to WIF and positively related to job satisfaction. Furthermore, the authors found that work-family value congruence indirectly affected WIF and job satisfaction levels through perceptions of supervisor support. Specifically, higher work-family similarity levels boosted perceptions of supervisor support, which in turn, reduced WIF and increased overall job satisfaction. Work-family value congruence also had an indirect effect on emotional exhaustion through WIF perceptions, such that value congruence reduced WIF, which in turn, reduced emotional exhaustion.

The findings of these authors overall help to establish a link between work-family value congruence and employee outcomes in both work and family domains. Thompson et al. (2006) caution though that “although organizations may provide work-family policies, managers may not supply this support if they do not possess the same work-family values as their subordinates” (p. 60). In other words, having supervisor support regarding work-family balance is a crucial underlying element to minimizing WIF, even if the organization already presents a supportive stance. As previously mentioned, supervisors may implement general practices that contradict formal organizational

policies. For example, supervisors might discourage employees from taking advantage of formally offered work-family initiatives. Consistency between values among the employee, supervisor, and the organization help to strengthen perceptions of value congruence.

### **Segmentation/Integration Value Congruence, WIF, and Resources**

I now discuss a subset of work-family value congruence: congruence between employees and their organization/supervisor regarding preferences for segmentation or integration. (For simplicity's sake, I refer to this form of value congruence here onwards as "segmentation/integration value congruence.") Whereas work-family value congruence measures general similarity of views, beliefs, and concerns regarding work-family balance (Nielson et al., 2001), segmentation/integration value congruence specifically captures the extent that people share similar preferences with their organization/supervisor for keeping work and family separate or together. In order to explain why low segmentation/integration value congruence may be associated with heightened WIF perceptions, I provide a theoretical background of the scarcity hypothesis and the conflict perspective. These perspectives offer several insights regarding why workplace factors such as incongruous policies and practices have the potential to induce or exacerbate WIF.

**Scarcity Hypothesis and Conflict Perspective.** The scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1960) and the conflict perspective (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999) are often coupled together in the literature. Together, these perspectives claim that people have only a finite amount of resources, such as time and energy. By devoting resources to one role (e.g., being an employee), individuals are

inevitably depriving resources from another role (e.g., being a spouse/parent). This resource deprivation may result in stress as well as interrole conflict, such as WIF, “due to competing role demands and expectations” (Chen, 2011, p. 1; Febbraro, 2003; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, an employee seeking a promotion may be pressured to devote substantial hours towards his/her work role. Allocating greater time towards work may create difficulties with fulfilling family expectations and obligations (Ferguson et al., 2012), thereby contributing to increased WIF.

As previously discussed, organizational policies and practices may broaden or constrain work role flexibility and/or permeability. Therefore, these policies and practices influence the extent to which employees can segment or integrate their roles. Relatively flexible and permeable boundaries illustrate greater organizational/supervisory preferences for integration, whereas relatively inflexible and permeable boundaries demonstrate greater organizational/supervisory preferences for segmentation. The lower the segmentation/integration value congruence, the more employees must adjust the extent that they segment or integrate their work/family roles in order to meet their organization’s/supervisor’s preferences (see Figures 2-5). These role boundary accommodations involve expending additional resources, such as time, energy, and effort, towards managing the work domain at the expense of the family domain. This resource deprivation may contribute to interrole conflict between the work and family domains, particularly in the work-to-family direction (i.e., WIF).

Ultimately, the lowest levels of segmentation/integration value congruence should occur when there are large differences between employee and organizational/supervisory preferences for segmentation/integration; namely, when segmenters must enact

integrative roles or when integrators must enact segmentative roles (see Figures 2-3). For instance, if employees are mandated to complete their work onsite, integrators may experience extensive resource depletion and consequently high levels of WIF. Even if all parties' preferences align on the same side of the segmentation – integration continuum, employees may also experience moderate levels of WIF if their role boundaries are substantially more segmented or integrated than desired (see Figures 4-5). For instance, an integrator may be comfortable taking work calls and emails while at home, but may resent a supervisor who frequently sends phone calls, texts, and/or emails to the employee late at night (e.g., 10:00 p.m.), on days off (e.g., weekends, holidays), or while the employee is on vacation.

One might argue that employees could consider disobeying policies or practices that significantly interfere with their preferred work and family boundaries. For instance, a segmenter might refuse to pick up the phone when a supervisor calls outside of designated work hours, or an integrator may refuse to work extra hours onsite. However, supervisors face impending deadlines of their own, and may expect prompt responses from employees regardless of potentially inopportune timing. Ignoring one's supervisor may potentially result in missing important information (such as updated deadlines) and failing to meet the supervisor's expectations. In today's work environment, it is important to at least maintain pace with other employees (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Porter, 2010). An employee who refuses to continue working while at home may lag behind compared to other coworkers, receive poor performance evaluations, be overlooked for promotions/raises, and/or be terminated in a layoff (Porter, 2010). Therefore, when segmentation/integration value congruence is low, employees should be more likely to

attempt to accommodate, rather than reject, the organization's/supervisor's segmentation/integration preferences. Employees who must make such accommodations are likely to invest more time and energy into managing their work roles and consequently experiencing higher levels of WIF.

Unfortunately, existing research is fairly sparse regarding segmentation/integration value congruence, but several studies have examined its relationship with various employee/organizational outcomes. Many prior studies have focused on work-family initiatives, which are policies and practices deliberately designed to aid employees with work-family balance (Kelly et al., 2008). One study comes from Rothbard et al. (2005), who examined employee segmentation/integration preferences, access to segmentative/integrative work-family initiatives (i.e., organizational preferences for segmentation/integration), and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Significant interactions revealed that employee preferences for segmentation and integration (respectively) moderated the relationship between organizational preferences and employee outcomes. In general, as segmentation/integration value congruence increased, employees generally tended to experience higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Rothbard et al.'s (2005) findings suggest that higher levels of segmentation/integration value congruence may positively impact employees, likely due to the resources offered from preferred work-family initiatives. Employees with high segmentation/integration value congruence may have access to initiatives that they find useful for accomplishing tasks and balancing work and family demands, thereby increasing job satisfaction and organizational commitment. On the other hand, low segmentation/integration value congruence may have detrimental effects on job

satisfaction and commitment, as employees may not be able to access the policies that they find most helpful for meeting their desired segmentation/integration preferences.

Another study comes from Kreiner (2006), who examined segmentation/integration value congruence via a longitudinal study of university alumni. The author initially assessed employee and organizational segmentation/integration preferences at Time 1, and then assessed employee outcomes three months later. Results were analyzed via polynomial regression, which can incorporate both linear as well as curvilinear effects. Kreiner (2006) found that when employees and the organization shared higher preferences for segmentation (i.e., greater segmentation value congruence), employees tended to experience less stress and work-to-home conflict.

It should be noted that Kreiner (2006) examined segmentation as though it were a distinct construct from integration, and did not explicitly interpret lower segmentation scores as higher preferences for integration (in spite of using the identical employee preferences scale as Rothbard et al., 2005). Past research has shown that preferences for segmentation and integration range on opposite ends of a single continuum, and therefore it would be more appropriate to interpret lower segmentation scores as higher preferences for integration. With this perspective, Kreiner's (2006) findings offer some additional insights. Consistent with Rothbard et al.'s (2005) findings, when employees and the organization shared higher preferences for integration (i.e., greater integration value congruence), employees tended to experience increased job satisfaction. However, greater integration value congruence was also associated with significantly *higher* levels of work-to-home conflict and stress. Integrative organizational policies and practices may increase work flexibility and permeability, thereby increasing integrators' satisfaction



with their jobs; however, it is possible that the employees' families strongly opposed work being performed in the family domain, thus increasing work-to-home conflict and stress.

A third study comes from Chen et al. (2009), who examined segmentation/integration value congruence specifically in relation to WIF. The authors measured employee and organizational preferences for segmentation/integration and created a segmentation/integration value congruence variable through latent congruence modeling. Findings revealed that segmentation/integration value congruence negatively predicted both time-based WIF ( $\beta = -.26, p < .001$ ) and strain-based WIF ( $\beta = -.40, p < .001$ ). According to Chen et al. (2009), "employees may perform best in the family domain when they are supplied with their desired degree of interruptions from the work domain," allowing employees to "[experience] less time-related resource drain" (p. 91). Increased segmentation/integration value congruence may also sufficiently reduce the amount of resources employees need to allocate to the work domain, leaving available extra resources for the family domain. Finally, Chen et al.'s (2009) findings suggest that either role segmentation or role integration are capable of mitigating WIF, as long as fit is established between employee and organizational preferences.

A final study comes from Pan and Yeh (2012), who directly measured employees' perceptions of segmentation/integration value congruence with their organization and supervisor. The authors found that both types of segmentation/integration value congruence were weakly related to work-to-home conflict ( $r = -.15, r = -.13$ , respectively). In addition, a Sobel (1982) test revealed that perceived organizational support (POS) significantly mediated the relationship between organizational segmentation/integration

value congruence and work-to-home conflict, such that value congruence was associated with increased POS, which was subsequently related to reduced work-to-home conflict. The findings suggest that employees may feel more valued when the organization implements policies and practices that are aligned with their preferred role boundaries. Maintaining preferred boundaries between work and home domains may help to conserve resources and reduce interrole conflict.

The findings of the previous studies are generally consistent with the scarcity hypothesis and conflict perspective. These perspectives together claim that in general, balancing work and family roles drain resources due to “competing role demands and expectations” (Chen, 2011, p. 1), and that WFC should subsequently occur due to resource deprivation. When there is low segmentation/integration value congruence, organizational policies and practices generally do not allow employees to maintain preferred work and family boundaries. Instead, employees must invest additional resources towards their work roles (e.g., time, energy, effort) in order to accommodate the organization’s segmentation/integration preferences. The greater the accommodations, the more resources must be expended. In turn, employees experiencing low segmentation/integration value congruence should have fewer resources to allocate to the family domain, increasing their likelihood of experiencing WIF. Consistent with previous research, I anticipate that lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence will be associated with greater WIF perceptions.

**Hypothesis 1:** Segmentation/integration value congruence will be negatively related to WIF.

### **Value Congruence, WIF, and Unethical Work Behavior Intentions**

In the following section, I discuss social exchange theory, organizational support theory, and the norm of reciprocity to explain why employees who experience WIF due to low segmentation/integration value congruence may be more likely to engage in unethical work behavior (UWB).

### **Social Exchange Theory and Organizational Support Theory**

According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), people form relationships with partners, such as other employees and/or the organization, in order to maximize both tangible and intangible resources. The longer and more favorable the relationship, the greater loyalty, effort, trust, identification, and commitment employees will display towards their partner (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). When the partner is the organization, employees will demonstrate positive work behaviors towards the organization and expect to be rewarded in return.

Organizational support theory builds on social exchange theory by focusing primarily on employees' perceptions of feeling valued by the organization as a function of the social exchange relationship. According to organizational support theory, POS is the extent to which employees feel that the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). When the organization voluntarily provides favorable treatment (e.g., useful policies, emotional resources, fair salary), employees feel greater obligations for helping the organization meet its goals. Employees often reciprocate the organization's favorable treatment through increased performance and work effort, affective and normative commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and reduced counterproductive work behaviors (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009;

Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Sinclair, Hannigan, & Tetrick, 1995).

However, organizational policies or practices that contribute to WIF may be considered unfavorable treatment. Employees may perceive low segmentation/integration value congruence when organizational policies and practices violate their preferred boundaries between work and family roles. Such violations may fuel resentment among employees, as they must devote greater resources towards work, draining valued resources needed to fulfill family obligations. For instance, if a supervisor calls to discuss work during family-designated hours, segmenters may feel that their family time is being “stolen”—time which is necessary to meet family responsibilities, needs, and expectations. In contrast, integrators may not perceive work calls as role boundary violations, as they generally do not mind cross-role interruptions and can easily transition between roles. The more the organization/supervisor implements policies or practices that greatly conflict with the employee’s preferences for segmentation or integration, the more the employee may experience WIF (Chen et al., 2009).

Based on social exchange theory and organizational support theory, when the organization or supervisor implements policies and practices that contradict employees’ segmentation/integration preferences, employees will view these policies and practices as a violation of the favorable treatment expected in exchange for positive work behaviors (Blau, 1964; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Liao, 2011). If employees experience WIF as a result of a role boundary violation (or repeated violations), they may feel even less supported and valued by the organization. Employees with reduced POS levels tend to experience hindered identification/affective commitment, felt obligations, job

performance, and overall job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Kelly et al., 2008; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Furthermore, social exchange theory (based on the norm of reciprocity; Gouldner, 1960) suggests that employees may reciprocate this negatively perceived treatment by engaging in unethical work behavior (UWB).

### **Value Congruence and Unethical Work Behaviors**

UWB is defined as behavior by an employee that “defies and violates (a) shared organizational norms and expectations, and/or (b) core societal values, [group morals], and standards of proper conduct” (Wouters, Maesschalck, Peeters, & Roosen, 2014, p. 276). UWB may range from “integrity violations (e.g., coming to work late, gossiping, minor effort) to manifestly criminal behavior (e.g., theft, corruption, fraud)” (Wouters et al., 2014, p. 275-276). Although UWB, counterproductive work behavior (CWB), workplace deviance, incivility, and organizational misbehavior have different labels, they all fall under a larger umbrella of behaviors that violate ethical norms and have the potential to harm other employees and/or the organization (Vardi & Wiener, 1996; Wouters et al., 2014).

Previous research suggests that employees who perceive low levels of organizational support may tend to reciprocate by engaging in harmful work behaviors. A meta-analysis of  $k=73$  independent studies by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that POS had moderate, negative relationships with withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and tardiness ( $r_{corrected} = -.26$ ). However, no published studies to date have specifically examined the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB. When the organization/supervisor enforces incongruous policies and practices, this

treatment suggests that the organization/supervisor lacks care and concern towards employees— specifically their preferences for maintaining work-family balance (Liao, 2011). In other words, lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence indicate that the organization and/or supervisor places their own needs and preferences above and beyond those of the employee.

The norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1964) suggests that employees will be likely to reciprocate negatively against the organization/supervisor for implementing incongruous policies and practices. For instance, if a segmenter has a large workload and is facing a deadline the next morning, the employee will likely need to adjust his/her role boundaries by bringing work home that night in order to simultaneously meet family needs at home. Consequentially, segmenters may consider taking a long break or leaving work early after meeting their assigned deadline, as the organization essentially “stole time” from their family domain. The norm of reciprocity also applies if the organization encourages more segmented role boundaries and employees prefer more integration, such as when Yahoo banned telecommuting in 2013. Under such conditions, employees with ill children may be more likely to leave work early (a form of withdrawal) rather than report a half vacation day due to the workplace denying them an opportunity to work from home. Therefore, based on social exchange theory, organizational support theory, and the norm of reciprocity, I expect that employees with lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence should be more likely to engage in UWB.

**Hypothesis 2:** Segmentation/integration value congruence will be negatively related to UWB intentions.

## **WIF and UWB Intentions**

Although no research to date has examined whether segmentation/integration value congruence is related to UWB, multiple studies indicate that employees who experience WIF tend to engage in higher levels of UWB. For instance, in two separate studies, Ferguson et al. (2012) investigated WIF and production deviance by surveying full-time job incumbents and their spouses/partners. In both studies, the authors found that WIF among job incumbents was moderately related to production deviance ( $r=.31$ ). Based on organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), it is possible that job incumbents were resentful towards the organization for contributing to elevated WIF levels, and therefore felt fewer obligations to help the organization at peak capacity. Instead, individuals may have engaged in production deviance when time permitted, such as working slowly.

Darrat et al. (2010) also examined the relationship between WIF and workplace deviance among business sales employees. The authors found that WIF was positively related to interpersonal deviance ( $r=.14$ ), organizational deviance ( $r=.19$ ), and customer-directed deviance ( $r=.15$ ). Furthermore, they found that WIF had a positive, indirect influence on organizational deviance through job dissatisfaction. According to Darrat et al. (2010), employees may be dissatisfied with the organization setting heavy demands on their work life, subsequently straining their family life. Employees may retaliate by “directing the [norm-violating] behaviors at the source of the discrepancy (i.e., the organization)” (p. 247).

Several researchers have examined how WIF specifically relates to withdrawal behaviors in the workplace. Boyar et al. (2005) studied the relationship between WIF and absenteeism, leaving work early, and tardiness over a 13-month period. The authors

found that WIF was significantly related to early work departure ( $r=.13$ ), although not absenteeism or tardiness. The authors suspected that taking a full day off from work might negatively affect pay (thereby discouraging absenteeism), whereas leaving early may not necessarily affect pay (or have a lesser effect). Departing work early might also be considered less noticeable compared to taking a full day off. Finally, the authors cited low tardiness frequencies as their reasoning behind the nonsignificant link between WIF and tardiness.

Other researchers have cited significant relationships between WIF and withdrawal behaviors as well. For example, Demerouti et al. (2011) surveyed female financial service employees and found that WIF was positively related to both absenteeism frequency ( $r=.12$ ) and absenteeism duration ( $r=.16$ ) one year later. Hammer et al. (2003) assessed dual earner couples on their withdrawal behaviors, including personal interruptions at work, lateness, and absenteeism. The authors found that female partners' perceptions of WIF were positively related to them experiencing personal interruptions at work ( $r=.25$ ) and work tardiness ( $r=.16$ ). Similarly, male partners' perceptions of WIF were positively related to them experiencing personal interruptions at work ( $r=.19$ ) and absenteeism ( $r=.15$ ). Other researchers such as Karatepe and Karadas (2014) and Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Collins (2001) have reported moderate, positive relationships between WIF and absenteeism intentions ( $r=.36$  and  $r=.40$ , respectively). Finally, WIF has been linked to future withdrawal behavior (i.e., actual turnover;  $r=.19$ ; Greenhaus et al., 2001). These relationships may potentially depict employee efforts to reclaim lost personal time as a result of devoting excessive resources towards the work domain.



Ultimately, a variety of studies have identified links between WIF and various forms of UWB. These findings as a whole suggest that employees may reciprocate against the organization/supervisor for interfering with their role boundaries through UWB.

### **Partial Mediation Model**

I now consolidate my previous arguments regarding links between segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and intentions to commit UWB. Briefly, the scarcity hypothesis and conflict perspective claim that balancing multiple roles should drain resources and lead to interrole conflict (Chen, 2011; Goode, 1960; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Incongruous segmentation/integration policies and practices violate employees' preferred boundaries between work and family roles. These violations may cause employees to devote substantially greater resources towards the work domain, leaving fewer resources available for the family domain and contributing to WIF (a form of interrole conflict). Moreover, when employees are put in positions where they may experience WIF, they tend to perceive a poor social exchange relationship between themselves and the organization, and "assume that their organization does not care about their well-being" (Liao, 2011, p. 2968). Employees experiencing higher levels of WIF due to low segmentation/integration value congruence should therefore be likely to reciprocate this unfavorable treatment through UWB. Organizational support theory and social exchange theory also suggest that segmentation/integration value congruence may directly impact UWB intentions. Employees may reciprocate against incongruous policies and practices by contemplating UWB (even if they do not necessarily experience

WIF), as the presence and enforcement of said policies and practices indicate that their organization cares little for their role boundary preferences. However, if low segmentation/integration value congruence increases WIF, employees should be even likelier to justify future unethical behaviors. Higher WIF levels only serve to reinforce existing perceptions that the employee is being treated unfavorably by the organization (Liao, 2011). To date, no model integrating segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and UWB intentions has been empirically tested. Cooper, Kidwell, and Eddleston (2013) proposed a similar model applied to specifically family firms, but they did not empirically test their model.

Consistent with the scarcity hypothesis and conflict perspective, as well as organizational support theory, social exchange theory, and the norm of reciprocity, I hypothesize that WIF should partially mediate the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. In particular, lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence should increase WIF perceptions, which in turn, should increase employee UWB intentions. Segmentation/integration value congruence should also have a direct, negative relationship with UWB intentions.

**Hypothesis 3:** WIF will partially mediate the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions.

### **Conscientiousness as a Moderator**

A final component of this research study explores how conscientiousness may influence several relationships between segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and UWB intentions. Conscientious individuals tend to be achievement-oriented, hard-working, and dependable (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001;

Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). They tend to behave responsibly and abide by ethical principles for their behavior (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Dalal, 2005; Ones & Viswesveran, 1996; Salgado, 2002). Conscientiousness is also one of the Big Five personality traits that are partially captured in integrity tests (Berry, Ones & Sackett, 2007).

**Segmentation/Integration Value Congruence – WIF Path.** Employees who have low perceptions of segmentation/integration value congruence and are low in conscientiousness may actually be *less* likely to experience WIF. When employees experience low segmentation/integration value congruence, they must extensively accommodate their role boundaries towards their organization's/supervisor's preferences. The greater these accommodations, the fewer resources are available for their family domain (see Figures 2-3). However, employees who are low in conscientiousness may show reduced concern overall with meeting their organization's/supervisor's role boundary preferences. In other words, low-conscientious employees may be less likely to perform work outside of normal work hours and/or when it is inconvenient, regardless of potential consequences (e.g., receiving poor performance evaluations, being demoted, being laid off; Porter, 2010). For example, if a supervisor assigns a time-sensitive workload over the weekend, segmenters in general may be displeased with the role boundary violation, as it generally involves bringing work home. However, low-conscientious segmenters may feel less obligated to perform the assigned tasks compared to high-conscientious segmenters. Employees who infrequently or never accommodate their role boundaries designate fewer resources towards the work domain, enabling more resources for non-work roles. Therefore, employees who experience low

segmentation/integration value congruence and are low on conscientiousness should ultimately be less likely to experience WIF compared to those high on conscientiousness.

### **Segmentation/Integration Value Congruence – UWB Intentions Path.**

Conscientiousness may also influence the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. When the organization/supervisor implements incongruous policies and practices, this treatment demonstrates the organization's lack of care and concern towards employees' well-being and their desire to maintain work-family balance (Liao, 2011). Social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity suggest that employees may reciprocate via UWB. Research has shown that employees who are low in conscientiousness are significantly more likely to engage in deviant work behaviors. For example, Bowling and Eschleman (2010) found that conscientiousness had moderate, negative relationships with organizationally-directed CWB ( $r = -.35$ ) and interpersonally-directed CWB ( $r = -.38$ ). Meta-analyses from Salgado (2002) and Dalal (2005) also found moderate, negative relationships between conscientiousness and workplace deviance ( $\rho = -.26$  and  $\rho = -.38$ , respectively).

When the organization/supervisor implements incongruous policies and practices, low-conscientious employees may be more likely to disregard the organization's/supervisor's preferences altogether compared to high-conscientious employees. For example, a segmenter who is low in conscientiousness may refuse to answer urgent work emails over the weekend. Or, a low-conscientious integrator may refuse to stay late onsite to meet a deadline. Employees who forgo work – especially time-sensitive work – are engaging in UWB by violating organizational norms and their organization's/supervisor's expectations. Therefore, low conscientiousness is anticipated

to strengthen the negative relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions.

Conversely, highly conscientious employees experiencing low segmentation/integration value congruence should be less inclined to engage in UWB. High-conscientious employees are more likely to feel dedicated to their work due to the time, effort, and sacrifices they have already made (e.g., sacrificing bonding time with their family to focus on work demands). According to the sunk cost effect (Staw, 1976), people who have previously invested resources towards a goal or decision will tend to remain committed towards that goal or decision. Curtailing work-oriented behavior by engaging in UWB would essentially waste resources that employees previously devoted to the company and their professional goals. Openly resisting organizational policies and practices could also harm employees' position and/or standing in the company, thereby undermining any previous sacrifices they made for work. Furthermore, high-conscientiousness employees may feel hesitant to engage in behaviors that violate ethical norms, as the behaviors could negatively impact the organization or other employees. If organizational policies and practices interfere with employees' preferred role boundaries, high-conscientious employees may be reluctant to respond unethically towards their organization or supervisor. Therefore, greater levels of conscientiousness are expected to weaken the negative relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions.

**WIF – UWB Intentions Path.** In general, low-conscientious employees who have reduced perceptions of segmentation/integration value congruence are unlikely to experience WIF. However, for those who *do* experience WIF, employees low on

conscientiousness should be significantly more likely to engage in UWB compared to those high on conscientiousness. If role boundary violations interfere with the employee's family time either through segmentative or integrative policies, this may increase WIF perceptions. Reciprocating through UWB, such as withdrawal or production deviance, may help employees regain some of their lost personal time that the organization essentially "stole." In particular, low-conscientious employees experiencing higher levels of WIF may be more likely to engage in UWB, such as arriving later to work, leaving early, or taking longer breaks during the following day. As previously stated, conscientiousness has been negatively linked to a variety of deviant work behaviors (e.g., Salgado, 2002; Dalal, 2005). Therefore, lower levels of conscientiousness are expected to strengthen the positive relationship between WIF and UWB intentions. Higher levels of conscientiousness, however, are expected to weaken this relationship. High-conscientious employees will be reluctant to abandon previously invested time and effort towards personal and organizational work goals (sunk cost effect; Staw, 1976) by engaging in UWB. Therefore, among employees experiencing higher levels of WIF, those high in conscientiousness will be less likely to reciprocate via UWB towards their organization/supervisor.

### **Full Model**

Based on the previous arguments, I propose a moderated mediation model, which can be viewed in Figure 6. In the model, I hypothesize that lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence should increase WIF, as incongruous policies/practices generally require employees to devote greater resources towards the work domain. In turn, employees will have reduced resources to devote to the family

domain, hindering their abilities to sufficiently fulfill their family responsibilities. If the organization/supervisor willingly implements policies and practices that interfere with employees' preferred work/family boundaries, then this stance illustrates a lack of organizational support and care for employees' well-being. Social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity suggest that employees will be more likely to reciprocate this negative treatment by engaging in UWB. Thus, I anticipate the presence of a direct, negative relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions, as well as an indirect, negative relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions through WIF.

Among employees experiencing low segmentation/integration value congruence, low-conscientious employees should be less likely to experience WIF, as they may be less concerned overall towards meeting the organization's/supervisor's preferences (therefore not expending extra resources towards work). Low-conscientious employees experiencing low segmentation/integration value congruence should also be more likely to engage in UWB (e.g., ignoring work), whereas the sunk cost effect suggests that high-conscientious employees should be less likely to engage in UWB due to previous sacrifices towards work. Finally, although low-conscientious employees are unlikely to experience WIF, those who do should have greater intentions to commit UWB compared to those higher in conscientiousness.

**Hypotheses 4a-c:** WIF will partially mediate the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions, and conscientiousness will moderate relationships between segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF and UWB intentions. Specifically, **a)** the negative

relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF will be weaker when conscientiousness is low compared to high, **b)** the negative relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions will be weaker when conscientiousness is high compared to low, and **c)** the positive relationship between WIF and UWB intentions will be weaker when conscientiousness is high compared to low.

## **Method**

### **Participants and Procedure**

In 2014, adult participants were recruited nationally through Qualtrics, an online survey company that compensates individuals for participating in survey research. Researchers may request a specified target audience and number of respondents, such as “a general sampling of the United States population, or a general sampling of select other countries...[Researchers] can also target a specific age range, gender, US state, or ethnicity” (Qualtrics, 2016a). Third parties are utilized in order to recruit a panel of participants with the requested qualifications (Anderson, 2015). Potential panel participants are often recruited through email or public advertisements, such as through Facebook. Individuals are asked a series of general demographic questions (e.g., age, gender, industry, hours worked per week) and are sent surveys when they meet a particular study’s qualifications (Qualtrics, personal communication, September 26, 2016).

In order to recruit an online sample, Qualtrics charges researchers a base rate of \$5.00 per respondent with a minimum \$500 total purchase. Fees are proportional to the length of the questionnaire, the specificity of the target demographic, and the number of



participants requested (Qualtrics, 2016a). Individuals who do not provide quality data (i.e., those who skip all/most items, respond incorrectly to catch items, engage in non-conscientious responding, answer survey items too quickly) are automatically dropped from the Qualtrics panel and do not receive a reward of any kind. Repeated offenses result in the individual being dropped from all future Qualtrics panels (Qualtrics, personal communication, September 26, 2016). Qualtrics offers participants several types of rewards in exchange for completing the survey and providing quality data. These rewards include monetary payment, being entered into a sweepstakes (e.g., for gift cards), or earning points that can be redeemed for prizes or products (Qualtrics, 2016b), including gift cards for iTunes, Amazon, or Delta SkyMiles®. Participants are aware of each reward offered before beginning a study, and may choose whether or not to participate based on said reward.

Incentivizing participants for their survey participation offers both inherent risks and benefits. One risk includes participants deliberately misrepresenting their qualifications in order to obtain rewards, such as monetary payment, sweepstakes entries, or points. Research on extrinsic motivation has found that individuals may potentially violate ethical guidelines in order to acquire rewards (Gerhart, Rynes, & Fulmer, 2009). Another risk is that eligible participants may choose not to partake in a study specifically because they do not like the offered reward. However, offering incentives is often considered a motivating factor for individuals to participate in survey research. For example, individual-based reward programs have particularly been shown to help increase motivation among employees (Gerhart et al., 2009). Compensating participants may also help researchers obtain a larger sample of the target demographic. Finally,

incentives communicate to individuals that their time and quality responses are valued by the researcher (SurveyMonkey, 2016). Given that numerous quality checks were performed (including supplementary checks, as described shortly), it is reasonable to assume that the final sample of participants possessed the study qualifications that they claimed to have and provided sufficient data for analyses.

For the current study, Qualtrics was paid to obtain data for 300 quality participants. Participants were required to be at least 18 years old, work at least 20 hours per week, and work in the same company for the past six months (at the time of being surveyed). All responses were anonymous. 15 participants were dropped for not meeting the study requirements, not providing sufficient data, and/or missing at least one of three catch items interspersed among survey items (e.g., “For this item, please select ‘Agree’ for key purposes”). Therefore, the final sample size was  $N=285$ . Participants consisted of 128 males and 157 females and had a mean age of 44.32 years. The sample was approximately 80.7% Caucasian, 9.8% African-American, 7.4% Hispanic, 3.5% Asian, 0.4% American Indian/Alaskan Native, and 1.8% participants who classified themselves as ‘Other’ (individuals were also allowed to indicate more than one race/ethnicity). Participants worked in a variety of industries, such as finance, healthcare, and education, had a mean job tenure of 9.5 years, and worked an average of 42 hours per week.

## **Study Measures**

**Work-to-Family Conflict.** To measure work interference with family (WIF), I used three items from Matthews, Kath, and Barnes-Farrell’s (2010) general work-family conflict scale, specifically in the direction of work-to-family conflict ( $\alpha=.74$ ). Participants from the archival dataset rated items on a scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly*

*Agree*). Sample items were, “I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities” and “I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.”

**Segmentation/Integration Value Congruence.** To measure similarity of segmentation/integration preferences, I used four items from Pan and Yeh’s (2012) employee-supervisor and employee-organization segmentation/integration value congruence scale ( $\alpha=.89$ ). The prompt read, “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/ORGANIZATION’S values about home and work life.” Participants rated the items on a scale of 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). Two sample items were, “My preferences for keeping work and home life separate (or together) are similar to my supervisor’s preferences” and “My organization’s values regarding keeping work and home life separate (or together) provide a good fit with my values.”

**Unethical Work Behavior Intentions.** To measure intentions to engage in unethical work behavior (UWB), I used Detert, Treviño, and Sweitzer’s (2008) eight-item unethical decision-making scale. This scale posed hypothetical scenarios depicting various examples of unethical behavior, and asked participants how likely it was that they would engage in the behavior described (1=*Not At All Likely*, 7=*Highly Likely*). Because my current study was only focused on employees, I dropped three items that were not

work-related. (Two of the dropped items referenced a student given the opportunity to cheat on an exam, and the third dropped item referenced general unethical behavior, but not specifically in a workplace context.) The scale reliability dropped from  $\alpha=.84$  (with all eight original items) to  $\alpha=.75$  (with the remaining five work-related items). A sample remaining item was, “You are assigned a team for a project at work. Your team waits until the last minute to begin gathering data for the project, and will not have time to collect it all. Several team members suggest using old data collected by another team. You go along with this plan.”

**Conscientiousness.** To measure individual differences in conscientiousness, I used John, Naumann, and Soto’s (2008) 44-item Big Five Inventory (BFI;  $\alpha=.85$ ). Participants rated nine conscientiousness items on a scale of 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). Sample items were, “I see myself as someone who does a thorough job” and “I see myself as someone who is a reliable worker.”

**Control variables.** Age, gender, and tenure were examined as potential controls in order to account for unexplained variance in the study variables and mitigate alternate explanations for findings. Past research suggests that younger employees are more likely to experience WIF compared to older employees (e.g., Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Some studies cite females as experiencing greater WIF (e.g., Nielson et al., 2001), although other studies have reported alternate findings (e.g., Ferguson et al., 2012). Furthermore, research has found that younger employees (e.g., Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999), males (e.g., Perrewé et al., 2003) and those with shorter tenures (e.g., Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999) are generally more likely to engage in UWB compared to older employees, females, and those with longer tenures (respectively). According to Becker

(2005), control variables should be selected if they are significantly related to outcome variables of interest and may bias the assessment of one or more constructs. However, using control variables indiscriminately may have detrimental effects on statistical power and impact regression coefficient estimates by “partialling [out] true variance from the relationships of interest,” potentially increasing Type II error (Spector, Zapf, Chen, & Frese, 2000 as cited in Becker, 2005, p. 284).

To determine appropriate control variables, I first regressed WIF onto age, gender, and tenure. Together, the predictors accounted for 3.5% of the variance in WIF perceptions. Age ( $\beta = -.18, p = .005$ ) significantly predicted WIF, but gender ( $\beta = -.03, p = .575$ ) and tenure did not ( $\beta = -.01, p = .856$ ). Next, I regressed WIF on only age. Age significantly predicted WIF ( $\beta = -.17, p = .003$ ) and accounted for 3% of the variance in WIF perceptions, thereby supporting age being used as a control variable.

Next, I regressed UWB intentions onto age, gender, and tenure. These predictors together accounted for 5.8% of the variance in UWB intentions. Although age ( $\beta = -.14, p = .023$ ) and gender ( $\beta = -.13, p = .024$ ) both significantly predicted UWB intentions, tenure did not ( $\beta = -.10, p = .098$ ). Next, I regressed UWB intentions on only age and gender. Again, age ( $\beta = -.18, p = .002$ ) and gender ( $\beta = -.13, p = .031$ ) were significantly related to UWB intentions, together accounting for 5% of the variance. Therefore, I chose age and gender as control variables for this study.

## **Results**

Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and scale reliabilities of the study variables are presented in Table 1. The scale reliabilities ranged from  $\alpha = .75$  to  $\alpha = .89$  (coefficient alphas at least .70 are generally considered sufficient; George & Mallery,

2003). According to Q-Q plots, the residuals for study variables were all normally distributed. Next, I tested the predictor variables for possible multicollinearity. When predictor variables are highly correlated with one another, it becomes difficult for researchers to determine the unique contribution of each predictor variable on the criterion variable (Morrow-Howell, 1994). To test for multicollinearity, one may either: 1) examine correlations between predictors that are near or greater than .80, or 2) run a series of linear regressions with “each independent variable as linear combinations of all others” and observe the variance inflation factors (VIFs) within each regression model (Morrow-Howell, 1994, p. 3). VIFs greater than 10 indicate multicollinearity among the predictor variables (Chatterjee & Price, 1991).

Using the described linear regression method for detecting multicollinearity, I regressed one predictor variable (e.g., conscientiousness) on the other four predictor variables simultaneously (e.g., age, gender, value congruence, WIF). To assess every combination, this process was repeated five times total (each time regressing one predictor variable on the other four predictor variables). VIFs ranged from 1.01 to 1.22, signifying low multicollinearity among all of the predictor variables.

### **Hypothesis Testing**

Hypotheses 1 and 2 claimed that segmentation/integration value congruence would be negatively related to WIF and UWB intentions, respectively. I first regressed WIF on segmentation/integration value congruence while controlling for age and gender. However, segmentation/integration value congruence was not significantly related to WIF perceptions ( $\beta = -.11, p = .054$ ). Next, I regressed UWB intentions on segmentation/integration value congruence, again using age and gender as control

variables. Segmentation/integration value congruence did not significantly predict UWB intentions ( $\beta = -.09, p = .107$ ), and therefore Hypotheses 1 and 2 were not supported.

**PROCESS Analyses.** To test Hypotheses 3-4, I used the SPSS macro PROCESS (Hayes, 2012a, 2012b), which uses path analysis to compute a variety of useful statistics, including “direct and indirect effects in mediation and mediated moderation models, conditional effects in moderation models, and conditional indirect effects in moderated mediation models with a single [mediator] or multiple mediators” (Hayes, 2012b, p. 1). To accompany the indirect effect and conditional indirect effects, PROCESS computes 95% bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals. Bootstrapping involves redrawing samples from one’s sampling distribution (with replacement) in order to better make inferences about the population (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Hayes, 2009). According to Preacher and Hayes (2004), using bootstrapped confidence intervals to determine the significance of indirect effects is preferred over a Sobel test (Sobel 1982, 1986). The Sobel test assumes that the sampling distribution of indirect effects ( $ab$ ) is normally distributed. However, “the sampling distribution of  $ab$  tends to be asymmetric, with nonzero skewness and kurtosis” (Bollen & Stine, 1990; Stone & Sobel, 1990 as cited in Hayes, 2009, p. 411). As a result, confidence intervals for  $ab$  calculated with an assumption of normality may be biased. However, bootstrapping makes no assumptions about normality in a distribution, making inferences about  $ab$  more accurate than the Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2008; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004).

I will now provide a brief description of the bootstrapping method used in PROCESS. First, PROCESS estimates path coefficients  $a$  (i.e., the path from the  $X$  to  $M$

while partialling out control variables) and  $b$  (i.e., the path from  $M$  to  $Y$  while partialling out  $X$  and control variables), and then calculates the indirect effect from their product ( $ab$ ). This process is repeated  $k$  number of times, where  $k$  is the number of resamples (of sample size  $N$ ). When the resampling is complete, one has a distribution containing  $k$  estimates of the indirect effect, from which PROCESS creates a confidence interval. After ordering the list of  $k$  indirect effect estimates from smallest to largest, the lower bound for the 95% bootstrapped confidence interval is the indirect effect located at the 2.5<sup>th</sup> percentile, and the upper bound for the bootstrapped confidence interval is the indirect effect located at the 97.5<sup>th</sup> percentile (Hayes, 2009). In other words, if the study were replicated indefinitely, 95% of the time the samples would produce confidence intervals containing the true indirect effect in the general population. The indirect effect is regarded as statistically significant if its 95% bootstrapped confidence interval does not contain zero, which is equivalent to “rejecting the null hypothesis that the true indirect effect is zero at the  $100 - [CI]\%$  level of significance” (Hayes, 2009, p. 412). For Hypotheses 3-4, I used  $k=1000$  bootstrapped resamples.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that WIF would partially mediate the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. Accordingly, I ran PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2012a, 2012b) to test the significance of 1) the direct effect of segmentation/integration value congruence on UWB intentions, and 2) the indirect effect of segmentation/integration value congruence on UWB intentions through WIF, both while controlling for age and gender (see Figure 7). Partial mediation is demonstrated by a significant direct and indirect effect, whereas full mediation is



demonstrated by a nonsignificant direct effect and significant indirect effect (Kenny, 2015).

First, results revealed that the direct effect of segmentation/integration value congruence on UWB intentions was not significant ( $b = -.11, p = .232$ ). Second, although the indirect effect was significant ( $b = -.03, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.0906, -.0016]$ ), the 95% bootstrapped confidence interval was extremely close to containing zero. According to Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007), “bootstrapping yields slightly different [confidence intervals] each time the method is applied to the same data.” However, “variation [in the confidence intervals] due to random resampling diminishes as  $k$  increases” (p. 191). In other words, confidence interval estimates become more accurate as the number of bootstrap resamples increases. Therefore, to avoid possible Type I error (since the confidence interval for the indirect effect nearly contained zero), I decided to re-test the mediation model with a greater number of resamples. Upon increasing the number of bootstrapped resamples to  $k=10,000$  and  $k=50,000$ , the indirect effect was no longer considered statistically significant ( $b = -.03, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.0878, .0000]$ ;  $b = -.03, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.0893, .0000]$ , respectively). Therefore, the findings did not offer enough evidence to support Hypothesis 3 (see Table 2).

Next, I ran PROCESS Model 59 (Hayes 2012a, 2012b) to test Hypotheses 4a-c, which specified that not only would WIF mediate the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions, but that conscientiousness would moderate the  $a$  path (i.e.,  $X \rightarrow M$ ),  $b$  path (i.e.,  $M \rightarrow Y$  with  $X$  partialled out), and  $c'$  path (i.e.,  $X \rightarrow Y$ ). To establish moderated mediation, the indirect effect must be significant, and at least the  $a$  or  $b$  path must be significantly moderated

(see Figure 8). Interactions between the predictor and moderator are statistically significant if their 95% confidence interval does not include zero. If both conditions are met, one may then examine the significance of the conditional indirect effects at low, average, and high levels of the moderator (Preacher et al., 2007).

Hypothesis 4a stated that conscientiousness would moderate the negative relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF such that the relationship would be weaker when conscientiousness was low compared to high. PROCESS automatically mean-centers all predictor and moderator variables in regression analyses. PROCESS Model 59 was used to regress WIF onto segmentation/integration value congruence, conscientiousness, and the segmentation/integration value congruence  $\times$  conscientiousness product term while controlling for age and gender. Results showed that segmentation/integration value congruence and conscientiousness did not significantly interact to predict WIF ( $b = -.11$ ,  $p = .426$ , 95% CI  $[-.3813, .1615]$ ), and Hypothesis 4a therefore was not supported (see Table 3). Furthermore, the main effect of conscientiousness on WIF showed that low-conscientious employees tended to experience greater levels of WIF compared to high-conscientious employees ( $b = -.50$ ,  $p < .001$ ; see Figure 9).

Next, Hypothesis 4b stated that conscientiousness would moderate the negative relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions, such that the relationship would be weaker when conscientiousness was high compared to low. I used PROCESS Model 59 to regress UWB intentions on segmentation/integration value congruence, conscientiousness, and the segmentation/integration value congruence  $\times$  conscientiousness product term while controlling for age and gender. The interaction

between segmentation/integration value congruence and conscientiousness was statistically significant ( $b = -.32, p = .034, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.6142, -.0247]$ ; see Table 3, Figure 10). To graph the interaction, I plotted two lines using moderator values one standard deviation above the mean (for high conscientiousness) and one standard deviation below the mean (for low conscientiousness; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Simple slopes revealed that relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions was negative when conscientiousness was high ( $b = -.24, p = .016$ ), but not significantly different from zero when conscientiousness was low ( $b = .14, p = .376$ ). Although the negative slope for high-conscientious employees was anticipated, the nonsignificant slope for low-conscientious employees was not. In other words, results showed that on average, low-conscientious individuals maintained relatively constant UWB intentions regardless of the extent they experienced segmentation/integration value congruence. Thus, the findings only offered limited evidence supporting Hypothesis 4b.

Finally, I examined Hypothesis 4c, which proposed that the relationship between WIF and UWB intentions would be moderated by conscientiousness, such that the positive relationship would be weaker when conscientiousness was high compared to low. I used PROCESS Model 59 to regress UWB intentions on WIF, conscientiousness, and the  $\text{WIF} \times \text{conscientiousness}$  product term while controlling for age and gender. The analysis showed that interaction between WIF and conscientiousness was statistically significant ( $b = -.36, p = .002, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.5869, -.1288]$ ; see Table 3, Figure 11). Once again, I graphed the interaction by plotting two lines using moderator values one standard deviation above the mean (for high conscientiousness) and one standard deviation below the mean (for low conscientiousness; Cohen et al., 2003). Simple slopes revealed that

relationship between WIF and UWB intentions was positive for individuals low on conscientiousness ( $b=.31, p=.007$ ) and not significantly different from zero for individuals high on conscientiousness ( $b= -.11, p=.311$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 4c was supported.

Although the criteria were met for moderated mediation (i.e., the indirect effect was statistically significant and conscientiousness significantly moderated the  $b$  path), the conditional indirect effects at low, average, and high levels of conscientiousness were all nonsignificant, failing to support evidence for a moderated mediation (see Table 3). As mentioned earlier, obtaining a significant indirect effect with  $k=1000$  bootstrapped resamples was likely due to chance, as the indirect effect was no longer regarded as statistically significant once the number of bootstrapped resamples was increased. Furthermore, PROCESS did not use the identical bootstrapped resamples in both Model 4 and Model 59, even though samples were each re-drawn from the sampling distribution 1000 times. In other words, PROCESS used different number seeds in the two models to re-draw samples, which may have contributed to alternate conclusions about the indirect effect. If the true indirect effect in the general population was close to zero, this limitation of PROCESS suggests that it is technically possible for the indirect effect to be regarded as statistically significant in Model 4 but nonsignificant in Model 59. Based on the indirect effect being nonsignificant (after increased bootstrapped resamples) as well as the conditional indirect effects being nonsignificant, there was not enough evidence to support the fully hypothesized moderated mediation model despite two significant interactions.

## **Discussion**

The main purpose of this study was to explore the impact of segmentation/integration value congruence on WIF and UWB intentions as well as the influence of conscientiousness on these relationships. Using the scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1960), conflict perspective (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999), organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), and norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), I proposed that WIF would partially mediate the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. Furthermore, I expected low conscientiousness to weaken the negative relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF. Finally, I anticipated that conscientiousness would serve as a buffer against UWB intentions among employees experiencing lower levels segmentation/integration value congruence and higher levels of WIF, respectively.

### **Overall Findings**

The findings generally did not support the full moderated mediation model, as there was inadequate evidence for WIF mediating the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. Although conscientiousness significantly moderated the relationship between segmentation-integration value congruence and UWB intentions, the slope for low conscientiousness was not in the anticipated direction, thus limiting support for Hypothesis 4b. However, conscientiousness did significantly moderate the WIF – UWB intentions relationship in the hypothesized direction, establishing support for Hypothesis 4c.

**Segmentation/Integration Value Congruence and WIF.** One primary goal of the current study was to increase clarity regarding the relationship between

segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF, as few published studies had examined links between the two constructs. In this study, segmentation/integration value congruence did not significantly predict WIF, thereby suggesting differing interpretations from those of prior studies. Based on the current study findings, it is possible that segmentation/integration value congruence may not conserve enough resources for employees in order to substantially mitigate WIF. In other words, if employees are already occupied with meeting work demands, being able to work during preferred times and locations may not make a significant impact on employees' abilities to spend quality time with their families and perform family-related duties. This finding is intriguing, as organizations create and implement work-family initiatives (e.g., telecommuting, flextime) with the purpose of helping employees manage work-family balance. If segmentation/integration value congruence is nonsignificantly related to WIF, organizations may not necessarily be keen to offer work-family initiatives to their employees. Organizations may also be more inclined to violate employees' preferred work/family boundaries due to reduced concern about employees experiencing WIF. However, there may be other unexplored downsides to implementing incongruous policies and practices. For example, employees experiencing low segmentation/integration value congruence could potentially display reduced job performance, perceived organizational support, and/or affective commitment. Therefore, despite the nonsignificant relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF, organizations should exhibit caution towards dismissing the impact of segmentation/integration value congruence on their employees.

It is also important to discuss several differences between this study and previous studies that examined segmentation/integration value congruence. These differences may account for some of the variation in the findings regarding segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF. Additionally, I will discuss other potential influences on this relationship that were not addressed in this study.

***Scope of sample.*** Participants for this current study consisted of adult employees who worked at least 20 hours a week and had been employed in the same company for the past six months. However, unlike the samples from Chen et al. (2009) and Kreiner (2006), participants were not specifically restricted to only those with a family (i.e., two or more people residing together who are “related by biological ties, marriage, social custom, or adoption” (Piotrkowski et al., 1987, p. 252). Failing to restrict the sample in this regard may have weakened the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence, as WIF items may have been confusing to participants who did not share a household with a spouse/significant other, child, or aging parent. Furthermore, this study did not inquire participants about either marital status or the number of children currently living in their household. Both Chen et al. (2009) and Kreiner (2006) controlled for these variables, as being married and having a large family size is associated with increased WFC (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). A third difference regarding the sample comes from surveying participants nationally across the U.S., whereas Pan and Yeh (2012) surveyed full-time Taiwan employees to form their study conclusions. For this process, Pan and Yeh (2012) translated survey items from English into Chinese and back into English, and used experts to agree on the translations. Nevertheless, participants may not necessarily

have interpreted the Chinese items the same as the English items due to translation error or dissimilar phrases and expressions.

There may also be general culture differences between subjects from this current study and Pan and Yeh's (2012) study. These differences may have influenced the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF to some degree. According to Triandis and Suh (2000), eastern Asian cultures tend to be higher on collectivism and place more emphasis on the needs of others, whereas Western cultures tend to be higher on individualism and place greater focus on personal interests. Individuals from eastern Asia also tend to "have a higher tolerance for contradictions" and "are less surprised than Americans when they are presented with inconsistencies" (Choi & Nisbett, 2000, as cited in Triandis & Suh, 2000, p. 142). Therefore, it is possible that when Taiwan employees experience lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence, they are more likely than their American counterparts to put their personal preferences aside and accommodate their organization's or supervisor's needs, thus increasing their chances of experiencing WIF. American employees, however, may prioritize their own personal preferences more and therefore may be less likely to accommodate their organization's/supervisor's segmentation or integration preferences. Thus, American employees may be less likely to experience WIF compared to Taiwan employees when perceiving lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence. These cultural differences may potentially explain why segmentation/integration value congruence significantly predicted WIF in Pan and Yeh's (2012) study but not in this current study.



***Specificity of variables.*** Another difference between this study and past studies regards the work-family variable used. Both Pan and Yeh (2012) and Kreiner (2006) chose work-to-home conflict as their outcome variable of interest, which is a slightly broader construct than WIF and may include other aspects of personal life besides family (e.g., friendships, hobbies). The authors' respective segmentation/integration value congruence scales matched this level of specificity, referring to "home life" in the items rather than "family life." Similarly, my segmentation/integration value congruence scale was also phrased in terms of "home life" rather than "family life." However, because my outcome variable was WIF, there was a mismatch in the level of specificity regarding the items. This mismatch may have unintentionally weakened the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF.

***Scale measurement.*** The measurement itself of segmentation/integration value congruence may also have played a role in the current study's lack of significant findings. The study used a direct measure of segmentation/integration value congruence perceptions, which may have inadvertently required participants to keep track of too much information simultaneously. In the prompt, participants were asked to think about their values and preferences for keeping work/home life separate or together *in comparison* to the supervisor's/organization's values and preferences. Due to possible survey fatigue or information overload, it may have been more appropriate to follow the tactics of Rothbard et al. (2005) and Kreiner (2006) and present participants with two separate segmentation/integration scales: one regarding their own preferences for segmentation/integration and another regarding the organization's/supervisor's preferences. One can then examine how employee and organizational

segmentation/integration preferences might interact to predict WIF perceptions. This method is also advantageous in that it provides more specific information regarding segmentation/integration value congruence in relation to WIF (i.e., where employee and organizational preferences fall on the segmentation/integration continuum).

***Analysis of segmentation/integration value congruence.*** One notable difference between this study and Pan and Yeh's (2012) study regards the analysis of segmentation/integration value congruence. Pan and Yeh (2012) chose to evaluate segmentation/integration value congruence with one's supervisor and organization separately, whereas in this current study, I aggregated segmentation/integration value congruence between the employee, supervisor, and organization together to form a general segmentation/integration value congruence variable. The argument for separately examining employee-supervisor and employee-organization segmentation/integration value congruence is that supervisors may not always endorse formal organizational policies (Thompson et al., 1999). For instance, an organization may offer telecommuting, but the supervisor may strongly discourage employees from working offsite. However, supervisors are also considered representative agents for the organization. Supervisors' actions may influence how employees perceive the organization's intentions as well as their overall opinion of the company (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Employees' segmentation/integration value congruence perceptions may or may not necessarily differ substantially between the supervisor and the organization depending on whether employees feel their supervisor is willfully violating the organization's intentions to help (or thwart) work-family balance.

In the current study, one methodological problem with analyzing segmentation/integration value congruence with supervisors and organizations separately regarded the number of available items. Pan and Yeh (2012) had six total items referring to segmentation/integration value congruence with one's supervisor and organization (three items each, respectively), whereas the current study used an abbreviated version of the scale and only had four total segmentation/integration value congruence items (two items each for one's supervisor and organization). First, scale reliability may decline when a measure has too few items (Cortina, 1993). Two-item scales in particular may greatly distort Cronbach alpha (Eisinga, Grotenhuis, & Pelzer, 2013). Secondly, even if a participant responds similarly to two items, the items may not necessarily represent the construct well (Eisinga et al., 2013). For instance, people's assessment of items may vary depending on item phrasing, and aggregating only two items may potentially lead to faulty conclusions. Therefore, I chose to aggregate all four segmentation/integration value congruence items together rather than average the two supervisor and two organizational items separately and use them each as predictors. It should also be noted that an exploratory factor analysis showed that the four segmentation/integration value congruence items all loaded on the same factor, supporting the treatment of segmentation/integration value congruence as a unidimensional scale. This does not necessarily mean that in the general population, employees share similar segmentation/integration value congruence perceptions with both their supervisor and organization. However, when basing study conclusions off of only four value congruence items, it was more appropriate to treat the scale as unidimensional and have the aggregated items represent general segmentation/integration value congruence.

*Unmeasured variables.* Ultimately, there were several differences between how this current study and past studies were conducted, which may have contributed to some inconsistencies regarding the link between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF. Furthermore, there may have been other potential influences on the segmentation/integration – WIF relationship that were unaccounted for in this current study. Two of these unmeasured variables include workplace stressors and family preferences for segmentation/integration.

Workplace stressors may deplete numerous available resources for employees, and are commonly cited as an antecedent of WIF (e.g., Chen et al., 2009; Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Hammer et al., 2003). When facing job stressors, employees may experience high WIF regardless of segmentation/integration value congruence. In other words, workplace stressors may excessively drain resources to the point that even working during preferred times and locations may not help employees significantly reduce interrole conflict. For example, if an integrator is attempting to meet a short deadline, this stressor may require extensive time, energy, and focus, hindering the person's ability to meet family obligations. Being able to work from home or engage in frequent cross-role interruptions may not conserve enough resources for the integrator to significantly reduce WIF. Unfortunately, participants were not surveyed on how often they experienced workplace stressors, and therefore I was unable to empirically test whether stressors moderated the segmentation/integration value congruence – WIF relationship. It would be beneficial for future work-family research to establish if and to what extent workplace stressors may influence the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF.

This study also did not account for family preferences for segmentation/integration. It is possible that employees' preferences for segmentation/integration generally align with their family's preferences, but in some cases, they may not. For instance, an employee and his/her supervisor might both prefer integration; however, the employee's family may prefer the employee to maintain distinct boundaries between work and family roles (i.e., segmentation). If the family is strongly opposed to a particular role boundary strategy, it is possible that employees sharing high segmentation/integration value congruence with their organization/supervisor may still experience WIF. Therefore, the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF may vary based on the extent segmentation/integration preferences align between the employee and his/her family (i.e., person-family member congruence; Kreiner et al., 2009). Although Kreiner et al. (2009) identified the construct in a qualitative study, to my knowledge, person-family member congruence has not yet been examined in a quantitative study. This additional form of value congruence may be a relevant moderator of the segmentation/integration value congruence – WIF relationship.

**WIF as a Partial Mediator.** A secondary goal of this study was to examine WIF as a partial mediator between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. There was overall insufficient support for this hypothesized relationship.

**Direct effect.** The direct relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions was found to be nonsignificant. Without taking moderators into account (e.g., conscientiousness), the nonsignificant relationship suggests that incongruous policies and practices may be inconvenient, but not necessarily motivating or severe enough to warrant negative reciprocation. For instance, if employees

are occupied with completing work demands, then being able to work during preferred times and locations may not make a substantial difference in the amount and quality of time that can be spent with their families. Negative reciprocation for low segmentation/integration value congruence may be more likely to occur if the organization's treatment has a greater detrimental impact on the employee. Furthermore, when deciding whether to reciprocate negatively, employees must assess whether UWB is worth the risk. Engaging in minor UWB (e.g., withdrawal) in response to low segmentation/integration value congruence may not be worthwhile if there is a high chance of getting caught and/or receiving harsh consequences.

***Indirect effect.*** WIF was initially found to fully mediate the segmentation/integration value congruence – UWB intentions relationship; however, this finding likely occurred due to chance. Subsequent mediation analyses using increased bootstrapped resamples did not provide enough evidence that the indirect effect of segmentation/integration value congruence on UWB intentions through WIF was different from zero. Segmentation/integration value congruence was not a sufficient predictor of either WIF or UWB intentions, thereby impacting both direct and indirect relationships in the mediation model. As previously discussed, some of the study's limitations specifically regarding the segmentation/integration value congruence scale may have contributed to these nonsignificant findings. However, WIF was moderately related to UWB intentions ( $r=.23$ ; see Table 1), indicating that employees may hold the organization/supervisor partly responsible for circumstances contributing to WIF. Because workplace stressors may greatly contribute to WIF, it is possible that employees experiencing WIF may have been reciprocating negatively towards their organization or

supervisor specifically in response to stressors (e.g., workload, deadlines) and not necessarily low segmentation/integration value congruence. For instance, employees asked to complete extra work over the weekend may be likely to leave work early regardless of whether they are encouraged to bring extra work home or stay late onsite. In other words, workplace stressors may be more salient than segmentation/integration value congruence when determining intentions to commit UWB. Therefore, it would be useful for future research to include both workplace stressors and segmentation/integration value congruence as predictors in the model and examine how they might potentially interact to predict UWB.

**Conscientiousness as a Moderator.** A final goal of this study was to examine how conscientiousness may influence relationships between segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and UWB intentions. Although conscientiousness did not significantly moderate the segmentation/integration value congruence – WIF relationship, conscientiousness did significantly interact with both segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF (respectively) to predict UWB intentions.

***Segmentation/integration value congruence – WIF relationship.*** I originally anticipated that low-conscientious employees would be less concerned regarding incongruous policies and practices and unlikely to sacrifice substantial personal time for their organization/supervisor. Therefore, I expected that low-conscientious employees experiencing lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence would be less likely to experience WIF compared to high-conscientious employees. Findings revealed that conscientiousness did not significantly interact with value congruence to predict WIF; however, there was a significant, negative main effect of conscientiousness on WIF

(see Figure 9). Previous researchers have noted negative relationships between conscientiousness and WIF ranging from weak to moderate in strength (e.g., Baltes, Zhdanova, & Clark, 2011; Michel & Clark, 2013; Witt & Carlson, 2006).

Low-conscientious employees tend to be less organized and responsible; therefore, they may be less likely to adequately balance demands from work and family domains regardless of whether they share similar segmentation/integration preferences with their organization/supervisor. For instance, a low-conscientious employee may be more likely to wait until the last minute in order to meet a deadline; even if he/she is able or encouraged to work during preferred times and locations, work procrastination may only make the employee less able to fulfill family responsibilities, thereby increasing WIF.

***Segmentation/integration value congruence – UWB intentions relationship.***

Conscientiousness significantly moderated the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. As anticipated, when experiencing lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence, high-conscientious employees showed fewer UWB intentions compared to low-conscientious employees, providing support for the sunk cost effect (see Figure 10). Although incongruous policies and practices may negatively interfere with the employees' preferred role boundaries, high-conscientious employees may be reluctant to abandon their previous invested resources towards their personal and professional work goals by engaging in UWB.

Contrary to prediction, UWB intentions remained relatively constant for low-conscientious employees regardless of value congruence perceptions. Past meta-analyses have shown that low-conscientious employees tend to be more likely to



engage in UWB (e.g., Dalal, 2005; Salgado, 2002). Varying levels of segmentation/integration value congruence may not necessarily motivate low-conscientious employees enough to influence their intentions to commit UWB. It is possible that low-conscientious employees simply have little concern with their organization's/supervisor's role boundary preferences in general; therefore, segmentation/integration value congruence may have no significant standing on whether low-conscientious employees choose to engage in UWB. In other words, low-conscientious employees may be just as likely to behave unethically (e.g., leaving early, withholding effort, forgoing work entirely) regardless of where and when they are sanctioned to perform work.

***WIF – UWB intentions relationship.*** This study found support for conscientiousness as a moderator of the WIF – UWB intentions relationship (see Figure 11). The finding suggests that low-conscientious employees may hold their organization/supervisor responsible for WIF to an extent and therefore show increased intentions for retaliation. Because there was not enough evidence that WIF mediated the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions, it is possible that employees showed increased intentions to reciprocate negatively against their organization/supervisor in response to general workplace stressors rather than low segmentation/integration value congruence. As previously discussed, workplace stressors may deplete substantial resources and largely contribute to both time-based and strain-based WIF (e.g., Chen et al., 2009; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Engaging in UWB, such as withdrawal or production deviance, may help employees reclaim such lost time from the organization/supervisor. For example, low-conscientious employees

experiencing elevated WIF may be more likely to arrive late to work, leave work early, take frequent breaks to call or text friends/family members during work hours, or work slowly throughout the day. However, high-conscientious employees may feel greater restraint due to their past sacrifices towards work in addition to inherent risks involved with engaging in UWB (e.g., receiving poor performance evaluations, being demoted or denied a promotion, being fired).

**Full Model.** Overall, findings demonstrated partial support for the hypothesized moderated mediation model. Segmentation/integration value congruence failed to significantly predict WIF. Several possible reasons include the sample of participants chosen, the segmentation/integration value congruence scale utilized, and not accounting for how often participants experienced workplace stressors. Consistent with social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, employees who experienced higher levels of WIF tended to be more likely to engage in UWB (see Table 1). This study also found support for the sunk cost effect, as low-conscientious employees experiencing higher levels of WIF were more likely to engage in UWB compared to high-conscientious employees.

The hypothesized model received limited support regarding the role of conscientiousness as a moderator of the segmentation/integration value congruence – UWB intentions relationship. Although high-conscientious employees may be less likely to negatively reciprocate against incongruous policies and practices, low-conscientious employees may generally tend to engage in higher levels of UWB, regardless of segmentation/integration value congruence. For instance, low-conscientious employees

may be more likely to forgo late-night work requests entirely, regardless of whether the organization permits employees to complete additional work from home or onsite.

### **Theoretical Implications**

My study offers three unique theoretical contributions to the existing work-family literature. First, few prior studies had examined the relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF, increasing the need for replication. The findings from this current study suggest that segmentation/integration value congruence may not necessarily conserve enough resources for employees to have a substantial impact on WIF. It is possible that workplace stressors may be more salient than segmentation/integration value congruence when it comes to influencing WIF levels. In other words, segmentation/integration value congruence may not necessarily make an extensive difference in the amount and quality of time that can be spent with family if the employee is already preoccupied with performing work tasks. Future research should empirically test the interaction between stressors and value congruence for predicting WIF. Nevertheless, this study did identify some potential limitations of segmentation/integration value congruence for helping employees manage work-family balance, which contributes to our understanding about the scarcity hypothesis and conflict perspective. Accordingly, researchers may consider amending current work-family models to include both stressors and segmentation/integration value congruence as predictors in order to examine individual contributions as well as any incremental effects value congruence might have over and above workplace stressors for predicting WIF.

Second, this study was first to evaluate WIF as a mediator (specifically, partial mediator) between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. The

findings increase our understanding of organizational support theory, social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity. The nonsignificant direct relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions suggests that although low value congruence may be a nuisance to employees, it may not necessarily be detrimental enough to justify negative reciprocation through UWB. Future research should investigate factors that may lead employees to reciprocate or refrain from minor negative organizational treatment. For instance, employees in highly competitive industries may often expect to be working during inconvenient times and locations. Setting realistic role boundary expectations may be key to understanding whether, and to what extent, employees choose to engage in UWB against their organization/supervisor. Furthermore, there was insufficient evidence for segmentation/integration value congruence indirectly impacting UWB intentions through WIF. Employees experiencing high WIF may be more likely to retaliate via UWB for general factors contributing to WIF (e.g., stressors) rather than low segmentation/integration value congruence.

Third, the study was first to examine how conscientiousness may moderate relationships between segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and UWB intentions. Findings offered support for the sunk cost effect, as evidence showed that conscientiousness may help buffer against UWB intentions in the workplace when employees experience low segmentation/integration value congruence or high WIF, respectively. High-conscientious employees may feel greater commitment to their personal and professional work goals due to previously invested resources. Although incongruous policies and practices as well as WIF may negatively impact employees, high-conscientious employees may be reluctant to retaliate through UWB, as doing so

would negate past time and energy devoted to the company as well as previous sacrifices made towards the organization.

### **Practical Implications**

This study bears several practical implications for organizations. Organizations generally implement work-family initiatives in order to provide employees with a variety of flexible options and enable them to work according their segmentation/integration preferences. As previously mentioned, the nonsignificant relationship between segmentation/integration value congruence and WIF suggests that employees may not necessarily benefit as expected from such initiatives. It is possible that employees may feel uncomfortable with taking advantage of work-family initiatives if they lack sufficient supervisor support (Thompson et al., 1999). Or, employees may feel that their promotional chances are better if they are physically present at the workplace during all standard work hours. Finally, if there are no efficient means to accomplish work outside of the office (e.g., limited online access to resources, files loading slowly), employees may be less likely to work outside of the office in general.

Furthermore, the nonsignificant segmentation/integration value congruence – WIF relationship suggests that there may be less of a drawback for organizations/supervisors who impose work demands that violate employees' preferred work/family boundaries. This begs the question, why should organizations and supervisors be concerned with segmentation/integration value congruence if congruent policies and practices do not significantly impact WIF? It is possible that other relevant attitudes and behaviors may be influenced by low segmentation/integration value congruence (e.g., perceived organizational support, affective commitment, job performance) even if WIF is not

significantly impacted. For example, employees' quality of work may be superior when employees are able to perform work during preferred times/locations and maintain their desired amount of cross-role interruptions. Additional research should further examine how congruent/incongruent policies and practices may influence employees' perceptions of the company as well as subsequent behaviors.

Although segmentation/integration value congruence did not significantly predict WIF or UWB intentions, findings did show that conscientiousness may help alleviate UWB intentions among employees experiencing lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence. Therefore, companies may consider mitigating or altering existing policies and practices that interfere or place severe restrictions on how employees construct their role boundaries. For instance, organizations might expand network access so that company resources are accessible to employees either from work or home. Or, organizations may consider offering both telecommuting and flextime in order to cater to a variety of segmentation/integration preferences. Ideally, employees should be able to enact their own preferred work/family boundaries without substantial interference from the organization, as long as productivity is not sufficiently hampered. Companies may also consider screening for conscientiousness among both applicants and current employees to help detect if certain individuals are more likely to engage in UWB. UWB may harm company performance and ultimately cost organizations an extensive amount of money over time.

Findings also suggested that employees may negatively reciprocate against the organization for conditions contributing to WIF. Providing other work-family resources, such as increased supervisor support or the designation of a mentor, may help alleviate

WIF (Anderson et al., 2002; Eby et al., 2005; Nielson et al., 2001). If work demands or other stressors routinely spill over into an employee's family life, supervisors may offer both emotional and instrumental support in order to enhance perceptions of organizational support and decrease employees' likelihood of engaging in UWB. This support should also help employees feel more comfortable with taking advantage of formally-offered work-family initiatives (Anderson et al., 2002; Kelly et al., 2008; Thompson, et al., 1999).

### **Limitations**

This study possessed several limitations, some of which were previously addressed (see pgs. 61-67 for further explanations of these limitations). I will now provide a brief overview. One limitation was scope of the chosen sample, which was not restricted to only those residing with one or more family members. In this study, it was expected that participants without a family either skipped WIF items, answered neutrally, or answered WIF items with respect to their close friends. While this limitation is not anticipated to have substantially impacted the study findings, adding a survey item about residing with a family member would have improved the generalizability of the findings. Furthermore, participants were not asked about their marital status and how many children they had. Previous research has shown that being married and having a large family size may greatly contribute to WIF (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), but this study was unable to control for these variables.

Another limitation was the wording of the segmentation/integration value congruence scale, which referred to "home life" rather than "family life" (a specific facet of home life). The scale also required participants to consider both personal and

supervisory/organizational segmentation/integration preferences, which may have potentially contributed to survey fatigue or information overload. An optimal tactic would have been to administer separate employee and supervisor/organization preference scales and examine the interaction between preferences to determine value congruence.

Additional study limitations included using a correlational and cross-sectional design as well as self-reported data. Correlational and cross-sectional designs preclude drawing conclusions about causality and directionality, hindering interpretations of relationships between variables. The study also relied solely on self-reported data, which may be subject to common method variance. Common method variance may occur when study variables are all measured with the same method (e.g., all self-report, all supervisor-report), potentially resulting in inflated correlations between variables. However, other researchers argue that common method variance has historically shown little influence on a study's overall validity (e.g., Spector, 2006). For instance, among surveys where responses are measured with a common method, correlations are not always statistically significant, even with a large sample size. Therefore, while there may be some effects of common method variance in this study, it is not likely that they played a substantial role in the findings.

### **Future Research**

There are a variety of future research avenues that may build upon this study's findings. For instance, the current model may be extended to include both workplace stressors and segmentation/integration value congruence as predictors of WIF and UWB intentions (or simply UWB itself). Although one might argue to control for workplace stressors in order to better understand how segmentation/ integration value congruence



might impact WIF and UWB, this particular method is not recommended in this case. According to Becker (2005) and Spector et al. (2000), control variables should be chosen if they bias the assessment of constructs and should not be utilized if they are likely to have substantive or causal links with the constructs of interest. If workplace stressors are held constant, this may partial out true variance in WIF and UWB. In turn, relationships between segmentation/integration value congruence, WIF, and UWB may be distorted, potentially leading to faulty conclusions (Spector et al., 2000). Future research may instead examine interactions between segmentation/integration value congruence and workplace stressors in order to help identify how value congruence may influence WIF and UWB over and above job stressors.

Future research may also further examine differences between segmentation/integration value congruence with one's organization and supervisor. As mentioned earlier, the organization may have formal segmentative/integrative policies, but a supervisor might discourage employees from utilizing those policies (Thompson et al., 1999). Policies/practices enacted or suppressed by the supervisor may impact employees more directly than formal organizational policies. Supervisors generally have closer involvement with employees as well as more immediate influence over promotions, raises, demotions, and firings. Therefore, it is possible that employees may be more likely to experience WIF and engage in UWB if they possess low segmentation/integration value congruence with their supervisor rather than their overall organization.

## **Conclusion**

WIF is a pervasive problem for employees in today's workforce. Past literature has suggested that when organizations/supervisors violate employees' preferred boundaries between work and family, employees may be more likely to experience WIF and respond negatively through heightened UWB intentions. In contrast, the current study's findings failed to support WIF as a mediator between segmentation/integration value congruence and UWB intentions. It is possible that segmentation/integration value congruence may not help employees maintain enough resources to adequately minimize WIF. Furthermore, employees experiencing WIF may potentially reciprocate negatively towards their organization/supervisor for general circumstances contributing to WIF (such as stressors) and not necessarily low segmentation/integration value congruence. Finally, evidence supported conscientiousness as a buffer against UWB intentions when employees experienced lower levels of segmentation/integration value congruence or higher levels of WIF (respectively). Low-conscientious employees may attribute their organization/supervisor as directly responsible for WIF to an extent, and therefore show increased intentions to retaliate through UWB. Because UWB has both short-term and long-term implications for organizations, supervisors may consider assessing conscientiousness among applicants as well as examining workplace stressors (e.g., excessive workload, short deadlines, organizational constraints) that have the potential to exacerbate WIF regardless of existing work-family policies or similar work-family segmentation/integration preferences.

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**Table 1.***Descriptive Statistics, Intercorrelations, and Scale Reliability Estimates*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Age	44.32	10.85	--					
2. Gender	0.55	0.50	.05	--				
3. Seg/Int Value Congruence	3.49	0.85	-.06	.06	(.89)			
4. WIF	2.45	0.94	-.17**	-.04	-.10	(.74)		
5. Conscientiousness	4.17	0.58	.29***	.09	.08	-.35***	(.85)	
6. UWB Intentions	3.04	1.26	-.18**	-.13*	-.09	.23***	-.45***	(.75)

*Note.*  $N=285$ . Cronbach alpha scale reliabilities are on the diagonal in parentheses. WIF=Work interference with family (i.e., work-to-family conflict); UWB intentions=Unethical work behavior intentions. Gender was coded as 0=male, 1=female.

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

**Table 2.***Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects:**Segmentation/Integration Value Congruence on UWB Intentions through WIF*

<b>Relationship/Path</b>	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
Total Effect (Sum of the direct and indirect effects; <i>c</i> path)	-.14	(.09)	[-.3140, .0352]
Direct Effect (Seg/Int Value Congruence on UWB Intentions; <i>c'</i> path)	-.11	(.09)	[-.2849, .0694]
<b>Relationship/Path</b>	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b>Boot SE</b>	<b>95% Boot CI</b>
Indirect Effect (Seg/Int Value Congruence on UWB Intentions through WIF; <i>ab</i> path)	-.03*	(.02)	[-.0906, -.0016]

*Note.* *N*=285. WIF=Work interference with family (i.e., work-to-family conflict); UWB intentions=Unethical work behavior intentions. Unstandardized regression estimates (*b*) were computed using PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2012a, 2012b). Covariates=Age and gender. SE=Standard error; Boot SE= Bootstrapped standard error. 95% CI=95% confidence interval. 95% Boot CI=95% bootstrapped confidence interval. *k*=1000 bootstrapped resamples. The indirect effect (the *ab* path; -.0316, or -.03 after rounding) was calculated by multiplying the beta weight of segmentation/integration value congruence on WIF (the *a* path; -.1249) by the beta weight of WIF on UWB intentions with segmentation/integration value congruence partialled out (the *b* path; .2534).

\**p*<.05

**Table 3.***Moderated Mediation Results*

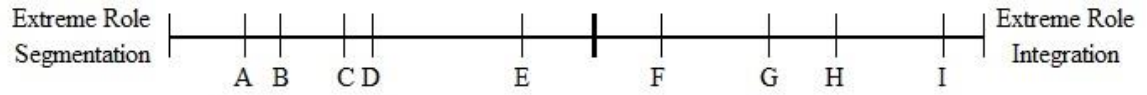
<b>Variable</b>	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
<i>WIF (Y)</i>			
Constant	.33	(.24)	[-.1320, .7991]
Age	-.01	(.00)	[-.0168, .0021]
Gender	-.01	(.10)	[-.2103, .2001]
X: Seg/Int Value Congruence	-.08	(.08)	[-.2237, .0723]
W: Conscientiousness	-.50***	(.10)	[-.7015, -.3056]
Seg/Int Value Congruence × Conscientiousness	-.11	(.14)	[-.3813, .1615]
Model <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.14***		
<i>F</i>	7.90***		
<i>UWB Intentions (Y)</i>			
Constant	3.27***	(.32)	[2.6367, 3.8978]
Age	-.00	(.01)	[-.0172, .0086]
Gender	-.16	(.14)	[-.4321, .1097]
M: WIF	.10	(.09)	[-.0660, .2722]
X: Seg/Int Value Congruence	-.05	(.09)	[-.2370, .1363]
W: Conscientiousness	-.79***	(.12)	[-1.029, -.5494]
WIF × Conscientiousness	-.36**	(.12)	[-.5869, -.1288]
Seg/Int Value Congruence × Conscientiousness	-.32*	(.15)	[-.6142, -.0247]
Model <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.26***		
<i>F</i>	15.25***		
<i>Conditional Direct Effects of Seg/Int Value Congruence on UWB Intentions at Values of Conscientiousness</i>			
	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
Low Conscientiousness	.14	(.15)	[-.1665, .4394]
Average Conscientiousness	-.05	(.09)	[-.2370, .1363]
High Conscientiousness	-.24*	(.10)	[-.4304, -.0440]
<i>Conditional Indirect Effects of Seg/Int Value Congruence on UWB Intentions at Values of Conscientiousness</i>			
	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b>Boot SE</b>	<b>95% Boot CI</b>
Low Conscientiousness	-.00	(.04)	[-.0741, .0765]
Average Conscientiousness	-.01	(.01)	[-.0438, .0048]
High Conscientiousness	.01	(.02)	[-.0103, .0828]

*Note.* *N*=284. WIF=Work interference with family (i.e., work-to-family conflict); UWB intentions=Unethical work behavior intentions. Unstandardized regression estimates (*b*) were computed using PROCESS Model 59 (Hayes, 2012a, 2012b). Covariates=Age and gender. SE=Standard error; Boot SE=Bootstrapped standard error. 95% CI=95% confidence interval. 95% Boot CI=95% bootstrapped confidence interval. *k*=1000 bootstrapped resamples. For conditional direct and indirect effects, values of conscientiousness are located -1 SD, 0 SD, and +1 SD from the mean.

\**p*<.05, \*\**p*<.01, \*\*\**p*<.001



## Figures



A – No telecommuting; never bringing work home; allocating additional work for following work day

B – No personal calls, texts while at work

C – Visiting the workplace on days off, such as weekends or holidays

D – Staying late onsite; working overtime; having work hours increased

E – Standard work schedule (9:00 a.m. – 5:00 p.m.)

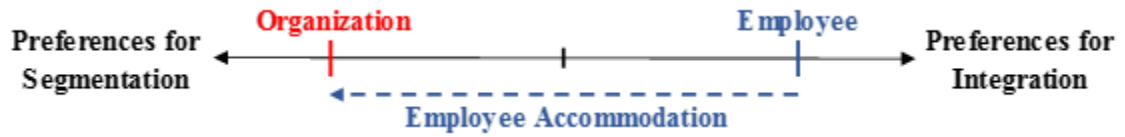
F – Telecommuting part-time

G – Bringing work home; responding to work calls, texts, or emails during non-work days/hours

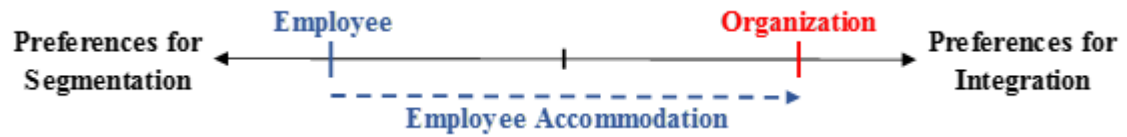
H – Working from home full-time (e.g., at-home business, telecommuting everyday)

I – Working from home full-time while frequently interchanging work with family chores and activities

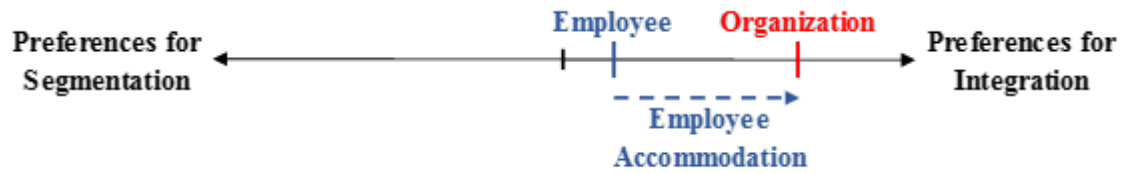
*Figure 1.* A continuum depicting the extent to which employees' roles are segmented or integrated (adapted from Rothbard et al., 2005).



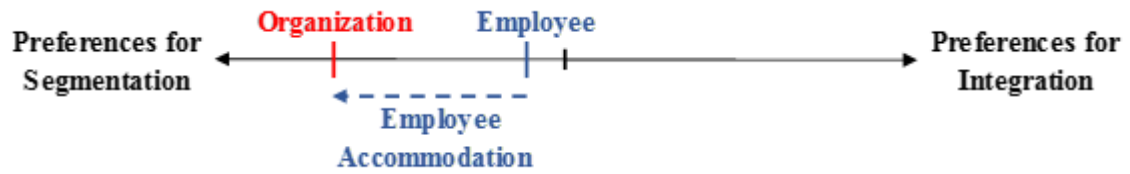
*Figure 2.* A depiction of low segmentation/integration value congruence, wherein an employee greatly accommodates his/her integration preferences to meet the organization's segmentation preferences.



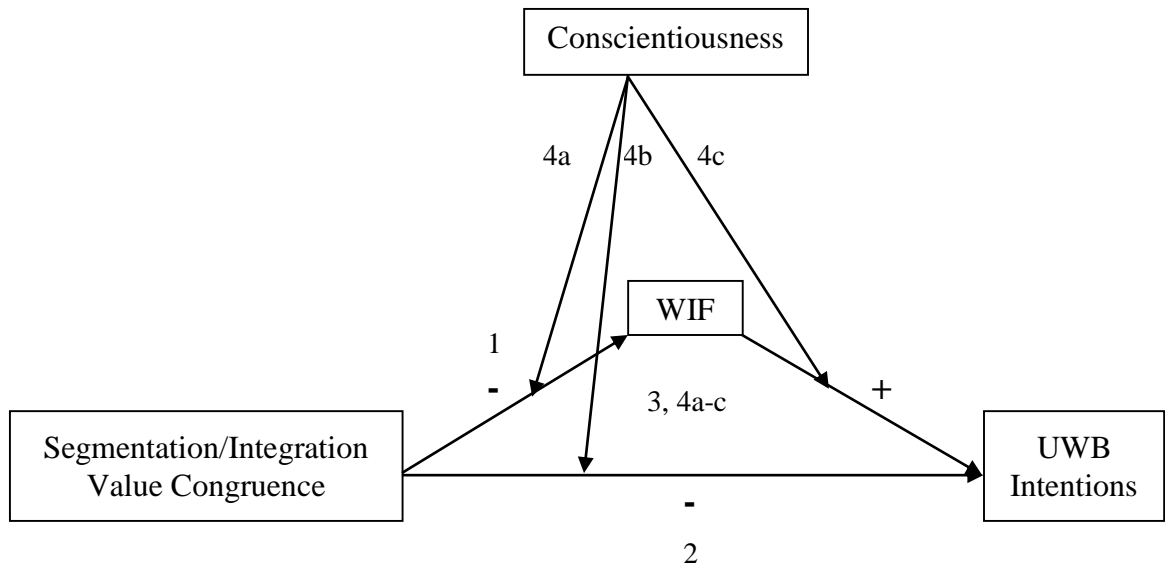
*Figure 3.* A depiction of low segmentation/integration value congruence, wherein an employee greatly accommodates his/her segmentation preferences to meet the organization's integration preferences.



*Figure 4.* A depiction of moderate segmentation/integration value congruence, wherein an employee moderately accommodates his/her slight integration preferences to meet the organization's extreme integration preferences.



*Figure 5.* A depiction of moderate segmentation/integration value congruence, wherein an employee moderately accommodates his/her slight segmentation preferences to meet the organization's extreme segmentation preferences.



*Figure 6.* Fully hypothesized model; numbers indicate corresponding hypotheses.

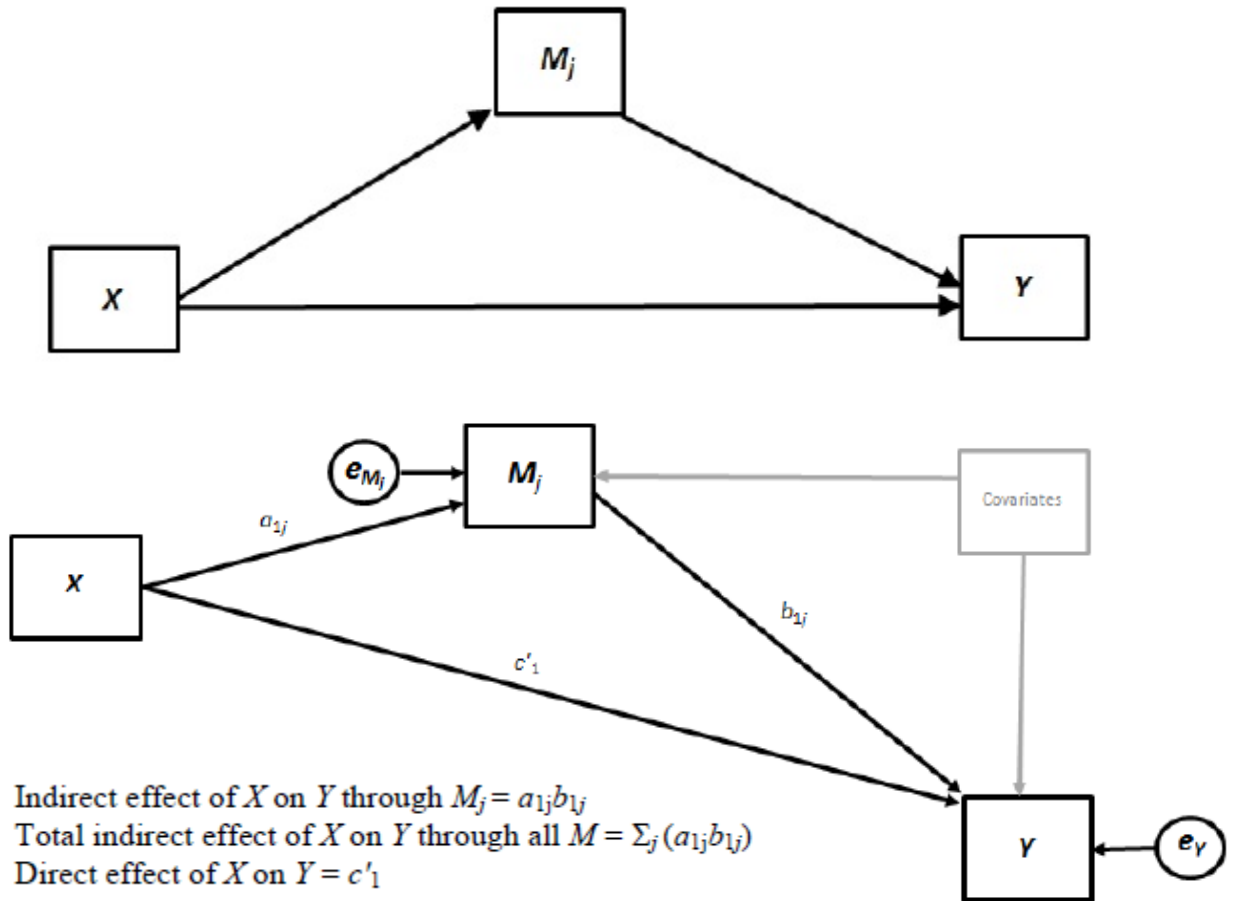
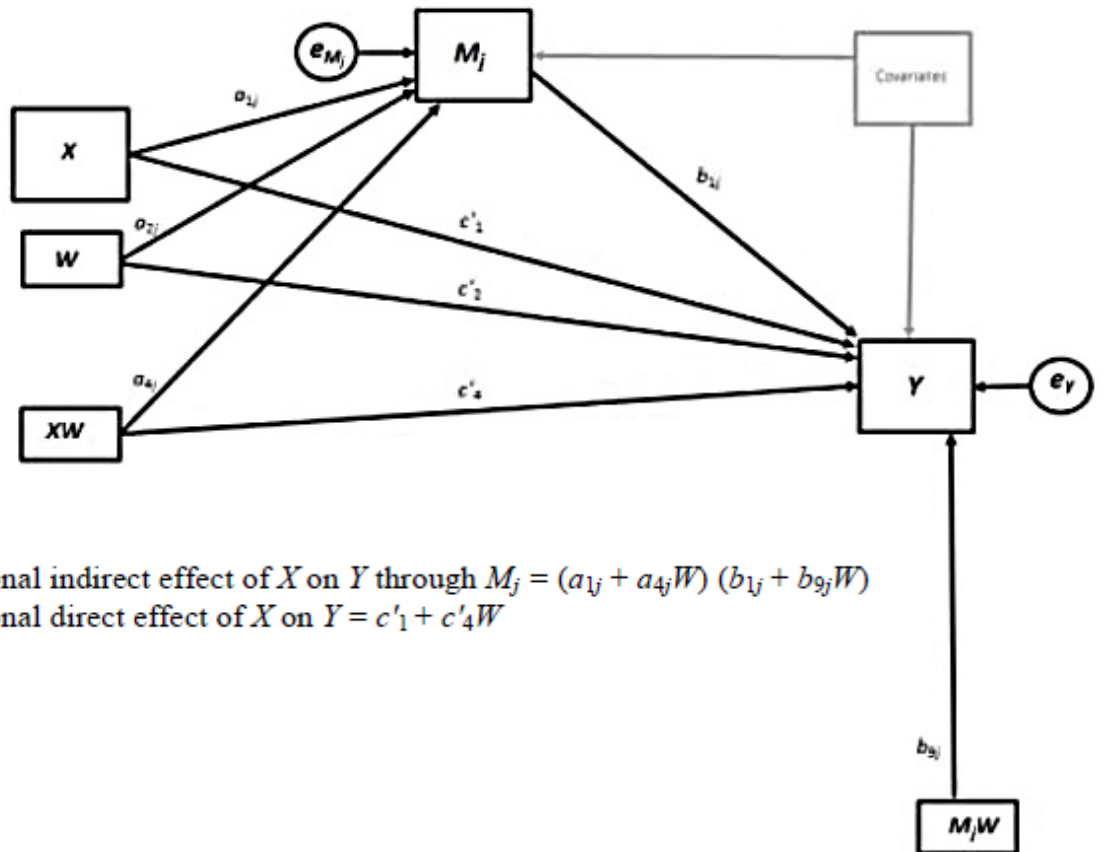
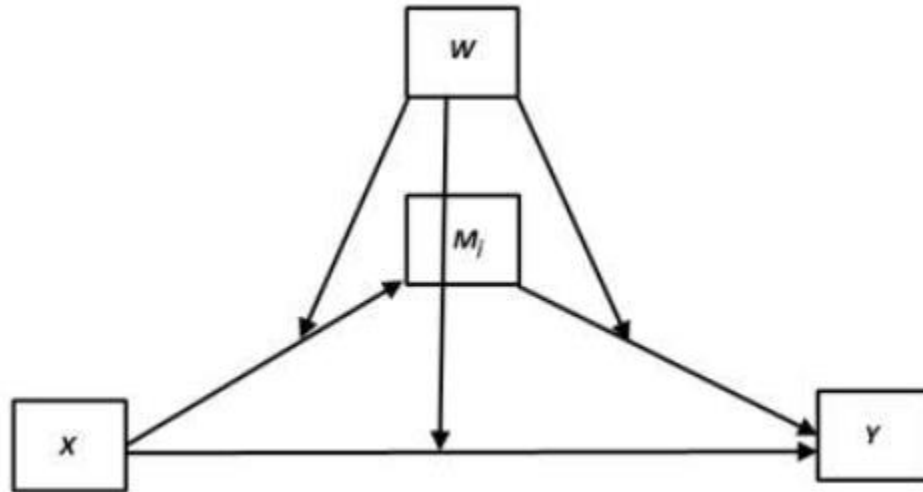


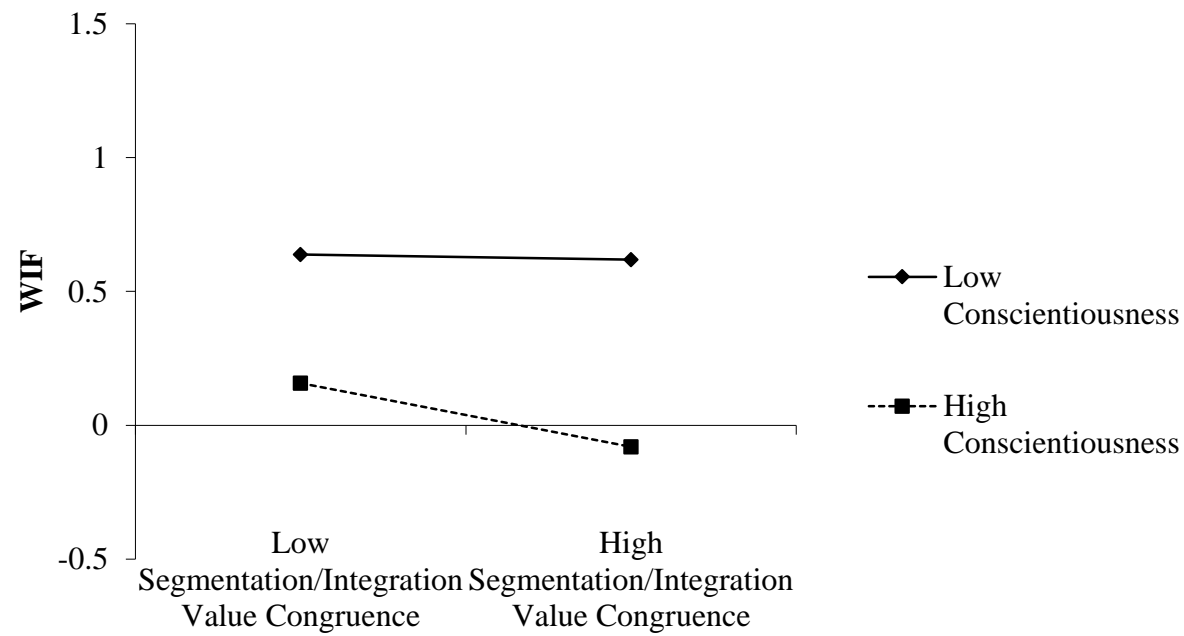
Figure 7. PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2012a, 2012b) used to test Hypothesis 3 (conceptual representation and statistical model above).  $X$ =Segmentation/integration value congruence,  $M$ =WIF, and  $Y$ =UWB intentions. Covariates=Age, gender.



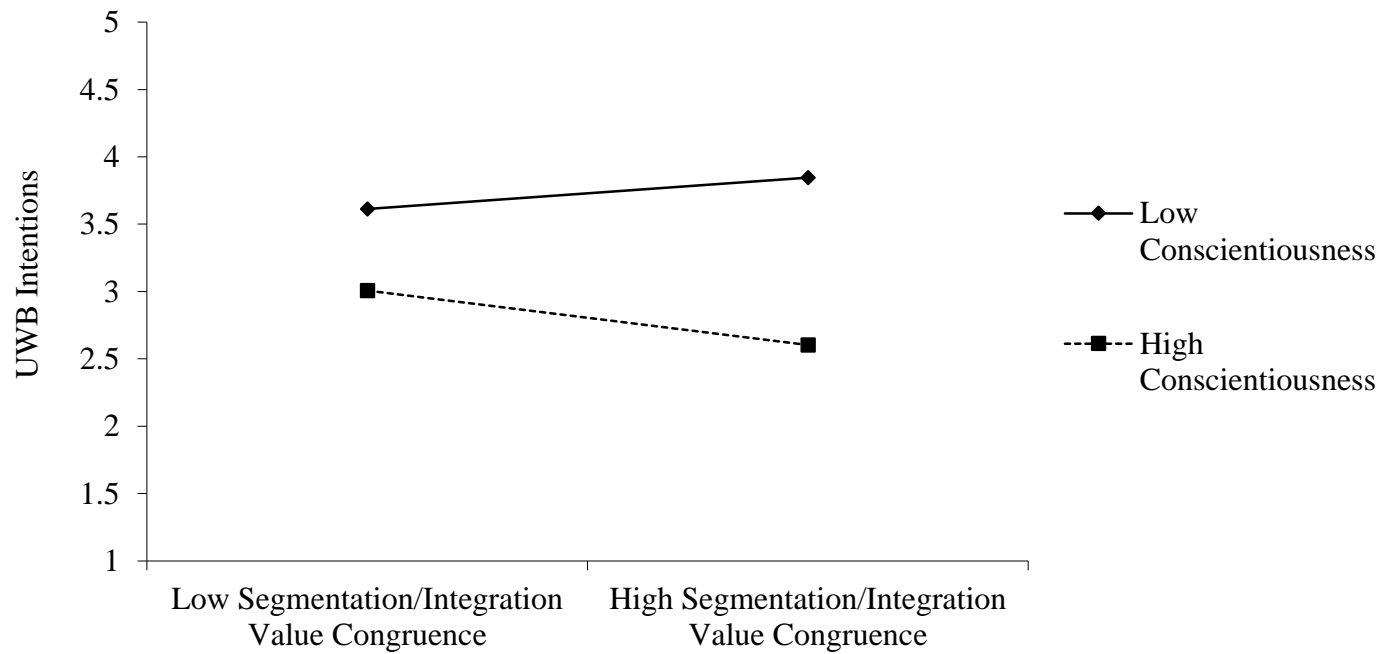
Conditional indirect effect of  $X$  on  $Y$  through  $M_j = (a_{1j} + a_{4j}W) (b_{1j} + b_{9j}W)$   
 Conditional direct effect of  $X$  on  $Y = c'_{1j} + c'_{4j}W$

Figure 8. PROCESS Model 59 (Hayes, 2012a, 2012b) used to test Hypotheses 4a-c (conceptual representation and statistical model above).  $X$ =Segmentation/integration value congruence,  $M$ =WIF,  $W$ =Conscientiousness, and  $Y$ =UWB intentions. Covariates=Age, gender.

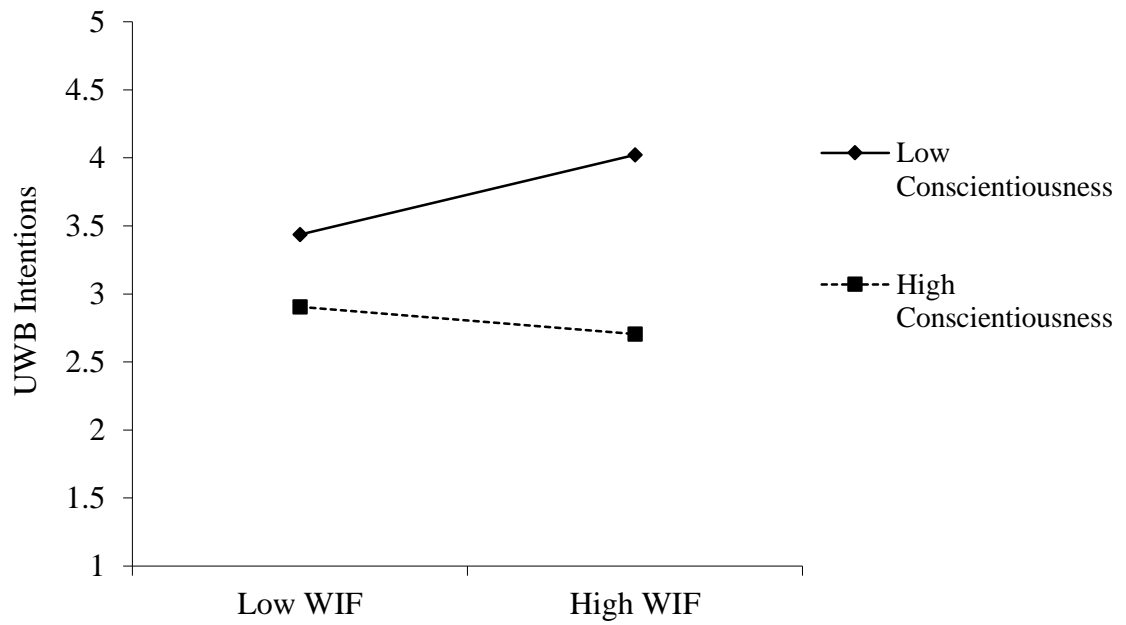




*Figure 9.* Graph of the (nonsignificant) interaction between segmentation/integration value congruence and conscientiousness on WIF (Hypothesis 4a not supported). The main effects of conscientiousness on WIF were significant. WIF=Work interference with family (i.e., work-to-family conflict).



*Figure 10.* Graph of the interaction between segmentation/integration value congruence and conscientiousness on UWB intentions (limited support for Hypothesis 4b). UWB intentions=Unethical work behavior intentions.



*Figure 11.* Graph of the interaction between WIF and conscientiousness on UWB intentions (Hypothesis 4c supported). WIF=Work interference with family (i.e., work-to-family conflict); UWB intentions=Unethical work behavior intentions