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Examining the Interaction Between Perceived Family Support And Core Self-evaluations on Quality of Work Life

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ABSTRACT

This study examined how certain individual characteristics (i.e., core self-evaluations) and domain characteristics (i.e., perceived family support) can impact one's job satisfaction, positive affect, affective organizational commitment, job performance, and intentions to quit/leave the organization (i.e., quality of work life). This study also examined the interactive effects of core self-evaluations and perceived family support on one's quality of work life. The data were collected through a survey posted on Amazon's Mechanical Turk. In total, there was 247 respondents. Findings showed that core self-evaluations were positively related to one's quality of work life and perceived family support was positively related to affective organizational commitment, job performance, and positive affect. Finally, findings showed that core self-evaluations did moderate the relationship between perceived family support and quality of work life, such that the effects of perceived family support were stronger when the core self-evaluation of the individual is high rather than when it is low. The findings of this study can help future researchers improve their knowledge on what can impact one's quality of work life. Moreover, the findings of this study address several gaps in the work-family literature by further examining the positive side of the work-family interface and considering both individual and situational factors that may promote one's quality of work life.

Keywords: perceived family support, core self-evaluations, quality of work life

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INTRODUCTION

Overview

On a daily basis, managing family and work roles is a challenge that many employees are confronted with (Major & Germano, 2006). With the increase of women in the workforce, dual-earner and single parent families (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002), much research concerning the work–family interface has focused on the stress of managing multiple roles. However, more recently researchers have begun to recognize the positive synergies between work and family roles which is referred to as enrichment (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007).

With regards to antecedents of enrichment, researchers have previously argued that role demands can hamper the enrichment experience, whereas domain characteristics have been found to provide more resources than they deplete (Lapierre et al., 2018). For instance, domain characteristics such as family domain supportive sources (family and friends) and one's family context (i.e., being married or having kids) have been recognized as highly promising enablers of enrichment because they could provide new knowledge, skills, and different perspectives that can be applied to the work role to

enhance quality of work life (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012; Wayne et al., 2007). To put it simply, although it is important to understand how the work domain can enrich the family domain, it is equally important to understand how the family domain can enrich the work domain. In fact, previous studies have called for researchers to examine how one's family role could enrich one's work role as such studies have been lacking (Bellavia & Frone, 2005).

Furthermore, individual characteristics such as personality have been recognized as antecedents of enrichment as they "contribute to the acquisition and effective transfer of developmental, capital, affective, and efficiency resources across domains" (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006, p.149). In fact, previous researchers also urged work-family researchers to continue exploring the role of personality within the work family interface as personality could drive perceptions of work and family roles as enriching or depleting (Michel & Clark, 2009). For instance, certain personality characteristics, such as core self-evaluations (CSEs), which are fundamental assessments of self, have been said to help individuals make optimal use of the contextual characteristics of one domain, such that resources are easily acquired and available for use in the other domain (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

Previous researchers have pointed out that the interactive effects of individual difference variables on the work-family interface should be further examined (Friede & Ryan, 2005). For instance, if employees lack supportive resources at home, will personal resources such as CSEs compensate and help employees experience enrichment from the family domain to the work domain? Personality could drive work and family roles to be enriching or depleting and contextual characteristics such as perceived family support can

enable the enrichment process (Michel & Clark, 2009; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Therefore, it is fruitful to investigate such an interaction.

As such, the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between CSE (an individual personality characteristic) and perceived family support (PFS; an environmental characteristic) with quality of work life, and whether these variables interact in predicting quality of work life. Quality of work life (QWL) will consist of increased job satisfaction (JS), positive affect or positive mood (PA), affective organizational commitment (OC), job performance (JP), and decreased intentions to quit or leave the organization (IQL). This paper will first discuss the theoretical framework for the enrichment process along with the associated outcomes. Second, the paper will explain what a CSE is and its implication for the process of family-work enrichment. Third, this paper will explain what PFS is and its implication for perceived QWL. Finally, this paper will explain how CSEs and PFS interact to influence the perception of QWL.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR ENRICHMENT

One major barrier for work-family research has been the lack of an overarching and integrating theoretical framework (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). However, drawing upon earlier work by Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977), Greenhaus and Powell (2006) provided a comprehensive theoretical framework of enrichment that specifies the conditions under which family and work roles are "allies" rather than "enemies" (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

In Sieber's (1974) theory of role accumulation, individuals are thought to experience enrichment because various rewards (e.g., role privileges, status enhancement, personality enrichment) emerge when people participate in multiple roles. With regard to the work and family domains, role accumulation theory provides an explanation for how resources that are generated in a role (parent or spouse) may be transferred and applied to another role (employee) and vice versa. As a result, the individual is likely to be energized and experience satisfaction as opposed to strain or conflict, thereby experiencing resource generation rather than depletion (Brown & Sumner, 2013; Chen & Powell, 2012; Eby et al., 2005; Marks, 1977; Masuda, McNall, Allen, & Nicklin, 2012; Rothbard, 2001; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002; Sieber, 1974).

Marks' (1977) expansionist approach argued that an individual's roles are expandable and can be used to explain why the outcomes associated with multiple role involvement occur. Consistent with the role expansion hypothesis, Ruderman et al. (2002) suggested that resources that are gained in one role may be shared, combined, and extended across roles, which leads to increased energy and other beneficial outcomes. For instance, it has been argued that many parents would work out of choice simply because of the psychological benefits associated with working, such as improved self-esteem, confidence, social support, and naturally the added income. In this regard, individuals gain pleasure from engaging in multiple roles and this, in turn, leads to increased levels of energy (Rothbard, 2001). The positive side of the work-family interface thus creates a win-win scenario for individuals because participation in a family role may generate resources such as a supportive family environment that can improve performance, increase affect, and energize an employee's work role (Marks, 1977; Ruderman et al., 2002).

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) define enrichment as a bi-directional process (i.e., work-family enrichment [WFE] and family-work enrichment [FWE]) which relates the provision of resources from *Role A* (family or work) to improved quality of life in *Role B* (work or family). Based on this definition, resource generation is a fundamental factor in the enrichment process as it contributes to the success of managing family and work roles (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Family and work roles have been found to provide individuals with somewhat distinct resources that can be used to improve role performance and quality of life in other domains (Carlson et al., 2006). The different resource dimensions from the work to family direction (WFE) are development, affect,

and capital; from the family to work direction (FWE), the different resource dimensions are development, affect, and efficiency (Carlson et al., 2006). Thus, enrichment is bi-directional but unique in how it operates in each direction (Carlson et al., 2006).

Work to family and *family to work development* represent the resource gains of skills, knowledge, behaviors, and different perspectives. Carlson et al. (2006) define it as when involvement in family (or work) leads to acquisition or refinement of skills, knowledge, behaviors, or ways of viewing things that help an individual be a better worker (or family member). For example, the time management skills acquired from the parenting role can be transferred to the work domain to help the individual manage work time successfully, ultimately increasing the individual's QWL.

Family to work and *work to family affect* represent when involvement in family (or work) results in positive emotional states or attitudes that help the individual be a better worker (or family member; Carlson et al., 2006). To be more specific, let us suppose that a given employee has experienced a significant loss and subsequently receives support from family and friends. Upon returning to work, this employee encounters a coworker who is irritable, upset, and being disruptive. Given the support experienced in the family domain, this employee is able to be more patient with the coworker, which fosters a strengthened relationship with this particular coworker. Through this particular example, family-domain support can improve the employee's QWL.

Family to work efficiency represents the resource gains of time and efficiency which was unique to this direction. It is defined as when involvement with family provides a sense of focus or urgency which helps the individual to be a better worker

(Carlson et al., 2006). For example, involvement with family domain could encourage one to use work time in a focused manner which helps the individual be a better worker. Finally, *work to family capital* is when involvement in work promotes levels of psychosocial resources such as a sense of security, confidence, accomplishment, or self-fulfillment that helps the individual to be a better family member (Carlson et al., 2006). For example, involvement in work provides a sense of accomplishment which leads to positive moods. Such positive moods may be taken to the family domain where the individual engages in activities (such as help children with homework) that simultaneously promote self-fulfillment and help the individual be a better family member.

Instrumental and Affective Paths of Enrichment

The process of enrichment has two pathways by which a resource in one domain (i.e., family support) can promote high quality of life in the other domain (i.e., work; Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). First, a resource can be transferred *directly* from the family domain to the work domain, thereby enhancing performance in the work domain (i.e., instrumental path). Second, a resource generated in the family domain can promote positive affect within the family domain, which, in turn, *indirectly* produces high performance and positive affect in the work domain (i.e., affective path).

In the *instrumental path*, resources are directly transferred from the family domain to the work domain, improving performance in the work domain. For instance, previous research suggests that skills and perspectives (i.e., developmental resources) are transferred from one role to another. Ruderman et al.'s (2002) female managers reported how a variety of qualities derived from their family role (e.g., interpersonal skills, ability

to multitask, respect for individual differences) enhanced their managerial effectiveness, a finding that is consistent with reports from McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison's (1988) male executives. Furthermore, flexibility within the family role enables one to devote more time to work responsibilities because the support one receives for child care activities allows for fewer adjustments to the work schedule for family reasons and allows one to perform more effectively on the job (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

In the *affective path*, the provision of resources from the family domain can promote positive affect within the family domain, which, in turn, enhances quality of life in the work domain. For example, psychological resources such as self-esteem, optimism, hope, and hardiness derived from a supportive family environment can trigger a positive mood, positive emotions, or satisfaction with that role (Isen & Baron, 1991). In their discussion of mood spillover, Edwards and Rothbard (2000) proposed that a positive mood in one role can enhance cognitive functioning, task and interpersonal activity, and persistence in another role, thereby increasing performance, promoting a positive mood, rewards, and satisfaction. For example, positive affect has been related to benevolence and helping behavior. Therefore, positive affect can increase one's psychological availability to engage in another role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Furthermore, positive affect can expand one's level of energy, thereby increasing the likelihood of being highly engaged in another role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). As such, the resource gain indirectly enhances performance through positive affect. For example, if one perceives that the time management skills have improved owing to one's parenting style, one is more likely to believe that one is a better parent, which will increase one's positive affect in the home domain. This positive affect may then be

transferred to the work domain leading to increased performance in their role as an employee (McNall et al., 2010).

The enrichment process focuses on improved quality of life on the individual level and occurs when resources acquired from one role have measurable impacts on individual quality of life in the other domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Nonetheless, some previous studies have operationalized perceived WFE and FWE as variables and not a process (Jain & Nair, 2017). Portions of the review below will be based on such studies. However, since the enrichment process relates the provision of resources from *Role A* (family or work) to improved quality of life in *Role B* (work or family), this study will treat FWE as a process.

Outcomes of Enrichment

FWE and WFE are related to several work and non-work outcomes (Carlson, Hunter, Ferguson, & Whitten, 2014; McNall et al., 2010). FWE has been associated with higher levels of family satisfaction, family performance, life satisfaction, and personal growth (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; McNall et al., 2010). FWE has also been associated with lower levels of stress, depression, alcohol abuse, marital conflict; and improved mental and physical health, and overall well-being (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shafiro, 2005; McNall et al., 2010). As for work outcomes, FWE has been positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job stress (Zhang, Xu, Jin, & Ford, 2018). Furthermore, a recent meta-analytic review has shown that employees experiencing greater FWE tend to report higher affective commitment to the organization and reduced turnover intentions (McNall et al., 2010). Finally, FWE was found to be

strongly related to job satisfaction in Eastern countries and cultural areas such as Asia than in Western countries and cultural areas such as North America (Zhang et al., 2018).

The non-work outcomes of WFE that have been reported are increased life satisfaction, family satisfaction, family performance, improved sleep quality, improved mental and physical health, and overall well-being (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; McNall et al., 2010; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004). As for the work outcomes of WFE, previous studies have reported that WFE is related to increased job satisfaction, affective commitment, work engagement, and performance outcomes including in-role performance and OCBs (McNall et al., 2010; Williams, Franche, Ibrahim, Mustard, & Layton, 2006; Zhang et al., 2018).

Moreover, researchers have also found that WFE reduces negatives outcomes such as burnout, depression, and anxiety (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hammer et al., 2005). The relationship between WFE and job satisfaction was found to be significant for Eastern countries and cultural areas like Asia, but not for Western countries and cultural areas like Europe (Zhang et al., 2018). Finally, WFE was found to be positively and significantly related to in-role performance in Eastern countries and cultural areas like Asia, whereas WFE was not significantly related to in-role performance in European countries and cultural areas like Europe (Zhang et al., 2018).

Antecedents of Enrichment

Previous research has looked at many different predictors that can influence one's perception of enrichment (FWE and WFE) or quality of life. The predictors of enrichment can be grouped in one of two broad categories: *Contextual/Domain*

Characteristics (termed role characteristics by Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; contextual resources by ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012; and environmental resources by Wayne et al., 2007) and *Personal/Individual Characteristics* (termed key resources by ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Contextual or domain characteristics are aspects of a role's environment or social context whereas personal or individual characteristics are those involving personality and psychological involvement (Lapierre et al., 2018).

Job autonomy, a contextual characteristic, has been recognized as a highly promising enabler of WFE because it can help people become more efficient at work, thus having more time to spend on family activities (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Also, employees with more autonomy tend to find their work more satisfying and motivating (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), thus more easily experiencing positive emotions that could enhance their family life (Wayne et al., 2007). Marriage (or cohabitation) has been said to be a valued condition of one's life (Hobfoll, 1989). In fact, previous studies have found that marriage (or cohabitation), as a characteristic of one's family context, provided resources of potential value to one's work life (FWE; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Furthermore, compared to unmarried people, married individuals tend to enjoy greater happiness (Vanassche, Swicegood, & Matthijs, 2013).

Previous researchers have also looked at the number of kids and spouse's work hours as predictors of FWE. However, findings were inconsistent. For instance, Matthews, Del Priore, Acitelli, & Barnes-Farrell (2006) found that spouse's work hours or activities drained the time or energy needed for family-related activities, leading to marital tension and reduced partner's health. Erickson, Martinengo, and Hill

(2010) found that having more kids living at home significantly sapped parents' resources. However, according to recent meta-analytic findings, having more kids living at home and spouse's work hours were actually found to be positively related to FWE (Lapierre et al., 2018). Thus, the number of kids and spouse's work hours are enablers, rather than limiters, of FWE. Furthermore, family role overload was found to be a negatively related to FWE (Lapierre et al., 2018).

Personal (psychological) characteristics have also been viewed as antecedents to enrichment with particular attention given to individuals' psychological investment in each domain (e.g., work or family involvement and work engagement; Rothbard, 2001; Siu et al., 2013; Wayne et al., 2007). Being more psychologically invested (high work involvement, work centrality, and work engagement) can lead to the acquisition of several valuable resources such as greater knowledge and skill, more positive mood, and better health (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin, & Lord, 2002; Wayne et al., 2007). With such gains, life in the family role becomes enriched (WFE; Rothbard, 2001; Wayne et al., 2007; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006).

In the same sense, being psychologically invested in the family domain has been recognized as an antecedent of FWE (Lapierre et al., 2018). Family involvement and centrality both capture individuals' psychological investment in their family role, a state of mind that causes FWE (Lapierre et al., 2018). The more psychologically invested people are in their family role, the more they could reap the benefits of family life that could then enhance life at work. Examples include being in a more positive mood thanks to close relationships with one's spouse or children or acquiring useful knowledge or perspectives through meaningful interactions with family members (Barnett & Hyde,

2001; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). In addition to the aforementioned factors, there are two other factors that appear to play a major role in the FWE process, namely, personality and a supportive family environment (or family support).

Personality and FWE

In a review of the literature on the work-family interface, Eby et al. (2005) found that little attention has been paid to the role of individual differences in understanding how people experience family and work domains. The potential influence of personality on work–family conflict has begun to be recognized by researchers (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Wayne et al., 2004), but fewer studies have considered the effect of personality on FWE (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002).

The studies that have considered the effect of personality on FWE have paid specific attention to certain personality traits such as extraversion (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008; Wayne et al., 2004), LOC, self-esteem, and self-efficacy (Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005). Grzywacz and Marks' (2000) study supported the positive and significant relationship between extraversion and WFE. In addition, Wayne et al. (2004) revealed that extraversion positively predicted WFE.

In a recent cross-sectional study, Rotondo and Kincaid (2008) found that higher levels of extraversion were significantly associated with higher levels of WFE. Researchers have also found that LOC, self-esteem, and self-efficacy were predictors of WFE and FWE. According to Control Theory, individuals with high self-esteem, high self-efficacy, and an internal LOC tend to increase their efforts when their performance does not meet standards because they view themselves as in control of the situation and are able to better utilize their resources (Judge et al., 2005).

Drawing on work by Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) from the stress literature, Friede and Ryan (2005) argued that personality may influence the family–work interface through several mechanisms. For instance, the manner in which a person perceives and responds to a situation is likely affected by personality. Thus, one person may perceive the management of family and work roles as enriching, but to another person, it may be conflicting. Additionally, personality is likely to have an influence on the types of psychological resources and coping strategies that people use during the stressful events that occur in their lives. In other words, individuals with certain personalities may select more effective coping strategies, which may assist them in managing their family and work roles.

The personality trait that will be examined in this study is Core Self-Evaluations (CSEs). As a personality variable, CSEs are defined as "the fundamental assessments that people make about their worthiness, competence, and capabilities" (Judge et al., 2005, p. 257). CSE is a higher order factor compromised of four conceptually similar personality dimensions: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, emotional stability, and locus of control (Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Judge et al., 2005). According to Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998), these four traits are saturated with the underlying CSE construct, which implies that they are interrelated and share similar relations with other variables. In support of this view, empirical findings have verified that the traits are highly correlated (Judge & Bono, 2001a, 2001b; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003).

Furthermore, previous findings also verified a higher order factor and found that the traits predicted motivation, performance, and job satisfaction better as a set (Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001b; Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998). They note that although

each trait has a unique component that may lead to differential relations with outcomes, considering the set of traits together may improve prediction and understanding, Thus, whereas one can expect these traits to have relationships of differing magnitudes with various outcomes of interest, overall similar predictions can be made for the set (Judge et al., 1998).

As one of the dimensions of CSEs, *self-esteem* refers to an overall appraisal of one's self-worth (Rosenberg, 1965). *Generalized self-efficacy* is an estimate of one's fundamental ability to perform and cope successfully within an extensive range of situations (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). *Emotional stability* (opposite of neuroticism) is the propensity to feel calm, steady, and secure (Judge & Bono, 2001a). Lastly, *locus of control* (LOC) is the degree to which individuals believe that they have control over events in their lives (Judge et al., 1998). Individuals with an internal LOC believe that they are generally in command of the events in their life and their fate is determined by their actions. However, individuals with external LOC believe that they are unable to have control over the environment and events (Judge et al., 1998). Due to its influence on individual's perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, actions, and decisions, a focus on CSEs is believed to provide the best illustration of personality's influence on the work-family interface (Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Friede & Ryan, 2005). As such, it is expected that CSEs will be positively related to FWE for the following reasons.

Influence of CSEs on work and family environments. First, there is evidence supporting the notion that CSEs may influence characteristics of one's family and work environment. Individuals seek out situations based on their personality, such that positively disposed individuals experience more positive events in life (Friede & Ryan,

2005). Moreover, Judge et al. (1998) have noted how Self-Consistency Theory (Korman, 1970) suggests that individuals will seek out and be satisfied with roles that maximize cognitive consistency; those with more positive self-evaluations will choose situations in which they can be competent and avoid those in which they cannot. Thus, individuals with low CSEs may actually experience more negative home and work events (i.e., more stressors).

On the other hand, individuals with high CSEs may seek out enriching, rather than depleting, situations. For instance, Judge, Bono, and Locke (2000) showed that those with high CSEs held more complex jobs (i.e., more challenging and more intrinsically satisfying) and therefore had greater job satisfaction. Previous research also suggests that individuals with high negative affectivity may influence coworkers to respond to them in certain ways (e.g., being unsupportive), creating an environment that is more stressful than the environment of individuals with supportive coworkers (Burke, Brief, & George, 1993). For example, an individual who often laments how much work there is to do will receive fewer help offers when in a crunch than the coworker who seldom moans.

CSEs may also influence the characteristics of one's family environment, thus influencing the challenges or benefits associated with managing multiple roles (Friede & Ryan, 2005). For instance, in terms of parent-child relationships, previous research found that parental self-esteem is related to authoritarian parenting styles (Aunola, Nurmi, Onatsu-Arvilommi, & Pulkkinen, 1999). Therefore, it is possible that personality, through its influence on parenting style, alters the family environment that an individual must deal with (e.g., whether children are more or less obedient) thus influencing how difficult it is for individuals to balance the responsibilities of their work and family lives.

Furthermore, the personality of a spouse may directly influence the quality of a marriage and the ease with which individuals can manage both work and family simultaneously. For instance, Larson, Anderson, Homan, and Niemann (1998) found that the self-esteem of a wife is the best premarital predictor of a husband's marital sexual satisfaction.

Influence of CSEs on perceptions of work and family roles. Second, CSEs may influence the perceptions of work and family role requirements in the environment. Previous researchers have noted that the positive frame of those with more positive self-concepts influenced how they appraise situations (Judge et al., 1998). Thus, not only do individuals with high CSEs have more positive work situations as noted earlier, they also perceive characteristics of the same job (or family life) more positively than those with low CSEs. For example, neuroticism affects whether one's role requirements are seen as stressful. One reason for the relationship between negative affectivity and self-reports of environmental stressors is that individuals with high negative affectivity may be more likely to interpret stimuli negatively (Fogarty et al., 1999).

In fact, previous studies have found that those high in negative affectivity tend to encode more negative information about themselves and situations, and they also perceive their jobs as containing fewer desirable characteristics because they selectively attend to the negative aspects of their jobs (Levin & Stokes, 1989). In an experimental manipulation, subjects high in negative affectivity reported less task satisfaction than subjects low in negative affectivity, even when controlling for task type (Levin & Stokes, 1989). For LOC, researchers have found that individuals with an external LOC reported more job stressors and a lack of job autonomy as compared to individuals with an internal LOC (Hahn, 2000).

CSEs may also influence the perceptions of stressors in the family domain (Friede & Ryan, 2005). According to previous studies, neurotic individuals tend to perceive more problems with family interactions than non-neurotic individuals (Narayanan & Venkatachalam, 1980). As for LOC, previous studies found that couples with an internal LOC report more satisfaction with their marriage than do other couples (Camp & Ganong, 1997). Thus, CSEs may be related to how interactions between work and family are perceived. For example, individuals who view the world negatively and believe that they have little control, may see a situation in which a child's doctor appointment that is at the same time as an important work meeting as a stressor because they perceived that they can't control the environment, and that this time conflict is unavoidable and problematic. However, more positive, self-efficacious individuals may perceive control in this situation (like the ability to reschedule the meeting or ask a friend or relative to take the child to the doctor appointment) and see it as another example of the way in which they have control over work and family lives and can successfully meet obligations in both roles. As such, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1: CSEs will be positively related to QWL.

Perceived Family Support (PFS) and FWE

A supportive context has been recognized as a highly promising enabler of WFE and FWE (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012; Wayne et al., 2007). According to previous research, social support consists of social relationships that provide (or can potentially provide) resources that either by themselves, or in combination with more concrete material resources help the recipient cope and adapt to stressful life events which, in turn, enhances the recipients' positive well-being (Barrera,

1986; Lakey & Cohen, 2000; Thompson, 1995). The two types of support that have received empirical validation, especially by industrial-organizational researchers, are (a) instrumental support, and (b) emotional support (King, Mattimore, King, & Adams, 1995).

The tangible aid and services provided is known as *Instrumental support* (Thompson, 1995). For example, parents can offer material aid or kids can help with day-to-day household operations such as cleaning or helping prepare dinner; friends can also give kids rides to school or appointments. *Emotional support* includes intimacy, empathy, love, attachment, reassurance, trust, and being able to confide in and rely on another — all of which contribute to the feeling that one is loved or cared about (Schaefer, Coyne, & Lazarus, 1981). For example, one could listen attentively to significant others' problems. Emotional support is thought to be beneficial because it provides the recipient with a sense of acceptance and may bolster one's self-esteem during life challenges (Thompson, 1995).

Social support is most often studied through the lens of the Conservation of Resources Theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll, 2001). According to COR theory, individuals are driven to maintain, protect and enhance their resources. One is likely to experience stress if one believes that one's resources are vulnerable or depleted, or if resources are invested but doing so does not bring about the expected resource improvement. In COR theory, social support is said to be an essential resource that is critical in helping individuals to acquire new resources as well as preserve those resources that have already been attained (Hobfoll, 2001; Seiger & Wiese, 2009). Social support thus is a resource that enables individuals to better manage their roles in multiple

domains and reduces the risk of negative outcomes (Kirrane & Buckley, 2004; Siu et al., 2013).

This notion is echoed in the words of Hobfoll and Vaux (1993, p. 685) who stated that "social support is a valuable social commodity and those who are endowed with social support are better off in most instances than those who are not." Building on this argument, Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) suggested that participation in one particular role enables an individual to acquire new skills that may be applied to a different role. For example, as a parent the family domain may offer instrumental support which could promote certain skills such as active listening, communication, and conflict management which, in turn, can be used to enhance relationships with others in the work domain.

In addition, it was argued that involvement in one role, for example a parental role, enables the provision of support from members within that domain, including significant others, children, and parents. This support is useful in helping the individual integrate this role with the other roles (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Through its association with multiple role engagement and enhanced resource attainment, a supportive environment is influential in facilitating the enrichment process (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Ruderman et al., 2002; Wayne et al., 2007). It is therefore not surprising that Greenhaus and Powell (2006) as well as Carlson et al. (2006) classified a supportive environment as a social capital resource that is generated in a role in their respective models of enrichment.

It has been well established that for a working professional, support can come from both work (i.e., supervisors, coworkers, organizational policies and programs) and

family (i.e., spouse, kin, family and friends) domains (Hill, 2005; Kaufmann & Beehr, 1989; Thompson & Prottas, 2006; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). However, family domain support has received less attention than work domain support (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Eby et al., 2005). Thus, the role that family itself can play in helping individuals experience enrichment in their work roles should be further investigated. Furthermore, family domain supportive sources have been operationalized as a combined reference to "family and friends" or specifying just the "spouse" (Adams et al., 1996; Lu, Siu, Spector, & Shi, 2009; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). Besides spousal support, other family members can also be sources of support. For instance, support could be derived from kids, parents, and relatives. For the purpose of this research, family domain support will be operationalized as the support perceived from significant others, kids, parents, and friends.

Although research on the home-to-work direction is more limited, family support can also enhance individuals' experiences at work in many ways (Carlson et al., 2006). Such support could provide individuals with a variety of resources such as positive affect, more time, alternative perspectives, and new knowledge and skills which could enhance one's work role. Family support may also play an extrinsic motivational role by providing instrumental advice to help employees in achieving their work goals (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). For instance, the leadership skills learned from being a parent could help one be a better leader in the workplace (Ruderman et al., 2002).

Talking with kids and significant others can be emotionally enhancing for the individual. Spending time with family can provide working parents with a much-needed break in the form of "time-out-of-time" (Gillis, 1996). In other words, it allows busy

working parents to take a break from stressors and recharge. This way, family time can boost energy and contribute to confidence in one's ability to manage both work and family roles. Even acquiring new perspectives through meaningful interactions with family members leads to more positive moods that, in turn, can lead to work enrichment (Lapierre et al., 2018). Nonetheless, such positive outcomes are not simply due to presence of family members; one must feel cared for, appreciated, and loved. For instance, one can have no connection to family members although they share a household, leading one to feel isolated and not supported ultimately leading to negative outcomes.

PFS can also be used to reduce demands and facilitate performance, thereby leading to positive family-work experiences (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). When families have a mutual understanding to cooperate, be supportive, and share responsibilities, quality relationships with family members are essentially created. Having such quality relationships with family members likely creates resources that benefit one's QWL (i.e., FWE). For instance, having a spouse who works more hours may give the individual more opportunities to develop new skills (i.e., patience) and connect with kids leading the individual to experience positive emotions due to the successful management of family and work roles. In the same sense, having more kids can provide the individual with more opportunity to learn new skills and to experience positive emotions. Thus, PFS likely increases the personal resources (e.g., positive affect) that help the individual to be emotionally available for others in another role and it increases their self-esteem as the individual is essentially receiving feedback regarding the management of multiple roles.

Out of all the sources of PFS, spousal or significant other support has been regarded as one of the most significant sources of social support in the work-family literature (Lu et al., 2009; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). Spousal support influences an employee's affect and performance within the work domain and is associated with increased job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and career success (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; King et al., 1995). A spouse may provide support through behaviors and attitudes in relation to helping out with daily household responsibilities such as sharing family-related responsibilities, or making special adjustments to suit the spouse's work duties (King et al., 1995). Thus, a spouse's practical help aids in preserving partner's resources (Wayne et al., 2007).

Alternatively, significant others may provide support through attitudes and behaviors that are directed towards encouraging the partner and improving the partner's positive affect and performance (Erickson, 1993; King et al., 1995). Wayne et al. (2006) determined that it was particularly important for one's significant other to provide support in the form of care and understanding in order to facilitate FWE. This is in line with Greenhaus and Powell's model (2006) in which spousal support generates resources that have a beneficial effect on an individual's performance in the work domain, thereby facilitating FWE.

Parents can also play a role in FWE. Parents could provide support by being encouraging and providing empathic understanding and/or by attending to household and child-care related duties (Griggs, Casper, & Eby, 2013). It has been suggested that family members are often placed in charge of child-care responsibilities so that the parents of the child can primarily attend to the work domain (Evans, Matola, & Nyeko, 2008). In fact,

employed parents who are able to make use of familial care provisions other than those offered by their spouse have access to greater social support compared to employees who rely on paid domestic support and other non-family-related care (Kossek, 1990). Additionally, Kossek and Nichol (1992) determined that employees who do not have access to familial care are more likely to perceive childcare-related problems than employees who receive childcare-related support from their family. In line with Kossek's (1990) finding, other researchers have found a positive association between family support and WFE and a negative relationship between work-family conflict and family support (Aryee et al., 2005; Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008).

PFS has been related to reduced strain and to better health and well-being (Adams et al., 1996; Bernas & Major, 2000; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999). Kauffman and Beehr (1989) conducted a study where they surveyed 121 police officers and found that occupational stressors (under-utilization of skills, quantitative workload, and job future ambiguity) and several types of social support were related to individual psychological strain. Specifically, they found that emotional support from the family-domain decreased depressive symptoms and boredom with work tasks in individuals (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1989).

PFS has also been related to more helping behavior at work, career success, career development, satisfaction at work, as is marriage and the presence of children (Adams et al., 1996; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; ten Brummelhuis, van der Lippe, & Kluwer, 2010; Voydanoff, 2001). As such, it is likely that the family domain provides employees with support in the form of

advice and encouragement that motivates them to invest more of themselves in their work.

These studies suggest that the characteristics of one's domain can generate resources that benefit the individual's functioning in the other. In other words, individuals with more support at home might have more energy, experience less psychological strains, and act more helpfully at work. They also experience positive affect which can enable employees to effectively perform their work role (Watson, 2000). Moreover, family domain support can help one be satisfied with their work since their family domain is supportive and encouraging of their work role. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2: *Perceived family support will be positively related to QWL.*

The Moderating Role of CSEs

In addition to proposing that both CSEs and PFS are related to QWL, the question remains about whether these variables interact to influence QWL. Friede and Ryan (2005) pointed out that researchers should examine the interactive effects of individual difference variables on the work–family interface. As already described, PFS would be expected to have a positive relationship with QWL, regardless of the level of CSEs. However, if an employee lacks supportive resources at home, will personal resources such as CSEs compensate and help the employee experience a higher QWL?

Research has revealed that personality influences how effectively individuals cope with difficult life events (Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, & Larkin, 2003; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Coping refers to an individual's effort to manage demands or stressors that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the individual's resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping strategies are typically divided into those that are problem-

focused and those that are emotion-focused (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Problem-focused coping has been said to be an active coping strategy (Andreassi, 2011), it refers to taking action towards resolving the source of distress through information seeking, planning or increased effort, and seeking instrumental support. Emotion-focused coping is known as an avoidance/passive strategy that involves palliating emotions or feelings caused by the source of stress. It is aimed at reducing or managing the emotional distress that is associated or cued by the situation through emotional support, venting of emotions, mindfulness, deep breathing, behavioral withdrawal, avoidance, denial, and drug or alcohol abuse (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980).

Hence, it is possible that positive self-evaluations provide help to overcome the negative aspects of being in an unsupportive home environment. For instance, previous researchers have found LOC and self-efficacy to be linked to the effectiveness of a coping strategy (Bandura, 1991). Thus, individuals with low CSEs may be less effective at implementing certain coping strategies to alleviate strain. For example, even when highly neurotic individuals employed the same coping strategies as less neurotic individuals, they were still less effective (Gunthert, Cohen, & Armeli, 1999).

Judge et al. (1998) note that control theory research shows that individuals with high self-esteem, high self-efficacy, and an internal LOC tend to increase their efforts when their performance does not meet standards; whereas individuals with negative self-concepts either lower their standards or withdraw from a task when given negative feedback. For example, after failing to successfully negotiate a work and family role conflict, individuals with low self-esteem may generalize that failed experience to future attempts to negotiate these roles.

When it comes to multiple role engagement, previous studies have found that individuals with positive self-concepts (i.e., high CSEs) respond to information that they are not fulfilling their role obligations to their standard by increasing their efforts to do so; whereas those with negative self-evaluations (i.e., low CSEs) will be more likely to shift their standards (e.g., being home for dinner with the family each night or obtaining a promotion are not goals anymore) or to withdraw from the situation (Friede & Ryan, 2005).

Based on previous research, self-efficacy and LOC have been suggested to have strong influences on whether individuals adopt an optimistic or pessimistic evaluation style (Judge et al., 1998). For instance, individuals with more pessimistic evaluation styles are more likely to display helplessness deficits (e.g., lower their effort, withdraw from task) when faced with a bad event than individuals with more optimistic evaluation styles (Seligman, Abramson, Semmel, & von Baeyer, 1979). Additionally, those with an internal LOC will perceive bad events as less stable and will possess a more optimistic evaluation style, and those with high generalized self-efficacy will believe in their ability to change bad situations. As such, when work and family role demands conflict, those with a more optimistic evaluation style will believe it is a fixable situation, whereas those with a lower self-evaluation will make a more pessimistic evaluation and be more likely to engage in helplessness types of behaviors.

CSEs have also been recognized as an important variable in the stressor-strain relationship as they could determine the way that individuals respond to stressors and they can help individuals be more capable of solving problems in stressful situations. For instance, previous studies found that for individuals with an external LOC that were also

high on neuroticism, life changes were much more strongly related to distress and depression than for those individuals with an internal LOC and low neuroticism (Johnson & Sarason, 1978; Ormel & Wohlfarth, 1991).

It was previously mentioned that a major element of COR theory (Hobfoll, 2002) is that individuals with resources, such as high CSEs, are "less negatively affected by the resource drain or loss that occurs in the face of stressful conditions" (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 318), such as an unsupportive home environment. Such findings indicate that since individuals with high CSEs "bring a 'positive frame' to the events and situations they encounter" (Judge et al., 1998, p. 31), PFS may not have as much of an influence on their FWE because they have a solid resource reservoir despite a lack of care and concern from their family domain. In other words, they are less sensitive to the changes of resource drain/loss and thus are able to cope better. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

> *Hypothesis 3: CSEs will moderate the relationship of PFS with QWL such that the effects of PFS will be stronger when CSE of the individual is low rather than when it is high.*

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Participants

Participants were found by using Amazon's Mechanical Turk, a system that was created by Amazon and turned into a platform where researchers could offer surveys and perform experiments (Mason & Suri, 2012). Mechanical Turk has become popular over the years because of the many advantages it offers such as accessibility to willing participants (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). In addition, the Mechanical Turk samples are more diverse than other samples found on the internet and in academic settings (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Mechanical Turk allows people to be requesters; these are the people who create the task they need workers to complete (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Workers then can select which tasks, also known as HITs, they want to complete and are given compensation to use on their Amazon account based on the task selected (Buhrmester et al., 2011).

All participants used in this study elected to participate in this study by selecting the HIT. To ensure participants qualified to take the survey, screener questions were asked. These questions ensured all participants must have children living at home that are

under the age of 18 years old, must be United States citizens and living in the United States, must be at least 18 years old, must be employed full-time in a non-Mechanical Turk position from a single employer that involves at least 35 hours of work per week, and must be married or cohabitating. If participants answered any of these questions incorrectly, they were disqualified from the survey.

Throughout the survey there were four attention check questions that instructed participants how to answer those question. Two of those attention check questions asked participants to choose the image of the tree from three possible images given. The other two attention check questions also told participants how to answer the questions. For example, "If you are still paying attention, strongly disagree with the following statement: I recently had a fatal heart attack." Participants were eliminated if they answered an attention check question incorrectly. This was to ensure that participants were actually paying attention and actually reading the survey. The sample used for this study included 301 participants. After screening out participants who answered an attention check question incorrectly or did not qualify for the survey, and those who finished the survey in less than five minutes, the final sample included 247 participants. This means that 82% of participants were included.

The final sample of 247 participants varied in age; 4.5% of participants are between 18-25 years old ($N = 11$), 54.3% of participants are 26-35 ($N = 134$), 29.1% of participants are between 36-45 ($N = 72$), 10.5% of participants are between 46-55 ($N = 26$), and 1.6% of participants are between 56-69 years of age ($N = 4$). The final sample had 47% female participants ($N = 116$) and 53% male participants ($N = 131$). There are 70.9% Caucasian/white ($N = 175$), 15.8% African Americans ($N = 39$), 7.3% Hispanic (N

= 18), 4.5% Asian (*N* = 11), and 1.6% American Indian (*N* = 4). As for relationship status, 68.2% of participants are married (*N* = 213) and 13.8% of participates are cohabiting (*N* = 34).

As for the number of children, 45.7% have one child (*N* = 113), 39.3% have two children (*N* = 97), 10.9% have three children (*N* = 27), 2.4% have four children (*N* = 6), 1.2% have five children (*N* = 3), and 0.4% have six children (*N* = 1). As for the number of children living at home with them under 18 years old, 51% have one child (*N* = 126), 35.2% have two children (*N* = 87), 11.3% have three children (*N* = 28), 2% have four children (*N* = 5), and 0.4% have five children (*N* = 1). Out of the participants, 57.1% have no other dependents living with them (*N* = 141), 19.8% have one dependent (*N* = 49), 15.4% have two dependents (*N* = 38), 4.9% have three dependents (*N* = 12), 1.2% have four dependents (*N* = 3), and 1.6% have five dependents (*N* = 4).

Moreover, 72.9% of participants have a dual-earner household (*N* = 180) and 27.1% of participants have a single-earner household (*N* = 67). As for education, 14.1% have high school education (*N* = 35), 10.1% have an associate's degree (*N* = 25), 59.1% have a bachelor's degree (*N* = 146), 10.1% have a master's degree (*N* = 25), and 5.2% have a professional degree (*N* = 13). There was 1.2% of participants (*N* = 3) who did not provide an answer to this question.

As for hours spent in employment, 64% of participants spend 35-40 hours per week in employment (*N* = 158) and 36% of participants spend more than 40 hours per week in employment (*N* = 89). As for spouse's hours spent in employment, 24.7% of participants work 0-20 hours per week (*N* = 60) and 75.3% of participants work more than 20 hours per week (*N* = 183). There are 74.9% of participants who have more than

one direct report(s) (N = 185), and 25.1% of participants who have no direct reports (N = 62). As for family income, 52.2% of participants make under $60,000 in combined family income (N = 129) and 47.8% of participants make more than $60,000 in combined family income (N = 118). There were no demographic differences found between participants who were excluded versus those who were included.

Procedure

The survey created were uploaded onto SurveyMonkey. The link to complete the survey was then added to Amazon's Mechanical Turk. Participants answered the series of questions. After successful completion of the survey participants were thanked for completing the survey and were compensated with $0.50. To receive payment, participants must have successfully answered the attention check questions entered into the questionnaire and be a qualified respondent (i.e., met inclusion criteria).

Measures

The survey used in this study consisted of eight sections (see Appendix): demographic information, the Family Support Inventory for Workers (FSIW), the Core Self-Evaluations Scale (CSES), and five measures for QWL: job satisfaction, positive affect, affective organizational commitment, job performance, and intentions to quit or leave the organization. Demographic variables were assessed through a self-developed questionnaire. These variables included age, gender, ethnicity, relationship status, number and age of children living at home under 18 years of age, number of other dependents (elder care) living at home, household earning type (dual earner or single earner), combined family income, education, and number of direct reports.

Perceived Family Support (PFS) was measured using King et al.'s (1995) 44-item Family Support Inventory for Workers (FSIW). Participants provided their responses on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree).* A sample item is ''When something at work is bothering me, members of my family show that they understand how I'm feeling." The FSIW has been reported to have a Cronbach's alpha of .95 (King et al., 1995). It is important to note that this scale does have 2-subdimesnions, instrumental and emotional support, that can be used to distinguish between the types of support offered by family members. I decided to use the scale as an overall assessment of PFS since this study is focused on social support as a resource that is used for the enrichment process. In other words, I was not concerned with the types of support and their effects on one's quality of work life. I was concerned with the support perceived from the family domain as a whole and its effects on one's quality of work life. The use of this scale as a unidimensional measure is not new. Previous researchers have used this scale as a unidimensional measure of perceived family support (Tang, Huang, & Yang, 2017). Furthermore, the authors of this scale have pointed out that the scale can be modified to the needs of the researchers, whether that may be using it as a unidimensional scale or using the short versions of the scale.

Core self-evaluation (CSE) was measured using Judge et al.'s (2003) 12-item Core Self-Evaluation (CSE) Scale. The items asked participants the extent to which they identify with statements reflecting emotional stability, generalized self-efficacy, self-esteem, and locus of control. Participants provided their responses on 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree).* A sample item is ''Overall, I am satisfied with myself". Although the authors' selection of items was

inspired by separate measures of each of the four core traits, the measure is unidimensional such that individual items are not intended to strictly belong to only one trait. The CSE scale has been reported to have a Cronbach's alpha of .84 and test-retest reliability of .81 (Judge et al., 2003).

Job satisfaction (JS) was measured using Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh's, (1979) 3-item Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ) to measure global job satisfaction. Participants provided their responses on 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 7 *(strongly agree).* A sample item is "all in all, I am satisfied with my job." The MOAQ has been reported to have a Cronbach's alpha of .90 (Cammann et al., 1979).

Positive affect (PA) was measured using a 10-item scale developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). This scale consisted of a number of positive words that describe different positive feelings and emotions. I am interested in positive affect as an affective state (rather than trait-based positive affect). Therefore, participants were asked to indicate how they felt at work during the past few days and provided their responses on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 *(very slightly or not at all)* to 5 *(extremely).* This modification to the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) scale has been established as a reliable and valid way to assess affect as a state rather than as a trait (George & Zhou, 2007; Watson, 2000; Watson et al., 1988). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients range from 0.86 to 0.90 for the positive affect scale and from 0.84 to 0.87 for the negative affect scale (Watson, 2000; Watson et al., 1988).

Affective organizational commitment (OC) was measured using Allen and Myer's (1990) 8-item Affective Commitment Scale, which reflects the employees' emotional

attachment to an organization. A sample item is "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me." Participants will provide their responses on 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 7 *(strongly agree).* This affective commitment scale has been reported to have a Cronbach's alpha of .91 (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Job performance (JP) was measured using a 3-item measure of general job performance developed by Liden, Wayne, and Stilwell (1993). A sample item is "I am a strong performer on the job." Respondents indicated their agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree).* Reported Cronbach's alpha for this 3-item scale was .80 (Liden et al., 1993). Although true performance and any other rating of performance may differ, assessment of the difference is difficult (Viswesvaran, Schmidt, & Ones, 2005). With that in mind, I am choosing to focus on self- rated performance because employees have the most knowledge of their own general performance (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988), and there is significant overlap in self versus other ratings of workplace performance (Carpenter, Berry, & Houston, 2014).

Intention to quit or leave (IQL) was measured using a 4-item scale developed by Chatman (1991) to evaluate employees' thoughts and intentions to leave the organization. A sample item is "I would prefer another more ideal job than the one I now work in." Respondents indicated their agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 5 *(strongly agree).* Chapman noted a principal component analysis of the measure yielded one factor. Two out of the four items are reverse coded, thus, higher scores equal more positive attitudes (less likely to quit).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas, and the correlation matrix for the variables used in this study can be seen in Table 1. All of the Cronbach's alphas can be seen in the diagonals; all of these values were high indicating that there was high internal consistency. The correlation matrix was examined to look for possible covariates that could affect the results in the study. Relationship status could be a covariate for perceived family support, $r = -.178$, $p = .005$. The number of children living at home under 18 years old could be a covariate for the following variables: core self-evaluation, $r = .145$, $p = .023$, job satisfaction, $r = .161$, $p = .011$, affective organizational commitment, $r = .176$, $p = .006$, job performance, $r = .131$, $p = .039$, and intentions to quit or leave the organization, $r = .160$, $p = .012$. Education could be a covariate for positive affect, $r = .134$, $p = .036$. The number of direct reports could be a covariate for the following variables: job satisfaction, $r = .176$, $p = .006$, positive affect, $r = .197$, $p = .002$, affective organizational commitment, $r = .230$, $p = .000$, and intentions to quit or leave the organization, $r = .152$, $p = .017$.

Hypothesis Tests

The following covariates were controlled for when analyzing each hypothesis: relationship status, number of children living at home under 18 years of age, education, and number of direct reports. Furthermore, a Bonferroni correction ($p < .01$) was used to examine whether a significant main effects and interaction exists for each DV separately. To test Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2, I used an MGLM and examined whether main effects existed for each DV separately. To test Hypothesis 3 using MGLM, interaction term was created (*PFS* × *CSE*) and a Bonferroni correction ($p < .01$) was used to examine whether a significant interaction exists for each DV separately. To graph the interaction, quality of work life (i.e., job satisfaction, job performance, affective commitment, positive affect, and intentions to quit) *(y)* was plotted on PFS *(x)* as a function of two values of CSEs: low and high. A value for high-CSE was defined as one standard deviation above the mean and low-CSE was defined as one standard deviation below the mean (Aiken & West, 1991). Finally, it is important to note that when it comes to IQL, higher values mean more positive attitudes (i.e., less likely to quit).

Hypothesis 1: CSEs will be positively related to QWL.

Findings showed that the Pillai's Trace of the multivariate tests was .221, indicating a significant multivariate effect of core self-evaluation on the combined DVs after controlling for relationship status, number of children living at home under 18 years of age, education, and number of direct reports, $F(5, 236) = 13.420$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .221$ (see Table 2).

When it comes to which DVs were statistically significant, it was found that there are significant main effects of CSEs on job satisfaction, $F(1, 240) = 59.57$, $p = .000$,

partial η^2 = .199, positive affect, $F(1, 240) = 24.55$, $p = .000$, partial η^2 = .093, affective organizational commitment, $F(1, 240) = 31.04$, $p = .000$, partial η^2 = .115, job performance, $F(1, 240) = 10.72$, $p = .001$, partial η^2 = .043, and intentions to quit/leave organization, $F(1, 240) = 30.72$, $p = .000$, partial η^2 = .113 (see Table 3). Individuals with higher CSEs were more satisfied with their jobs and were more committed to the organization. Moreover, individuals with higher CSEs reported more positive affect and were better performers on the job. Finally, individuals with higher CSEs had decreased intentions to leave/quit the organization (see Table 4). Thus, the first hypothesis is supported.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived family support will be positively related to QWL.

Findings showed that the Pillai's Trace of the multivariate tests was .097, indicating a significant multivariate effect of perceived family support on the combined DVs after controlling for relationship status, number of children living at home under 18 ears of age, education, and number of direct reports, $F(5, 236) = 5.074$, $p = .000$, partial η^2 = .097 (see Table 2).

When it comes to which DVs were significant, it was found that there are significant main effects of PFS on affective organizational commitment, $F(1, 240) = 10.84$, $p = .001$, partial η^2 = .043, and job performance, $F(1, 240) = 11.98$, $p = .001$, partial η^2 = .048. The main effect of PFS on positive affect was marginally significant $F(1, 240) = 6.99$, $p = .009$, partial η^2 = .028. Furthermore, findings showed nonsignificant main effects of PFS on job satisfaction, $F(1, 240) = 1.57$, $p = .211$, partial η^2 = .007, and intentions to quit/leave organization, $F(1, 240) = 0.96$, $p = .326$, partial η^2 = .004 (see Table 3). Individuals with higher PFS were more committed to the organization, had

higher job performance and increased positive affect. Additionally, PFS had no effect on job satisfaction and one's intention to quit/leave the organization (see Table 4). Thus, the second hypothesis was partially supported.

Hypothesis 3: CSEs will moderate the relationship of PFS with QWL such that the effects of PFS will be stronger when CSE of the individual is low rather than when it is high.

Findings showed that the Pillai's Trace of the multivariate tests was .067, indicating a significant multivariate interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on the combined DVs after controlling for relationship status, number of children living at home under 18 ears of age, education, and number of direct reports, $F(5, 235) = 3.397$, $p = .006$, partial $\eta^2 = .067$ (see Table 5).

When it comes to which DVs were significant, it was found that there is a significant interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on job performance, $F(1, 239) = 8.30$, $p = .004$, partial $\eta^2 = .034$ (see Table 6). I followed up with a simple slope analysis by running a simple linear regression for PFS at different levels of CSE and I also looked at CSE at different levels of PFS. The different levels of CSE and PFS were created by using a median split. Based on Figure 1, the relationship between PFS and job performance is positive for individuals with high CSEs, and the relationship between PFS and job performance is slightly positive for individuals with low CSEs (see Table 7). When PFS is low, those with higher CSE have high job performance (compared to those with low CSE). When PFS is high, those with higher CSE have higher job performance (compared to those with low CSE). The effects of PFS were stronger for high CSE individuals (see Figure 1). Looking at the simple slope analysis for PFS at different levels of CSE, the slope for the low CSE condition is positive and not significantly different

from 0, $B = .254$, $\beta = .13$, $p = .188$. The slope for the high CSE condition was positive and significantly different from 0, $B = .558$, $\beta = .39$, $p = .000$. Looking at the simple slope analysis for CSE at different levels of PFS, the slope for the low PFS condition was negative and not significantly different from 0, $B = -.020$, $\beta = -01$, $p = .909$. Finally, the slope for the high PFS condition was positive and significantly different from 0, $B = .510$, $\beta = .45$, $p = .000$.

A marginally significant interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on intentions to quit or leave the organization was found, $F(1, 239) = 6.14$, $p = .014$ (see Table 6). To avoid any confusion, it is important to remember that when it comes to IQL, higher values mean more positive attitudes (i.e., less likely to quit). I followed up with a simple slope analysis by running a simple linear regression for PFS at different levels of CSE and I also looked at CSE at different levels of PFS. The different levels of CSE and PFS were created by using a median split. Based on Figure 2, the relationship between PFS and intention to quit is positive for individuals with high CSEs. However, the relationship between PFS and intention to quit is slightly negative for individuals with low CSEs (see Table 7). When it comes to intentions to quit, perceiving more family support is beneficial for individuals with high CSEs, while the opposite holds true for individuals with low CSEs (i.e., perceiving more family support increases their intentions to quit; see Figure 2). Looking at the simple slope analysis for PFS at different levels of CSE, the slope for the low CSE condition is negative and significantly different from 0, $B = -.353$, $\beta = -.21$, $p = .029$. The slope for the high CSE condition was positive and significantly different from 0, $B = .430$, $\beta = .27$, $p = .001$. Looking at the simple slope analysis for CSE at different levels of PFS, the slope for the low PFS condition was positive and not

significantly different from 0, $B = .260$, $\beta = .17$, $p = .098$. Finally, the slope for the high PFS condition was positive and significantly different from 0, $B = .658$, $\beta = .44$, $p = .000$.

There was also a marginally significant interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on affective organizational commitment, $F(1, 239) = 5.48$, $p = .020$, partial $\eta^2 = .022$ (see Table 6). I followed up with a simple slope analysis by running a simple linear regression for PFS at different levels of CSE and I also looked at CSE at different levels of PFS. The different levels of CSE and PFS were created by using a median split. Based on Figure 3, the relationship between PFS and affective organizational commitment is positive for individuals with high CSEs and the relationship between PFS and affective organizational commitment is slightly positive for individuals with low CSEs (see Table 7). When PFS is low, those with higher CSE have higher affective organizational commitment (compared to those with low CSE). When PFS is high, those with higher CSE have higher affective organizational commitment (compared to those with low CSE). The effects of PFS were stronger for high CSE individuals (see Figure 3). However, looking at the simple slope analysis for PFS at different levels of CSE, the slope for the low CSE condition is negative and not significantly different from 0, $B = -.131$, $\beta = -.05$, $p = .552$. The slope for the high CSE condition was positive and significantly different from 0, $B = .933$, $\beta = .42$, $p = .000$. Looking at the simple slope analysis for CSE at different levels of PFS, the slope for the low PFS condition was positive and significantly different from 0, $B = .496$, $\beta = .22$, $p = .012$. Finally, the slope for the high PFS condition was positive and significantly different from 0, $B = .889$, $\beta = .46$, $p = .000$.

There was not a significant interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on job satisfaction, $F(1, 239) = 0.07$, $p = .792$ or positive affect, $F(1, 239) = 1.05$, $p = .306$. Thus, the third hypothesis is partially supported to a certain extent; the inference of PFS depends on CSEs. In other words, CSEs did moderate the relationship of PFS with QWL. However, the effects of PFS were stronger when the CSE of the individual is high rather than when it is low.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The work-family literature has been expanded beyond work-family conflict by acknowledging the positive side of the work-family interface (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). However, research has not yet carefully considered how dispositional and situational factors may interact to enhance QWL. In the present study, the potential moderating role of CSE on the relationship between PFS and QWL was examined.

As predicted, the results showed that CSE is positively related to JS, PA, OC, JP, and IQL. Results also showed that individuals with higher PFS had higher commitment to the organization, had higher job performance, and had increased positive affect. However, PFS had no effect on one's job satisfaction or one's intention to quit/leave the organization. Thus Hypothesis 1 was supported while Hypothesis 2 was partially supported. Finally, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported as findings showed a significant interaction effect of $PFS \times CSE$ on job performance. The relationship between PFS and job performance is positive for individuals with high CSEs and the relationship between PFS and job performance is slightly positive for individuals with low CSEs. Therefore, if PFS is low, those with a higher CSE have higher job performance (compared to those with a low CSE) and when PFS is high, those with a higher CSE have higher job

performance (compared to those with a low CSE). The effects of PFS were stronger for high CSE individuals.

A marginally significant interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on intentions to quit/leave the organization was also found. The relationship between PFS and intention to quit is positive for individuals with a high CSE. However, the relationship between PFS and intention to quit is slightly negative for individuals with a low CSE. Therefore, when it comes to intentions to quit/leave the organization, perceiving more family support is beneficial for individuals with a high CSE, while the opposite holds true for individuals with a low CSE (i.e., perceiving more family support increases their intentions to quit).

Moreover, a marginally significant interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on affective organizational commitment was found. The relationship between PFS and affective organizational commitment is positive for individuals with high CSEs and the relationship between PFS and affective organizational commitment is slightly positive for individuals with low CSEs. When PFS is low, those with higher CSE have higher affective organizational commitment (compared to those with low CSE). When PFS is high, those with higher CSE have higher affective organizational commitment (compared to those with low CSE). Thus, the effects of PFS were stronger for high CSE individuals. Finally, there was not a significant interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on job satisfaction or positive affect.

The findings of Hypothesis 1 are consistent with previous research, such that positively disposed individuals (i.e., high CSEs) experience more positive events in life (Friede & Ryan, 2005) and seek out enriching, rather than depleting, situations. For instance, Judge et al. (2000) showed that those with high CSEs held more complex jobs

(i.e., more challenging and more intrinsically satisfying) and therefore had greater job satisfaction, findings that corroborate with this research. The findings of Hypothesis 2 are not surprising as the family domain may provide support through attitudes and behaviors that are directed towards encouraging the employee and improving the employee's positive affect, which can enable the employee to effectively perform their work role (Erickson, 1993; King et al., 1995; Watson, 2000).

PFS not having an effect on one's job satisfaction or one's intention to quit/leave the organization could be due to other work-related variables at play that were not measured. It is well known that job satisfaction is tied to intentions of quitting/leaving the organization, where a satisfied employee is more likely to stick around whereas a dissatisfied employee will be more likely to leave the organization or at least think about it. Based on the findings of this study, it could be assumed that PFS did not affect JS or IQL because of other external work-related factors such as the job characteristics, which are aspects of the job that generate ideal conditions for high levels of motivation, satisfaction, and performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Although the family domain can offer support to help the employee deal with some of these job characteristics, the effect of the family's support can only help to a certain extent. For instance, when it comes to workload, the family domain can be supportive in the sense of helping the employee out with familial responsibilities so the employee can tend to work responsibilities. On the other hand, the family can't necessarily help with things such as pay, promotional opportunities, or interpersonal relationships at work. To put it simply, certain characteristics of the job itself such as poor pay, poor work conditions, lack of promotions, lack of job security, bad manager

relationships, and bad leadership practices could be the reason for causing decreased satisfaction and essentially increased intentions to quit/leave the organization.

The findings of PFS × CSE on job performance, intentions to quit/leave, and affective organizational commitment show that individuals with a high CSE compensated for having an unsupportive family environment; those high in CSEs reported higher job performance, decreased intentions to quit/leave the organization, and higher affective organizational commitment even in conditions of low PFS. Therefore, the inference of PFS depends on CSEs. In other words, CSEs did moderate the relationship of PFS with job performance, intentions to quit/leave the organization, and affective organizational commitment. However, the effects of PFS were stronger when the CSE of the individual is high rather than when it is low.

It was originally hypothesized that the effects of PFS will be stronger when the CSE of the individual is low rather than when it is high but findings showed the opposite. In that, the effects of PFS were stronger when the CSE of the individual is high rather when it is low. Nonetheless, such findings are consistent with COR theory (Hobfoll, 2002), such that high CSE individuals have the psychological resources that help them face stressful situations, such as managing multiple role memberships. When the environment is unsupportive, results indicate that individuals tend to rely on their own psychological resources to experience higher QWL. Such findings indicate that since individuals with high CSEs "bring a 'positive frame' to the events and situations they encounter" (Judge et al., 1998, p. 31), PFS may not have as much of an influence on their FWE because they have a solid resource reservoir despite a lack of care and concern from their family domain (i.e., they are less sensitive to the changes of resource drain/loss and

thus are able to cope better). Hence, those with positive self-evaluations are better equipped to perceive the benefits that family experiences can bring to work roles.

This study has the potential to address several gaps in the work-family literature. First, this study answers the call for additional research on the positive side of the work-family interface (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002) and considered both individual and situational factors that may promote the quality of work life. Second, this study offers a test of Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) enrichment process, which proposed that certain resources drive the enrichment process. Previous research has demonstrated that CSEs predict job satisfaction, motivation, and career development variables (Judge & Bono, 2001b), and this study found an effect of PFS × CSE on job performance and intention to quit/leave the organization. Family support benefits job performance and intentions to quit/leave the organization especially for individuals with higher CSEs. This may be because individuals with high CSEs have a larger reservoir of psychological resources to draw upon when managing multiple roles.

Several researchers have made calls to incorporate personality in the context of family and work (Eby et al., 2005; Friede & Ryan, 2005; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002), and this study answers those calls by incorporating CSE as a personality trait. Additionally, this study shows the importance of having a supportive family context for some individuals in the enrichment process, which corroborates other research (Marcinkus, Whelan-Berry, & Gordon, 2006). Finally, this study goes beyond examining the separate effects of CSE and PFS on QWL on important organizational outcomes by specifically examining the interactive effects of PFS and CSE on quality of work life, which to my knowledge have not been studied.

Limitations

As with any study, there are limitations that must be acknowledged. First, data were collected from a single source which may have inflated common method bias that can lead to inaccurate estimates of the scale's reliability and convergent validity. This could have caused the constructs to not be measured correctly. Further, collecting data in the same method tends to inflate relations among variables. This could have caused participants to be susceptible to response sets.

One way this could have affected Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 tests results is by increasing Type I error, where a significant main effect of CSE on QWL is found when in reality there is no effect present. In the same sense, findings showed significant main effects of PFS on job performance, organizational commitment, and positive affect. Thus, collecting data in the same method could have affected the hypothesis tests results by also increasing Type I error, where the significant effects found for PFS are not present in reality. Therefore, future researchers should use a variety of different methods to measure the constructs. This will ensure that the constructs are measuring what they are intended to measure and relations among variables are not inflated. Following recent work by Lyness and Judiesh (2008), collecting perceptions of quality of work life from coworkers, managers, friends, and family members would be valuable.

The fact that the variables for this study were all measures at exactly the same time makes the correlational nature of this study a possible limitation. By measuring all the variables at the same time, it is hard to prove that the predictor variables actually caused the DVs. This opens up the issue of reverse causality where the DVs may actually have caused the predictor variables. For instance, it could be possible that having

increased positive affect or job satisfaction could have caused increased CSE or PFS perceptions. It could also be possible that having increased job performance could have caused increased family support perceptions.

Second, more longitudinal work-family research is needed (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007). This would be helpful for understanding perceptions of family support over time. It could be possible that at the time of the study, participants were fighting with/or having issues with family members, thus, at the time of the study participants may have not perceived their family to be very supportive. To put it simply, there are a number of things that could have swayed how participants perceive their current family support. Furthermore, there are other things that can affect one's view of the self. For instance, an individual can partake in counseling/therapy or self-development sessions to help change the individual's mindset. Changing the mindset to a more positive and open one may influence how individuals assess themselves. Thus, future research should explore the effects of individual and environmental factors on quality of work life over different periods of time.

Third, even though the results of this study are based on a diverse sample of employed adults, this sample was comprised of individuals who signed up to participate in Internet-based research. This could have affected the results significantly. Different findings could be found if the sample was non-internet based. The internet-based participants differ from non-internet-based participants in the following ways: the internet-based participant pool could've been more attracted to the study title and they could've been motivated by the compensation provided for their participation when compared with a non-internet-based participant pool. Additionally, participants could

have been more motivated to lie being that this study asked them about how they view themselves and about their family domain, which in my opinion are sensitive topics, thus participants could've answered based on what is "socially acceptable" and not based on reality. There was no social desirability measure included in this study, therefore, motivation to lie could be a possible explanation for our findings.

These specific differences are important because they would sway the participants to respond very differently. For instance, being that an internet sample could be more motivated to complete the study, to lie on their answers, or are just simply attracted to the title of the study could have inflated the findings, leading us to find significant effects when in reality there are none. Therefore, instead of finding significant main effects of CSE on QWL, it is possible that we would have found nonsignificant main effects of CSE on QWL. As such, future studies are needed to test these hypotheses in different samples such as within organizations and should also include a social desirability measure.

Fourth, respondents could have seen no value in taking the survey seriously and they may have rushed through the questions to finish the survey in a short amount of time. This could have caused the results to be non-significant when significant results should have been found. A measure that was taken to ensure only participants taking the study seriously were included is a set time limit. Only participants who took longer than five minutes to complete the study were included in the analysis. Any other participants who finished the study in less than five minutes were excluded. Another similar issue is that participants may not have been truthful when answering the study criteria questions to ensure their payment. A measure that was taken was to follow-up with questions at the

end of the survey that are similar to the criteria questions given in the beginning of the survey. For instance, an inclusion criterion for this study was that participants must have children living with them at home that are under the age of 18. At the end of the survey, participants were asked several demographic questions then follow-up questions regarding the children in their household (e.g., do you have children? How many children are living at home with you under the age of 18?) The use of demographic questions was meant to ensure that participants answers corroborated with their inclusion criteria answers. By ensuring that participants were giving similar answers to their inclusion criteria question answers, I was able to identify dishonest participants. Future studies should follow a similar approach to ensure high quality data from internet samples.

Another limitation is dealing with participants that may have not taken the study seriously, which could have caused the results to be non-significant when significant results should have been found. To reduce this limitation, participants were offered $.50 compensation. Offering compensation to participants allows participants to have an incentive and motivation to answer the questions as truthfully as possible. Finally, this study is focused on married or cohabiting individuals and the support they perceive from different members in their family domain. As such, not much is known about the PFS of young single employees. For instance, roommates or even pets could be a valuable source of support that can be further investigated as they may be important sources of support for some individuals.

Implications and Future Directions

Despite these potential limitations, this study has some important implications for both researchers and practitioners. This study is an important step for developing a

comprehensive model of the work–family interface by examining the interactive effects of personality and the environment. This study demonstrates that CSEs and PFS are independently and conjunctively related to quality of work life. Furthermore, the interactive effect of CSE and PFS on quality of work life is both unique and valuable to the development of an integrative model of the work–family interface.

Another important implication emerges in the form of PFS. Because of these results, organizations that intend to improve enrichment levels of their employees should attempt to build stronger ties with the employees' family members. For example, some organizations invite employees' family members like children, spouse, and parents to participate in family celebration events. Also, awards like 'the best back-up' (normally the spouse) and sending part of employees' annual bonus to their parents (Zhang, Griffeth, & Fried, 2012) are used in other parts of the globe. The same tactics can be utilized by managers and organizations to develop a positive image about the organization's intent towards family support and help balance employees' work and family lives.

Since CSEs are important in increasing an employee's QWL, organizations and managers should work on developing/increasing the CSEs of their employees by consistently offering positive feedback and consistently reminding the employee of their value and importance in the organization. Organizations and managers can also offer self-development courses or tools to help employees change their view on themselves. Being that CSEs are such an important factor in one's QWL, findings ways to increase one's CSE is important for organizations and employees. For example, organizations may wish to offer training to individuals to help them identify stressors in the environment and

locate appropriate coping strategies to deal with such stressors (Friede & Ryan, 2005), especially for individuals with low CSE who may experience greater resource drain.

CSE and PFS do matter. However, for low CSE individuals, PFS does not matter as much as it does for high CSE individuals and this is an important thing for managers to remember. For instance, if an employee has low CSE, trying to increase PFS via building stronger ties with employee's family members may not be as helpful for increasing job performance as increasing the employee's CSE would be. Instead, managers and organizations can concentrate on increasing the employee's CSE, which would be beneficial for increasing job performance. On the other hand, if an employee has high CSE then the best way to increase job performance is by also increasing PFS which can be done by building stronger ties with the employee's family members.

In regard to intentions to quit/leave the organization, CSE and PFS always matter but there are times when they matter more than other times. For instance, someone with high CSE would benefit from having high PFS (i.e., less likely to have IQL) so managers and organizations can help increase PFS via building stronger ties with employee's family members. On the other hand, someone with low CSE would not benefit from increased PFS (i.e., more likely to have IQL). Instead, they would benefit from the managers and organization increasing the employee's CSE and then increasing employee's PFS via building stronger ties with employee's family members. With that being said, managers and organizations should be cognizant of the tactics taken to increase certain work-related aspects such as job performance and to decrease other work-related aspects such as intentions to quit/leave the organization.

Findings of this study showed that PFS didn't affect job satisfaction and this finding could be due to the type of instrument used for job satisfaction. The instrument used for this study was a self-report measure of global/overall job satisfaction. The job satisfaction instrument used for this study did not measure certain aspects of the job itself such as task variety, autonomy, pay, developmental opportunities, feedback, or recognition. If a different job satisfaction instrument was used for this study, findings could have varied drastically. For instance, if the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was used, pinpointing certain aspects of the job itself such as pay or promotional opportunities would allow for deeper insights as to the reasons of job satisfaction. It is highly recommended that future research should use a job satisfaction instrument that measures different facets of job satisfaction. This way, pinpointing the main reasons for decreased satisfaction can be possible.

Future research should examine the different types and sources of support and include other individual and family variables that may interact to predict quality of work life. For example, optimism has been shown to moderate the effects of job demands on psychological strain (Totterdell, Wood, & Wall, 2006), thus it may be a relevant predictor that warrants additional research. Furthermore, examining different types of support can give a more comprehensive view of how certain types of support affect quality of work life. For instance, instrumental support has been said to be more effective that emotional support in helping to avert family interfering with work (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). This is not to say that emotional support has no merit; it may be that family members who provide emotional support also tend to provide instrumental support, rendering it difficult to disentangle the relative benefits of each and masking the unique benefits of emotional

support. Additionally, emotional support has been found to have a relationship with physical well-being, whereas instrumental support did not have a relationship with physical health (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). This could be due to the fact that emotional support provides employees with the resources needed for better physical well-being (e.g., having intimate relationship that are nurturing; Hobfoll, 1989). That being said, it is known that both forms of support, emotional and instrumental, are of potential value. However, future research should examine different types of support in order to better understand how the different types of support affect one's quality of work life.

In the same sense, different sources of support should be further investigated. For instance, is support from a significant other or spouse better than the support from parents? A spouse or significant other may provide support through behaviors and attitudes in relation to helping out with daily household responsibilities such as sharing family-related responsibilities or making special adjustments to suit the spouse's work duties (King et al., 1995). The spouse or significant other may also provide support through attitudes and behaviors that are directed towards encouraging the partner and improving the partner's positive affect and performance (Erickson, 1993; King et al., 1995). In the same sense, parents could provide support by being encouraging and providing empathic understanding and/or by attending to household and child-care related duties (Griggs, Casper, & Eby, 2013). Thus, the support from both sources is somewhat similar and is geared towards helping the employee. Nonetheless, previous researchers have determined that it was particularly important for one's significant other to provide support in the form of care and understanding in order to facilitate FWE (Wayne et al., 2006). This is in line with Greenhaus and Powell's model (2006) in which

spousal support generates resources that have a beneficial effect on an individual's performance in the work domain, thereby facilitating FWE. This is not to say that parental support has no merit; it may be that for some individuals, support from the spouse or significant others has a stronger effect than the support from parents and this would be a direction worth investigating in the future.

It is known that both forms of support, work and family, affect one's work-family enrichment as well as family-work enrichment. However, to get enriched employees that are fully dedicated to their work, it is not enough to only have POS. Ensuring family-related support systems to employees should also be taken seriously by organizations. This in turn would have a significant effect on the employees' QWL. Moreover, future research should explore whether PFS and CSE interact to influence other important, work–related variables such as burnout and justice perceptions. From our results, we know that CSEs are important as individuals with high CSEs have a larger reservoir of psychological resources to draw upon when managing multiple roles and they believe that they are in control of what happens in their life. Thus, those with higher CSE may have positive justice perceptions and would be less likely to experience burnout as they are better able to cope with stressors.

In conclusion, a deeper understanding of the work–family experience will not be fully realized until researchers devote as much energy and attention to enrichment as has been devoted to conflict. This study highlights the interactive nature of dispositional and environmental factors on quality of work life. Individuals with high self-evaluations who feel they have a degree of control over what happens in the life will be more successful at managing family and work roles, even if their family is not especially supportive. Future

research should continue examining individual and environmental factors influencing quality of work life, specifically the interactive effects of such factors.

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Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	*M*	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. PFS	3.6	.63	.96												
2. CSE	3.5	.70	.56**	.87											
3. JS	3.8	.91	.36**	.55**	.80										
4. PA	3.7	.80	.38**	.44**	.55**	.91									
5. OC	4.5	1.3	.42**	.49**	.74**	.49**	.87								
6. JP	5.9	.95	.37**	.38**	.49**	.44**	.45**	.76							
7. IQL	3.3	.94	-.28**	-.43**	-.63**	-.33**	-.74**	-.43**	.79						
8. Relationship Status	.86	.35	.18**	.03	.01	.07	.02	.00	.03						
9. Number of Children living at home under 18	.49	.50	.01	.15*	.16*	.04	.18**	.13*	.16*	.16*					
10. Education	.71	.45	.03	.07	.05	.13*	.00	.12	.04	.14*	.09				
11. Direct Reports	.75	.43	.04	.00	.18**	.20**	.23**	.07	.15*	.04	.04	.09			
12. Age	.59	.49	.01	.02	.05	.11	.05	.07	.09	.03	.10	.012	.16*		
13. Sex	.47	.50	.03	.05	.50	.06	.06	.03	.02	.02	.07	.04	.05	.04	
14. Ethnicity	.71	.46	.12	.05	.08	.10	.09	.08	.02	.05	.09	.19**	.08	.09	.07

Note. PFS stands for perceived family support. CSE stands for core self evaluation, JS stands for job satisfaction, PA stands for positive affect, OC stands for affective organizational commitment, JP stands for job performance, and IQL stands for intentions to quit/leave organization. Relationship Status was coded as 0=Cohabiting, 1=Married. Number of Children living at home under 18 was coded as 0=1 child, 1=More than 1 child. Education was coded as 0=Did not finish college, 1=Finished college. Direct reports was coded as 0=No direct reports, 1= More than 1 direct reports.

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

Table 2

Multivariate Effects of PFS and CSE

Effect		*Value*	*F*	*Hyp. df*	*Error df*	*p*	*Partial η^2*	*Noncent. Parameter*	*Obs Power*
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.311	21.261	5	236	.000	.311	106.307	1.00
	Wilks' Lambda	.689	21.261	5	236	.000	.311	106.307	1.00
	Hotelling's Trace	.450	21.261	5	236	.000	.311	106.307	1.00
	Roy's Largest Root	.450	21.261	5	236	.000	.311	106.307	1.00
Relationship Status	Pillai's Trace	.008	.380	5	236	.862	.008	1.898	.148
	Wilks' Lambda	.992	.380	5	236	.862	.008	1.898	.148
	Hotelling's Trace	.008	.380	5	236	.862	.008	1.898	.148
	Roy's Largest Root	.008	.380	5	236	.862	.008	1.898	.148
Children Living Home Under 18	Pillai's Trace	.028	1.347	5	236	.246	.028	6.733	.472
	Wilks' Lambda	.972	1.347	5	236	.246	.028	6.733	.472
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	1.347	5	236	.246	.028	6.733	.472
	Roy's Largest Root	.029	1.347	5	236	.246	.028	6.733	.472
Education	Pillai's Trace	.041	2.019	5	236	.077	.041	10.096	.670
	Wilks' Lambda	.959	2.019	5	236	.077	.041	10.096	.670
	Hotelling's Trace	.043	2.019	5	236	.077	.041	10.096	.670
	Roy's Largest Root	.043	2.019	5	236	.077	.041	10.096	.670
Direct Reports	Pillai's Trace	.088	4.526	5	236	.001	.088	22.632	.970
	Wilks' Lambda	.912	4.526	5	236	.001	.088	22.632	.970
	Hotelling's Trace	.096	4.526	5	236	.001	.088	22.632	.970
	Roy's Largest Root	.096	4.526	5	236	.001	.088	22.632	.970
PFS	Pillai's Trace	.097	5.074	5	236	.000	.097	25.371	.984
	Wilks' Lambda	.903	5.074	5	236	.000	.097	25.371	.984
	Hotelling's Trace	.108	5.074	5	236	.000	.097	25.371	.984
	Roy's Largest Root	.108	5.074	5	236	.000	.097	25.371	.984
CSE	Pillai's Trace	.221	13.420	5	236	.000	.221	67.100	1.00
	Wilks' Lambda	.779	13.420	5	236	.000	.221	67.100	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.284	13.420	5	236	.000	.221	67.100	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.284	13.420	5	236	.000	.221	67.100	1.000

a. Design: Intercept + Relationship Status + Children Living Home Under 18 + Education + Direct Reports + PFS + CSE

b. Exact statistic

c. Computed using alpha = .05

Note. PFS stands for perceived family support, CSE stands for core self evaluation, JS stands for job satisfaction, PA stands for positive affect, OC stands for affective organizational commitment, JP stands for job performance, IQL stands for intentions to quit/leave organization.

Table 3.

Main effects of PFS and CSE on quality of work life

Source	DV	Type III SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial η^2	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[f]
Corrected Model	JS	[illegible][a]	7	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]	1.00
	PA	[illegible][b]	7	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]	1.00
	OC	[illegible][c]	7	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]	1.00
	JP	[illegible][d]	7	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]	1.00
	IQL	[illegible][e]	7	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]	1.00
Intercept	JS	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	PA	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	OC	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	JP	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	.103	[illegible]	[illegible]
	IQL	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Relationship Status	JS	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]
	PA	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	.001	[illegible]	[illegible]
	OC	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	.001	[illegible]	[illegible]
	JP	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	.001	[illegible]	[illegible]
	IQL	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Children Living at Home Under 18	JS	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	PA	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	.001	[illegible]	[illegible]
	OC	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	JP	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	IQL	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Education	JS	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]
	PA	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	OC	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	JP	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.151	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	IQL	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Direct Reports	JS	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.001	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	PA	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.001	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	OC	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	JP	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	IQL	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Perceived Family Support	JS	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	PA	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	OC	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.001	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	JP	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.001	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	IQL	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Core self-evaluation	JS	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]	1.000
	PA	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	OC	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	.115	[illegible]	1.000
	JP	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.001	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
	IQL	[illegible]	1	[illegible]	[illegible]	.000	.118	[illegible]	1.000
Error	JS	[illegible]	340	[illegible]					
	PA	[illegible]	340	[illegible]					
	OC	[illegible]	340	[illegible]					
	JP	[illegible]	340	[illegible]					
	IQL	[illegible]	340	[illegible]					
Total	JS	[illegible]	347						
	PA	[illegible]	347						
	OC	[illegible]	347						
	JP	[illegible]	347						
	IQL	[illegible]	347						
Corrected Total	JS	[illegible]	346						
	PA	[illegible]	346						
	OC	[illegible]	346						
	JP	[illegible]	346						
	IQL	[illegible]	346						

a. R Squared = .343 (Adjusted R Squared = .327). b. R Squared = .267 (Adjusted R Squared = .248). c. R Squared = .336 (Adjusted R Squared = .319). d. R Squared = .205 (Adjusted R Squared = .185). e. R Squared = .230 (Adjusted R Squared = .210). f. Computed using alpha = .05.
Note. PFS stands for perceived family support, CSE stands for core self-evaluation, JS stands for job satisfaction, PA stands for positive affect, OC stands for affective organizational commitment, JP stands for job performance, IQL stands for intentions to quit/leave organization.

Table 4.

Parameter Estimates

Variable	Parameter	B	SE	t	p	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound	Partial η^2	Noncen. Param.	Obs. Power
JS	Intercept	1.301	.307	4.239	.000	.697	1.906	.070	4.239	.988
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	-.094	.144	-.657	.512	-.377	.188	.002	.657	.100
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	-.139	.098	-1.426	.155	-.332	.053	.008	1.426	.295
	Education [Did not finish college]	.027	.107	.250	.803	-.184	.237	.000	.250	.067
	Direct Reports [None]	-.360	.110	-3.263	.001	-.578	-.143	.042	3.263	.901
	PFS	.118	.094	1.255	.211	-.067	.302	.007	1.255	.239
	CSE	.642	.083	7.718	.000	.478	.806	.199	7.718	1.000
PA	Intercept	1.640	.287	5.719	.000	1.075	2.205	.120	5.719	1.000
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	.065	.134	.488	.626	-.199	.330	.001	.488	.077
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	.038	.091	.420	.675	-.142	.218	.001	.420	.070
	Education [Did not finish college]	-.172	.100	-1.724	.086	-.369	.025	.012	1.724	.404
	Direct Reports [None]	-.335	.103	-3.252	.001	-.538	-.132	.042	3.252	.900
	PFS	.232	.088	2.645	.009	.059	.404	.028	2.645	.750
	CSE	.385	.078	4.954	.000	.232	.538	.093	4.954	.999
OC	Intercept	.760	.450	1.687	.093	-.127	1.647	.012	1.687	.390
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	-.126	.211	-.596	.552	-.540	.289	.001	.596	.091
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	-.300	.144	-2.088	.038	-.582	-.017	.018	2.088	.547
	Education [Did not finish college]	.196	.157	1.248	.213	-.113	.504	.006	1.248	.237
	Direct Reports [None]	-.682	.162	-4.215	.000	-1.001	-.363	.069	4.215	.987
	PFS	.453	.138	3.292	.001	.182	.724	.043	3.292	.906
	CSE	.680	.122	5.571	.000	.439	.920	.115	5.571	1.000
JP	Intercept	3.659	.351	10.435	.000	2.968	4.350	.312	10.435	1.000
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	-.089	.164	-.545	.586	-.412	.234	.001	.545	.084
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	-.155	.112	-1.383	.168	-.375	.066	.008	1.383	.280
	Education [Did not finish college]	-.176	.122	-1.440	.151	-.416	.065	.009	1.440	.300
	Direct Reports [None]	-.113	.126	-.895	.372	-.361	.136	.003	.895	.145
	PFS	.371	.107	3.461	.001	.160	.582	.048	3.461	.931
	CSE	.311	.095	3.274	.001	.124	.498	.043	3.274	.903
IQL	Intercept	1.225	.344	3.557	.000	.546	1.903	.050	3.557	.943
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	-.175	.161	-1.084	.279	-.492	.143	.005	1.084	.191
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	-.179	.110	-1.631	.104	-.395	.037	.011	1.631	.369
	Education [Did not finish college]	.207	.120	1.724	.086	-.029	.443	.012	1.724	.404
	Direct Reports [None]	-.340	.124	-2.744	.007	-.584	-.096	.030	2.744	.780
	PFS	.104	.105	.984	.326	-.104	.311	.004	.984	.165
	CSE	.517	.093	5.543	.000	.333	.701	.113	5.543	1.000

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant. b. Computed using alpha = .05.

Note. PFS stands for perceived family support, CSE stands for core self-evaluation, JS stands for job satisfaction, PA stands for positive affect, OC stands for affective organizational commitment, JP stands for job performance, IQL stands for intentions to quit/leave organization. Relationship Status was coded as 0=cohabiting and 1=married, Number of Children living at home under 18 was coded as 0=1 child and 1=more than 1 child, Education was coded as 0=did not finish college and 1= finished college, Direct reports was coded as 0= no direct reports and 1= more than 1 direct reports.

Table 5.

Multivariate Effects

Effect		Value	F	Hyp. df	Error df	p	Partial η^2	Noncent. Parameter	Obs. Power
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.128	6.902[b]	5	235	.000	.128	34.511	.998
	Wilks' Lambda	.872	6.902[b]	5	235	.000	.128	34.511	.998
	Hotelling's Trace	.147	6.902[b]	5	235	.000	.128	34.511	.998
	Roy's Largest Root	.147	6.902[b]	5	235	.000	.128	34.511	.998
Direct Reports	Pillai's Trace	.093	4.838[b]	5	235	.000	.093	24.192	.979
	Wilks' Lambda	.907	4.838[b]	5	235	.000	.093	24.192	.979
	Hotelling's Trace	.103	4.838[b]	5	235	.000	.093	24.192	.979
	Roy's Largest Root	.103	4.838[b]	5	235	.000	.093	24.192	.979
Children Living Home	Pillai's Trace	.028	1.355[b]	5	235	.242	.028	6.773	.475
Under 18	Wilks' Lambda	.972	1.355[b]	5	235	.242	.028	6.773	.475
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	1.355[b]	5	235	.242	.028	6.773	.475
	Roy's Largest Root	.029	1.355[b]	5	235	.242	.028	6.773	.475
Education	Pillai's Trace	.041	2.035[b]	5	235	.075	.041	10.174	.674
	Wilks' Lambda	.959	2.035[b]	5	235	.075	.041	10.174	.674
	Hotelling's Trace	.043	2.035[b]	5	235	.075	.041	10.174	.674
	Roy's Largest Root	.043	2.035[b]	5	235	.075	.041	10.174	.674
Relationship Status	Pillai's Trace	.009	.406[b]	5	235	.845	.009	2.028	.156
	Wilks' Lambda	.991	.406[b]	5	235	.845	.009	2.028	.156
	Hotelling's Trace	.009	.406[b]	5	235	.845	.009	2.028	.156
	Roy's Largest Root	.009	.406[b]	5	235	.845	.009	2.028	.156
PFS	Pillai's Trace	.038	1.841[b]	5	235	.106	.038	9.205	.623
	Wilks' Lambda	.962	1.841[b]	5	235	.106	.038	9.205	.623
	Hotelling's Trace	.039	1.841[b]	5	235	.106	.038	9.205	.623
	Roy's Largest Root	.039	1.841[b]	5	235	.106	.038	9.205	.623
CSE	Pillai's Trace	.062	3.081[b]	5	235	.010	.062	15.403	.868
	Wilks' Lambda	.938	3.081[b]	5	235	.010	.062	15.403	.868
	Hotelling's Trace	.066	3.081[b]	5	235	.010	.062	15.403	.868
	Roy's Largest Root	.066	3.081[b]	5	235	.010	.062	15.403	.868
PFS * CSE	Pillai's Trace	.067	3.397[b]	5	235	.006	.067	16.984	.902
	Wilks' Lambda	.933	3.397[b]	5	235	.006	.067	16.984	.902
	Hotelling's Trace	.072	3.397[b]	5	235	.006	.067	16.984	.902
	Roy's Largest Root	.072	3.397[b]	5	235	.006	.067	16.984	.902

a. Design: Intercept + Direct Reports + Children Living Home Under 18 + Education + Relationship Status + PFS + CSE + PFS * CSE b. Exact statistic, c. Computed using alpha = .05. Note. PFS stands for perceived family support, CSE stands for core self-evaluation, JS stands for job satisfaction, PA stands for positive affect, OC stands for affective organizational commitment, JP stands for job performance, IQL stands for intentions to quit/leave organization.

Table 6.

Interaction effect of PFS × CSE on quality of work life

Source	DV	Type III SS	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	Partial η^2	Noncent. Parameter	Obs. Power
Corrected Model	JS	69.980[a]	7	9.999	17.868	.000	.344	125.076	1.000
	PA	42.949[b]	7	6.136	12.615	.000	.270	88.302	1.000
	OC	152.008[c]	7	21.715	18.437	.000	.351	129.057	1.000
	JP	50.975[d]	7	7.282	10.315	.000	.232	72.204	1.000
	IQL	54.365[e]	7	7.766	11.310	.000	.249	79.169	1.000
Intercept	JS	.646	1	.646	1.154	.284	.005	1.154	.188
	PA	2.427	1	2.427	4.989	.026	.020	4.989	.604
	OC	6.992	1	6.992	5.937	.016	.024	5.937	.680
	JP	19.241	1	19.241	27.254	.000	.102	27.254	.999
	IQL	6.657	1	6.657	9.693	.002	.039	9.693	.873
Direct Reports	JS	5.973	1	5.973	10.673	.001	.043	10.673	.902
	PA	5.384	1	5.384	11.070	.001	.044	11.070	.912
	OC	23.182	1	23.182	19.682	.000	.076	19.682	.993
	JP	.932	1	.932	1.319	.252	.005	1.319	.208
	IQL	6.067	1	6.067	8.834	.003	.036	8.834	.841
Children Living at Home Under 18	JS	1.130	1	1.130	2.018	.157	.008	2.018	.293
	PA	.089	1	.089	.183	.669	.001	.183	.071
	OC	5.135	1	5.135	4.360	.038	.018	4.360	.548
	JP	1.345	1	1.345	1.906	.169	.008	1.906	.280
	IQL	1.821	1	1.821	2.651	.105	.011	2.651	.368
Education	JS	.023	1	.023	.041	.839	.000	.041	.055
	PA	1.696	1	1.696	3.486	.063	.014	3.486	.460
	OC	.877	1	.877	.745	.389	.003	.745	.138
	JP	2.573	1	2.573	3.645	.057	.015	3.645	.477
	IQL	1.192	1	1.192	1.736	.189	.007	1.736	.259
Relationship Status	JS	.245	1	.245	.438	.509	.002	.438	.101
	PA	.105	1	.105	.216	.643	.001	.216	.075
	OC	.506	1	.506	.430	.513	.002	.430	.100
	JP	.271	1	.271	.384	.536	.002	.384	.095
	IQL	.913	1	.913	1.329	.250	.006	1.329	.209
Perceived Family Support	JS	.004	1	.004	.007	.933	.000	.007	.051
	PA	.037	1	.037	.075	.784	.000	.075	.059
	OC	2.177	1	2.177	1.848	.175	.008	1.848	.273
	JP	2.360	1	2.360	3.342	.069	.014	3.342	.445
	IQL	3.084	1	3.084	4.492	.035	.018	4.492	.560
Core self-evaluation	JS	1.319	1	1.319	2.356	.126	.010	2.356	.333
	PA	.012	1	.012	.024	.877	.000	.024	.053
	OC	1.109	1	1.109	.941	.333	.004	.941	.162
	JP	2.910	1	2.910	4.122	.043	.017	4.122	.525
	IQL	.844	1	.844	1.229	.269	.005	1.229	.197
PFS * CSE	JS	.039	1	.039	.070	.792	.000	.070	.058
	PA	.511	1	.511	1.051	.306	.004	1.051	.175
	OC	6.462	1	6.462	5.486	.020	.022	5.486	.645
	JP	5.865	1	5.865	8.307	.004	.034	8.307	.819
	IQL	4.221	1	4.221	6.148	.014	.025	6.148	.695
Error	JS	133.743	239	.560					
	PA	116.247	239	.486					
	OC	281.502	239	1.178					
	JP	168.731	239	.706					
	IQL	164.121	239	.687					
Total	JS	3754.472	247						
	PA	3541.366	247						
	OC	5333.833	247						
	JP	8788.694	247						
	IQL	2835.556	247						
Corrected Total	JS	203.734	246						
	PA	159.196	246						
	OC	433.510	246						
	JP	219.706	246						
	IQL	218.487	246						

a. R Squared = .344 (Adjusted R Squared = .324). b. R Squared = .270 (Adjusted R Squared = .248). c. R Squared = .351 (Adjusted R Squared = .332). d. R Squared = .232 (Adjusted R Squared = .210). e. R Squared = .249 (Adjusted R Squared = .227). f. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 7.

Parameter Estimates

Variable	Parameter	B	SE	t	p	95% CI Lower Bound	95% CI Upper Bound	Partial η^2	Noncen. Param	Obs. Power
JS	Intercept	1.623	1.257	1.291	.198	-.853	4.099	.007	1.291	.251
	Direct Reports [None]	-.363	.111	-3.267	.001	-.581	-.144	.043	3.267	.902
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	-.139	.098	-1.421	.157	-.332	.054	.008	1.421	.293
	Education [Did not finish college]	.022	.108	.203	.839	-.192	.236	.000	.203	.055
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	-.095	.144	-.662	.509	-.379	.188	.002	.662	.101
	PFS	.029	.348	.084	.933	-.657	.716	.000	.084	.051
	CSE	.550	.358	1.535	.126	-.156	1.256	.010	1.535	.333
	PFS * CSE	.025	.095	.264	.792	-.162	.211	.000	.264	.058
PA	Intercept	2.805	1.172	2.394	.017	.497	5.113	.023	2.394	.664
	Direct Reports [None]	-.344	.103	-3.327	.001	-.548	-.140	.044	3.327	.912
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	.039	.091	.428	.669	-.141	.219	.001	.428	.071
	Education [Did not finish college]	-.189	.101	-1.867	.063	-.388	.010	.014	1.867	.460
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	.062	.134	.464	.643	-.202	.326	.001	.464	.075
	PFS	-.089	.325	-.274	.784	-.729	.551	.000	.274	.059
	CSE	.052	.334	.155	.877	-.606	.710	.000	.155	.053
	PFS * CSE	.091	.088	1.025	.306	-.083	.264	.004	1.025	.175
OC	Intercept	4.901	1.823	2.688	.008	1.309	8.493	.029	2.688	.763
	Direct Reports [None]	-.714	.161	-4.436	.000	-1.031	-.397	.076	4.436	.993
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	-.297	.142	-2.088	.038	-.577	-.017	.018	2.088	.548
	Education [Did not finish college]	.136	.157	.863	.389	-.174	.446	.003	.863	.138
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	-.137	.209	-.656	.513	-.548	.274	.002	.656	.100
	PFS	-.687	.506	-1.359	.175	-1.683	.309	.008	1.359	.273
	CSE	-.504	.520	-.970	.333	-1.528	.520	.004	.970	.162
	PFS * CSE	.322	.137	2.342	.020	.051	.592	.022	2.342	.645
JP	Intercept	7.604	1.412	5.387	.000	4.823	10.385	.108	5.387	1.000
	Direct Reports [None]	-.143	.125	-1.149	.252	-.389	.102	.005	1.149	.208
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	-.152	.110	-1.381	.169	-.369	.065	.008	1.381	.280
	Education [Did not finish college]	-.233	.122	-1.909	.057	-.473	.007	.015	1.909	.477
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	-.100	.162	-.620	.536	-.418	.218	.002	.620	.095
	PFS	-.716	.391	-1.828	.069	-1.487	.055	.014	1.828	.445
	CSE	-.817	.402	-2.030	.043	-1.610	-.024	.017	2.030	.525
	PFS * CSE	.306	.106	2.882	.004	.097	.516	.034	2.882	.819
IQL	Intercept	4.572	1.392	3.284	.001	1.829	7.314	.043	3.284	.905
	Direct Reports [None]	-.365	.123	-2.972	.003	-.608	-.123	.036	2.972	.841
	Children Living at Home Under 18 [1 child]	-.177	.109	-1.628	.105	-.391	.037	.011	1.628	.368
	Education [Did not finish college]	.158	.120	1.318	.189	-.078	.395	.007	1.318	.259
	Relationship Status [Cohabiting]	-.184	.159	-1.153	.250	-.498	.130	.006	1.153	.209
	PFS	-.818	.386	-2.119	.035	-1.579	-.058	.018	2.119	.560
	CSE	-.440	.397	-1.108	.269	-1.222	.342	.005	1.108	.197
	PFS * CSE	.260	.105	2.479	.014	.053	.467	.025	2.479	.695

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant. b. Computed using alpha = .05. a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant. b. Computed using alpha = .05.

Note. PFS stands for perceived family support, CSE stands for core self-evaluation, JS stands for job satisfaction, PA stands for positive affect, OC stands for affective organizational commitment, JP stands for job performance, IQL stands for intentions to quit/leave organization. Relationship Status was coded as 0=cohabiting and 1=married, Number of Children living at home under 18 was coded as 0=1 child and 1=more than 1 child, Education was coded as 0=did not finish college and 1= finished college, Direct reports was coded as 0= no direct reports and 1= more than 1 direct reports.

Appendix B

Figures

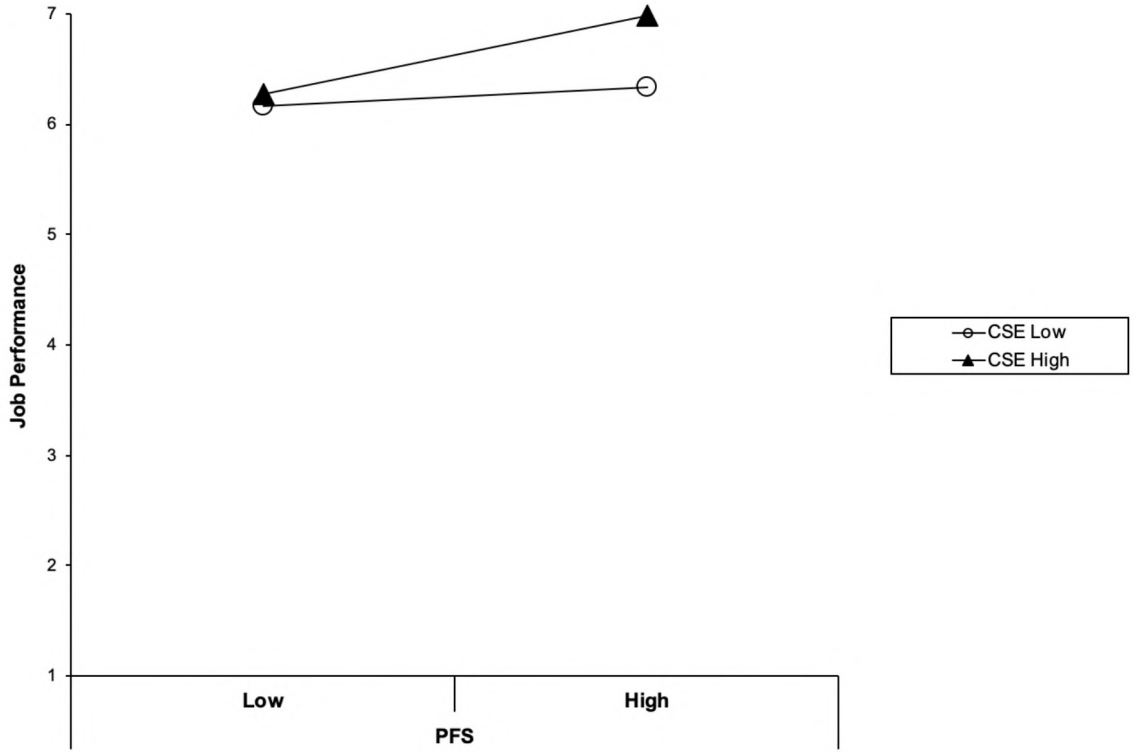

Figure 1. Interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on job performance.

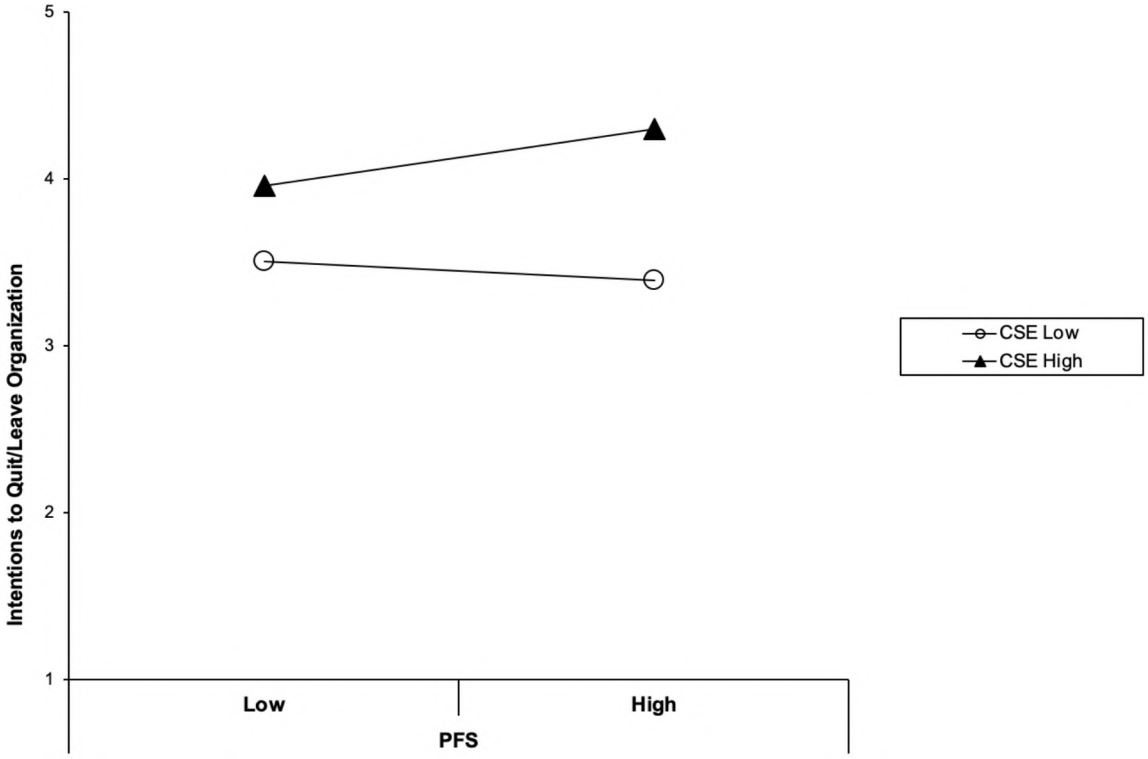

Figure 2. Interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on intentions to quit/leave the organization.

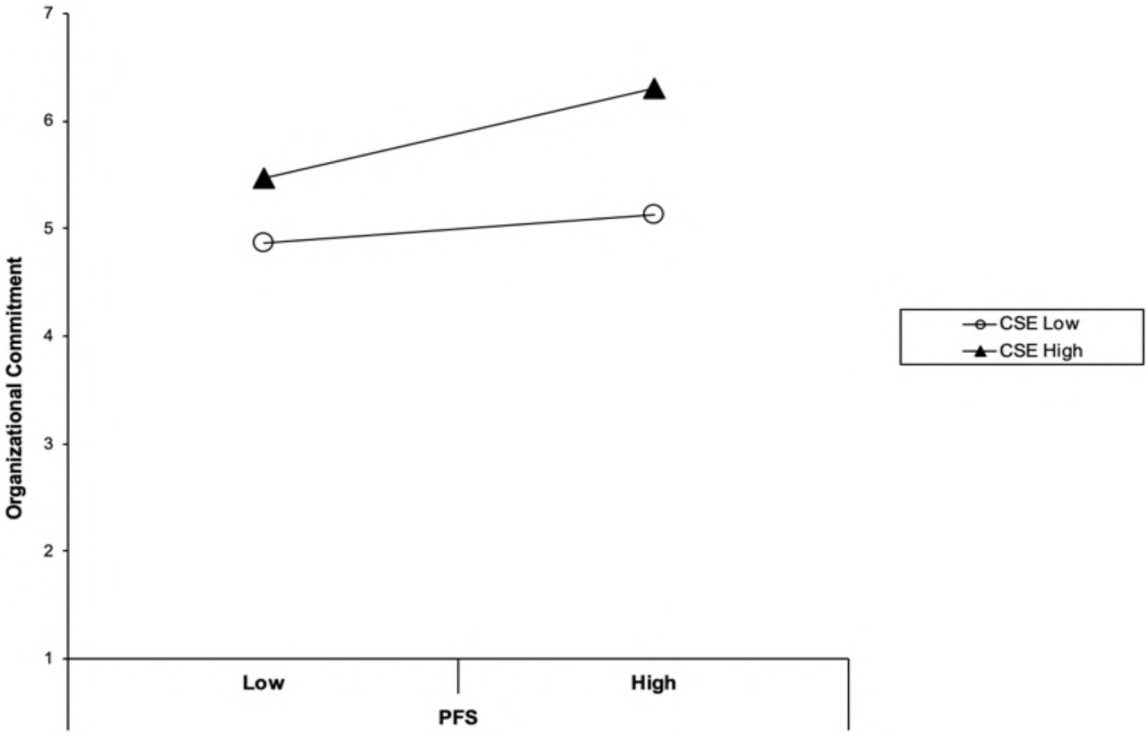

Figure 3. Interaction effect of *PFS* × *CSE* on affective organizational commitment

Appendix C

Eligibility Criteria

1) Are you a US citizen living in the US?

☐ Yes ☐ No

2) Are you at least 18 years old?

☐ Yes ☐ No

3) Are you employed full-time in a steady non-Mechanical Turk position from a single employer that involves at least thirty-five hours per week?

☐ Yes ☐ No

4) Are you married or cohabitating?

☐ Yes ☐ No

5) Do you have children living at home with you that are under the age of 18?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Demographics

1) What is your age?

☐ 18-25
☐ 26-35
☐ 36-45
☐ 46-55
☐ 56-69
☐ 70+

2) What is your sex?

☐ Female
☐ Male
☐ Other

3) Ethnicity (choose more than one, if applicable):

☐ African American/Black
☐ American Indian
☐ Asian American
☐ Latina/Hispanic
☐ Caucasian/White
☐ Middle Easter/Arab American
☐ Other (please specify):_____

4) What is your relationship status?

- ☐ Single
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Separated
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Widowed
- ☐ Cohabiting with romantic partner

5) Do you have children?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

6) If you answered yes to the previous question, how many children do you have?

7) How many children living at home with you under the age of 18?

8) How many other dependents living at your home (e.g. elder parents)?

9) Is your household a dual-earner household or a single-earner household?
Dual-earner household means that BOTH adults work full-time in a non-Mechanical Turk position with a single employer that involves at least 35 hours of work per week.
Single-earner household means that only ONE adult works full-time in a non-Mechanical Turk position with a single employer that involves at least 35 hours of work per week.

- ☐ Dual-earner household
- ☐ Single-earner household

10) How many years of education have you completed?
(e.g., if completed through 5th grade, enter 5; if completed through high school, enter 12; if completed through college, enter 16; and so on)

11) Are you employed part-time or full-time?
Part-time means you work part-time in a non-Mechanical Turk position with a single employer that involves at least 10 hours of work per week.
Full-time means you work full-time in a non-Mechanical Turk position with a single employer that involves at least 35 hours of work per week

- ☐ Part-time
- ☐ Full-time

12) The approximate number of hours spent in paid employment, per week:

13) The approximate number of hours your spouse/significant other spends in paid employment, per week:

14) How many people directly report to you at work?

- ☐ 0
- ☐ 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ 7
- ☐ 8
- ☐ 9
- ☐ 10+

15) Check the category that includes your immediate family's total, combined annual income:

- ☐ Under $10,000
- ☐ 10,001 - $20,000
- ☐ 20,001 - $30,000
- ☐ 30,001 - $40,000
- ☐ 40,001 - $50,000
- ☐ 50,001 - $60,000
- ☐ 60,001 - $80,000
- ☐ 80,001 - $100,000
- ☐ Over $100,001

FAMILY SUPPORTIVE INVENTORY FOR WORKERS

Instructions: Please indicate your degree of agreement with the following items using the scale provided.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. When I succeed at work, members of my family show that they are proud of me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. My family members burden me with things that they should be able to handle on their own.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. My family members do not seem very interested in hearing about my workday.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. When something at work is bothering me, members of my family show that they understand how I'm feeling.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. Members of my family cooperate with me to get things done around the house.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. When I talk with them about my work, my family members don't really listen.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. Someone in my family asks me regularly about my workday.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. If I had to go out of town for my job, my family would have a hard time managing household responsibilities.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. As long as I'm making money, it doesn't really matter to members of my family what job I have.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. It seems as if my family members are always demanding me to do something for them.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. I feel better after discussing job-related problems with a family member.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. My family members do their fair share of household chores.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. When I have a tough day at work, family members try to cheer me up.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. Members of my family are interested in my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. I have difficulty discussing work-related activities with members of my family.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. When I am frustrated by my work, someone in my family tries to understand.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. Members of my family are willing to straighten up the house when it needs it.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

18. Members of my family always seem to make time for me if I need to discuss my work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. I wish members of my family would care more about what I do at work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. Members of my family often provide a different way of looking at my work-related problems.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. My family leaves too much of the daily details of running the house to me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. Members of my family don't want to listen to my work-related problems.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
23. Members of my family seem bored when I talk about my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
24. Someone in my family helps me out by running errands when necessary.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
25. Members of my family have little respect for my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
26. Members of my family are happy for me when I am successful at work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
27. Someone in my family helps me feel better when I'm upset about my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
28. If my job gets very demanding, someone in my family will take on extra household responsibilities.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
29. I usually find it useful to discuss my work problems with family members.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
30. Members of my family want me to enjoy my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
31. My family members give me too much responsibility for household repairs and maintenance.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
32. Members of my family enjoy hearing about my achievements at work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
33. I can depend on members of my family to help me out when I'm running late for work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
34. My family members have a positive attitude toward my work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
35. When I have a problem at work, my family members seem to blame me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
36. Members of my family help me with routine household tasks.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
37. When I have a problem at work, members of my family express concern.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

38. I look to family members for reassurance about my job when I need it.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
39. If I have to work late, I can count on someone in my family to take care of everything at home.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
40. I feel comfortable asking members of my family for advice about a problem situation at work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
41. My family members are sympathetic when I'm upset about my work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
42. Too much of my time at home is spent picking up after my family members.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
43. When I'm having a difficult week at my job, my family members try to do more of the work around the house.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
44. If I have a problem at work, I usually share it with my family members.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

CORE SELF EVALUATIONS

Instructions: Please indicate your degree of agreement with the following items using the scale provided.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. Sometimes I feel depressed. *	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. When I try, I generally succeed.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. Sometimes when I fail, I feel worthless. *	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. I complete tasks successfully.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work. *	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. Overall, I am satisfied with myself.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. I am filled with doubts about my competence. *	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. I determine what will happen in my life.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. I do not feel in control of my success in my career. *	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. I am capable of coping with most of my problems.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. *	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

JOB SATISFACTION

Instructions: Please indicate your degree of agreement with the following items using the scale provided.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. In general, I don't like my job. *	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. In general, I like working here.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

POSITIVE AFFECT

Instructions: This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Please indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past FEW DAYS using the scale provided.

	Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
1. Interested	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. Excited	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. Strong	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. Enthusiastic	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. Proud	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. Alert	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. Inspired	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. Determined	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. Attentive	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. Active	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Instructions: Please indicate your degree of agreement with the following items using the scale provided.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. •	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. •	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. •	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. •	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

JOB PERFORMANCE

Instructions: Please indicate your degree of agreement with the following items using the scale provided.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am a strong performer on the job.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. I am an excellent employee.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. I will have a long successful career at my organization.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

INTENTION TO LEAVE/QUIT

Instructions: Please indicate your degree of agreement with the following items using the scale presented below.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I would prefer another more ideal job than the one I now work in. *	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. I have seriously thought about changing organizations since I began to work here. *	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. I intend to stay with this organization for a long time.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. If I have my own way, I will be working for this organization three years from now.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)