Leadership's Influence on Nonwork Outcomes: The Mediating Role of Work-Family
Climate

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By

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Jim M. Heinen, Jr, who provides me with love and support, which allow me to succeed personally and professionally.

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ABSTRACT

LEADERSHIP'S INFLUENCE ON NONWORK OUTCOMES: THE MEDIATING
ROLE OF WORK-FAMILY CLIMATE

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This dissertation examines how specific leadership behaviors differentially relate to

nonwork outcomes. In particular, this paper examines the relationship between behaviors

espoused in transformational leadership theory and perceptions of work-family climate as

well as the mediating effect of work-family climate between these leadership behaviors

and work interfering with family conflict. Data were collected via online survey from 320

employees from a large mid-Atlantic consulting firm. Results suggest that certain

transformational leader behaviors (e.g., high performance expectations) are negatively

related to employee perceptions of a family-supportive work-family climate, while other

transformational leader behaviors (e.g., intellectual stimulation, considerate leader

behaviors) positively relate to perceptions of work-family climate. High performance

expectations were found to have a negative nonlinear relationship with perceptions of a

family-supportive work-family climate, while serving as a role model of work-family

balance was found to have a positive nonlinear relationship with perceptions of a

supportive work-family climate. Lastly, all leader behaviors were found to indirectly

relate to levels of work interfering with family conflict through their influence on work-

family climate.

INTRODUCTION

Societal developments have escalated the obligation and benefit for organizations

to focus attention on an employee's life outside work. Leaders are the main

organizational agent that allow for flexible accommodations, aiding in employees'

abilities to cope with work and family demands, though this connection has not

thoroughly been examined in the Industrial-Organizational Psychology or Organizational

Behavior literature (Harrison, Jones, & Cleveland, 2007; Youngcourt, Huffman, &

Alden-Anderson, 2008). Work-family research has come close by examining the

relationship between supervisor support and work-family outcomes, but the work-family

literature is vague and incomplete in examining the contribution of leadership on the

nonwork domain. Very little research has examined the link between specific processes,

behaviors, or theories of leadership and nonwork criteria. Because of the fundamental

link between an employee's work and family life (Frone, 2003), it is essential for

leadership research to move beyond traditional organizational outcome-based studies into

research that examines leadership's influence on nonwork variables. Thus, this

dissertation examines the work-nonwork dynamics of leadership. I propose that behaviors

described by transformational leadership theory create countervailing expectations for

work and family. Specifically, this paper examines the relationship between

inspirational/work empowering behaviors and considerate behaviors and perceptions of

work-family climate as well as the mediating effect of work-family climate between these leadership behaviors and nonwork outcomes (see Figure B1). The purpose of this paper is to examine how specific transformational leadership behaviors differentially relate to nonwork outcomes.

Over the past three decades, there has been an increase of women in the workplace (Clark, 2001; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Hegtvedt, Clay-Warner, & Ferrigno, 2002; Jalilvand, 2000; Lee & Duxbury, 1998; Stebbins, 2001; U.S. Census Bureau, 2006), which has occurred, in part, due to the rise in dual-earner couples and single-parent families (Jacobs & Gerson, 1998). These demographic changes have significantly increased employee's nonwork responsibilities. The traditional woman from years ago who cooked, cleaned, and cared for the children is no longer solely responsible for these tasks. Most women have moved into the workplace, leaving all employees—men and women—responsible for family-related duties. Employees are demanding more flexible schedules and other accommodations to help them balance their work and family duties (Marston, 2005; Offerman & Gowing, 1990).

Simultaneous to these societal developments, work pressures are also increasing for employees. We live in 24/7 economy, which places increased forces on employees to be more productive at a quicker rate. Schor (2003) reported that the average American employee worked almost 200 more hours in the year 2000 than the average American worker in 1980. There are a number of workplace trends that have made work, especially managerial and professional work, more complex. First, communication technologies, including voice mail, fax, e-mail, and cell phones, have increased the methods available

for communication between people. This makes employees constantly available and increases senders' expectations for quick responses (Milliken & Dunn-Jensen, 2005). These technologies have made the boundary between work and home more permeable, causing countless workers to conduct work-related activities (e.g., checking email) during time that was traditionally leisure or family time. Second, an increased pace of innovation has shortened the duration of competitive advantage, causing organizations to place increased pressure on employees to work quicker and more efficiently than ever before (Milliken & Dunn-Jensen, 2005). Further, the customer service focus of the United States economy has caused organizations to respond to clients' demands for cheaper and faster products and services, further increasing the pressure on employees to work longer and harder. Lastly, globalization has increased the need for organizations to be more efficient in order to compete with companies operating in low-wage countries (Milliken & Dunn-Jensen, 2005). All of these factors have placed demands on employees to work faster, work longer hours, and work around the clock, including in the evenings and on weekends (Milliken & Dunn-Jensen, 2005).

Work-Family Conflict

Increasing levels of both work and nonwork pressures may cause employees to be very stressed and feel conflict between their work and family roles (Frone, 2003). Work-family conflict is "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Although conflict can occur in two

directions—work can interfere with an individual's family life (WIF) and family can interfere in an individual's work life (FIW)—the focus of this research is on the work interfering in one's family life (e.g., working late hours precludes him/her from spending needed time with the employee's family). Conflict between work and family can occur in three ways: time-based conflict (i.e., "a consequence of competition for an individual's time from multiple role demands"), strain-based conflict (i.e., "when role stressors in one domain induce physical or psychological strain in the individual, hampering fulfillment of role expectations in the other domain"), and behavior-based conflict.(i.e., "when patterns of behavior appropriate to each domain are incompatible, and necessary adjustments are not made by the person," Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 76; see also Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Stephens & Sommer, 1996). Work-family conflict is experienced by a large percentage of American employees and the percentage of employees experiencing work-family conflict has risen over the past few decades (Bellevia & Frone, 2005).

Organizations can greatly benefit, from a business-case perspective, from taking actions to relieve their employees' work and family stress. Employee talent is a resource that can be a source of competitive advantage (Kossek & Friede, 2006). By offering family-friendly policies, such as flexible work hours or location, organizations can enhance organizational performance (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). This happens through increased competitiveness (i.e., better recruitment of top-talent individuals; Cascio & Young, 2005; Kossek & Friede, 2006), stock price/market performance (Cascio & Young, 2005; Kossek & Friede, 2006; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000), turnover (Friedman,

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2001; Lewis & Taylor, 1996), absenteeism (Friedman, 2001), employee performance

(both task performance and citizenship behaviors; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Lambert,

2000; Kossek & Friede, 2006), and commitment (Berg, Kalleberg, & Appelbaum, 2003;

Gibson, 2006; Kossek & Friede, 2006). Overall, offering family-friendly policies

enhances the well-being of an organization and its employees and provides equal

opportunity to women and those with dependents (Lewis, 1997). In addition to the formal

organizational policies and practices, the informal means by which an organization

supports its employees' conflicting work and family pressures, such as a supportive

organizational climate and norms (Kossek & Friede, 2006), can be just as important, or

more important than formal policies. The current study focuses on informal support (i.e.,

work-family climate as manipulated by leadership), as the organizational characteristic

influencing employees' abilities to balance their work and family roles.

Work-family Climate

The construct of work-family climate, or how supportive an organizational

workgroup is of the integration of its employees' work and family lives, has been referred

to as culture (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999; Warren & Johnson, 1995),

organizational perceptions (Allen, 2001; Jahn, Thompson, & Kopelman, 2003), and

climate (Adams, Woolf, Castro, & Adler, 2005; Anderson, Morgan, & Wilson, 2002;

Hannigan, 2004). There is much confusion in the literature about the meaning,

operationalization, and distinction between climate and culture (Denison, 1996; Parker,

Baltes, Young, Huff, Altmann, Lacost, et al., 2003). Both culture and climate consist of

understanding psychological phenomena in organizations, and they both "rest upon the

assumption of shared meanings—a shared understanding of some aspect of the organizational context" (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003, p. 565). This paper discusses some of the culture literature, but will focus on work-family climate because of the concentration and measurement of perceptions at the individual level.

Parker and Hall (1992) noted that culture and climate are "ideas that almost beg to be used in work-family inquiry" (p. 443). Work-family climate is the "assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives" (Thompson et al., 1999, p. 394). Schein (1990, 1992, 1999) discusses how culture/climate manifests itself at multiple levels. The most surface-level of culture/climate (i.e., artifacts) are the phenomena that one sees, hears, and feels when one encounters a new group with an unfamiliar culture/climate (Schein, 1992). In a work-family climate, family-friendly policies (e.g., telework, flexible scheduling, dependent care, paid maternity/paternity leave) serve as artifacts of a family-supportive climate (Kinnunen, Mauno, Geurts, & Dikkers, 2005; Lewis, 1997). These policies are surface-level indications that the organization intends to be supportive of employees' nonwork lives. Artifacts are palpable and are obvious to the external observer, but are not reliable indicators of the entire culture/climate (Schein, 1990). One must also be familiar with the values and underlying assumptions that govern thoughts, feelings, and behavior to truly understand the organizational culture/climate.

The deeper levels of culture/climate denote what actually happens in the organization; the actions that people observe on a daily basis. Thompson et al.'s (1999) definition of work-family culture/climate identifies two important values underlying a

work-family culture/climate: organizational time demands and perceived negative career consequences associated with using family-friendly policies. Organizational time demands include both expectations that employees prioritize work above family and pressures from the organization for employees to work long hours (Thompson et al., 1999). A supportive work-family climate is one in which organizations understand and support that a person's family is their first priority, even above the employee's work and the organization. Moreover, it is not a supportive climate when employees perceive pressure to work long hours, including working late into the night and on weekends. The second work-family culture/climate dimension in Thompson et al.'s definition, perceived negative career consequences, implies that workers are indirectly penalized for utilizing work-life benefits. Some leaders may believe that employees who use work-family policies (e.g., telework, maternity/paternity leave) are not as interested in advancement and are less committed to the organization. Policies are put in place to support and help a worker balance his or her work and family lives, but when an organization's work-family climate discourages its employees from using these policies, the purpose and supportiveness of these policies is undermined. Both organizational time demands and negative career consequences demonstrate values of an organization—a deeper level in which organizational culture/climate manifests itself. Companies that possess norms of working long hours and not utilizing family-friendly benefits value traditional workers— typically male—who prioritize work about all else and do not allow their nonwork lives to interfere with work.

Allen (2001) has a similar measure of work-family climate—termed Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions (FSOP)—which purports additional organizational values within a work-family climate. In addition to time demands, Allen's measure has items that tap values of flexibility and segmentation (Kinnunen et al., 2005). Flexibility refers to organizations offering flexibility in completing their work as a strategic way of doing business. In a flexible environment, employees are able to structure their own work, including their work schedule, place, and tasks. Also, a value of flexibility allows employees to take time off for unexpected nonwork responsibilities, such as a sick child. This flexibility may include organizational policies of paid leave and flexible schedules, but stems beyond these policies to also comprise manager and colleague acceptance of flexibility. Organizations that value segmentation discourage employees to showcase their nonwork lives in the workplace (e.g., talking about one's family). A supportive work-family climate invites employees' family lives to be visible in the organization.

It is important to consider more than just the artifacts of the work-family climate when assessing climate's relationship with key outcomes. Artifacts, such as family-friendly policies, are not enough alone to create positive work outcomes and employee well-being. Some organizations may have many work-life policies on the books, but at a deeper level may have contradictory values of time demands, prioritizing work, negative career consequences, inflexibility, and/or segmentation. These deeper ideologies will undermine the usefulness of the policies because employees will not feel they are allowed or feel they will be penalized for using the policies.

Managerial support for work-family has been considered as its own dimension of work-family climate/culture (Thompson et al., 1999). Supervisors often represent the entire organization to their employees (Allen, 2001, Aselage, Sucharski, Eisenberger, & Stinglhamber, 2006). Supervisors frequently report evaluations of their subordinates to upper management, which further authenticates the supervisor as being symbolic of the organization (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore, when a supervisor is supportive of his/her employee, the employee perceives the organization as being supportive because of the symbolic role of the supervisor. Leaders certainly influence the work-family climate, but it is through specific behaviors that leaders influence perceptions of the climate. Supervisors' and executives' actions are the overt manifestations of the values and assumptions of the organization (i.e., the deeper levels of organizational culture/climate). Therefore, leadership should be examined as being a proximal influence of employee perceptions of the organizational work-family climate. Little research has studied specific leader behaviors and their influence on nonwork outcomes. Studies that do consider this relationship have only scratched the surface and usually look at general supervisor support of employees' abilities to balance work and family commitments. This paper delves into this relationship and specifically investigates how leader behaviors described by transformational leadership theory relate to nonwork outcomes.

Leadership

Leadership and work-family issues have been two frequently studied phenomenon in Industrial/Organizational Psychology in the past twenty years, though very little

research has examined the intersection between these two fields (Harrison, Jones, Cleveland, & O'Neill, 2007). The majority of leadership research has aimed at predicting work outcomes, mostly around a leader's ability to facilitate high levels of worker involvement, motivation, and performance in their subordinates and organization (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Yukl, 2006). For example, transformational leadership is characterized by motivating and inspiring followers to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2002). Increased motivation and hard work are beneficial for the organization, in that it leads to increased job performance, but these processes may take away from employees' families. Workers are contributing more time and energy—both of which are finite resources—into organizational tasks, which take time and energy away from fulfilling family responsibilities.

Leadership and Work-Family Climate

Most leadership and culture/climate researchers agree about the link between leadership and culture/climate, although not much detailed conceptual or empirical evidence has examined this link (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989). Leadership is an important factor in the determination of culture and climate, such that leadership processes help employees form and maintain perceptions of culture and climate (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Schein, 1992; Zohar & Luria, 2005). This link dates back to the research of Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939), further replicated by Litwin and Stringer (1968), who manipulated leader behavioral styles and observed differences in employee perceptions. Other researchers have found further empirical support for leadership's influence on culture and climate perceptions (Barling, Loughlin, &

Kelloway, 2002; Gonzalez-Roma, Peiro, & Tordera, 2002; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Tsui, Zhang, Wang, Xin, & Wu, 2006). Conceptually, Smircich and Morgan (1982) argued that the essence of leadership is to influence perceptions of their subordinates. Through their consistent pattern of behavior, leaders set forth mental frameworks or structures for identifying or understanding things, actors, events, and situations within the organization (Michela & Burke, 2000), which becomes normative and integrated into the organization's culture/climate (Avolio & Bass, 1995).

Transformational leadership behaviors can have mixed effects on employee perceptions of how supportive the organization and work group are of employees balancing their work and family lives. Transformational leadership theory suggests that leaders act in ways that empower and inspire increased work motivation in subordinates (Zaccaro, Ely, & Nelson, in press). This theory focuses on creating meaningful work for subordinates and encouraging them to allocate more energy into their daily tasks and to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985, 1998). This view of leadership that promotes worker motivation and involvement may in turn reduce employees' ability to be involved in their family or nonwork activities. This same leadership theory also suggests that leaders act in considerate ways, addressing the individual needs of subordinates, creating more supportive, flexible environments, which help employees to better bridge the work-nonwork boundary (Bass, et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). There is almost no research on transformational leadership and work-family outcomes, but research examining the relationship between leader-member relations and work-family outcomes found mixed results, with some showing a negative relationship

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(Bernas & Major, 2000) and some finding a positive relationship (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999; Meert & Major, 2006). Since leadership behaviors, including transformational leadership behaviors, are multidimensional (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Maslyn, 1998), these mixed results support the possibility of some behaviors aiding in employees' perceptions of work-family support and work-family balance, while other leader behaviors impeding employees' abilities to cope with simultaneous work and family demands. Thus, transformational leaders behave in ways that create countervailing expectations for work and family. This dissertation explores this dueling dynamic in detail. Specifically, this paper expands on the existing research by examining two functions of transformational leadership (i.e., inspirational and work empowering leader behaviors and considerate leader behaviors) as they relate to perceptions of a family-supportive work-family climate and to work interfering with family conflict.

Inspirational and Work-Empowering Leader Behaviors

A major aspect of transformational leadership is work empowerment. Work empowering leader behaviors give followers a vision, increased responsibility, and get them excited about their work (Bass, 1998). These behaviors create expectations for employees to prioritize work above nonwork, work long hours, and to segment family from interfering with work tasks. Transformational leadership theory describes charismatic leaders who inspire and intellectually stimulate their employees to perform beyond what is minimally required in the job (Bass, 1995; Bass 1998). This theory focuses on inspiring and motivating subordinates to allocate more time and energy into

their work responsibilities, thus creating a shared expectation among employees (i.e., a climate) that high levels of motivation and work are expected. Consequently, work empowerment aids in producing work outcomes, such as increased performance, however, it may impede employees' abilities to cope with simultaneous family responsibilities. Inspirational and work empowering leader behaviors are more than those described by initiating structure research, which focuses on structuring the work of employees and directing them toward the attainment of the goals. Work empowering leader behaviors empower employees to be more engaged in their work and motivated to exert more effort on work tasks.

Very little research has linked inspirational and work empowering leadership behaviors to nonwork outcomes. This dissertation extends both the leadership and work-family literatures by investigating specific transformational leader behaviors, beyond leadership's effect on work outcomes and general supervisor support for work-family, and their influence on popular work-family outcomes. I suggest that inspirational and work empowering behaviors—which have been shown to relate to many positive *job* outcomes (Bass, 1998; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2002)—may have an adverse effect on perceptions of work-family climate and work interfering with family conflict. Employees are inspired to take on additional and higher levels of work responsibilities and to feel more committed to their jobs and organizations. Because time and energy are finite resources, this increased commitment comes at a cost of nonwork-related responsibilities.

Inspiration and work empowerment leadership behaviors motivate and inspire subordinates by providing meaning to their work, enhancing subordinate commitment to

goals, and creating a shared expectation that employees will work hard on job tasks. These leader behaviors invigorate employee motivation to tackle problems that were previously unsolved in a new way and to strive for higher standards of performance, channeling personal efforts to serve the organization rather than the individual. Time is a finite resource and through inspirational leader behaviors from leaders, employees are empowered and have the expectation to put more effort and time into their work tasks, which inherently takes time away from family responsibilities. This may cause shared perceptions at the work-group level of high time demands (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999), such as the need to work more than 50 hours per week, including at night and on the weekends. These expectations to be involved in work also create a work-group climate of prioritizing work over family (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). Employees who are overtly committed to their family may be viewed as not committed to the organization or work group. Similarly, leaders focused on work empowerment may impose negative career consequences to those who use family-friendly policies because the leaders may perceive them as not focusing on achievement of task performance. Thus, I suggest that inspiration and work empowerment leadership behaviors are negatively associated with perceptions of a work-family climate that is accommodating to employees' work and family needs.

> *Hypothesis 1a: The high performance expectations dimension of Inspirational and work-empowering leader behaviors is negatively related to perceptions of a work-family climate that is supportive of the integration of its employees' work and family lives.*

Hypothesis 1b: The intellectual stimulation dimension of inspirational and work-empowering leader behaviors is negatively related to perceptions of a work-family climate that is supportive of the integration of its employees' work and family lives.

The potential for a nonlinear relationship between work-empowering leader behaviors will also be examined. Although there is no research directly suggesting the presence for this nonlinear relationship, Harris and Kacmar (2006) found a nonlinear relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and stress, such that the negative relationship between LMX and stress dissipates at above average levels of LMX. It may be possible that there is a threshold above which work-empowering leader behaviors have a negative impact. For example, low levels of performance expectations or intellectual stimulation may have no impact on work-family conflict because at low levels, these leader behaviors are not overly demanding on employees' time and energy. Very high levels of performance expectations and intellectual stimulation may stretch an employee to focus on work to a point which interferes in balancing their work and family life.

Considerate Leader Behaviors

Another core transformational leadership function is consideration. Transformational leadership theory discusses that leaders realize and focus on the individual differences of employees (i.e., individualized consideration; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). Considerate leaders, at all levels of the organization, help decrease employees' work-family conflict, stress, and strain by being supportive emotionally, as well as actively, by being understanding and using

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discretion to allow employees the flexibility they need. The majority of the research that

has studied leadership's influence on nonwork outcomes has examined supervisor or

managerial support (e.g., Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007; Hopkins,

Kossek, & Lambert, 2005), and the results have been quite positive with regard to work

and nonwork outcomes. Those with supportive supervisors tend to report less work-

family conflict (Allen, 2001; Anderson, S. et al., 2002; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997;

Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999); less

depression (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), less stress (Anderson S. et al., 2002), higher

benefit utilization (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999), and better health (Greenberger,

Goldberg, Hamill, O'Neil & Payne, 1989; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Thomas & Ganster,

1995).

Considerate leader behaviors create a warm, caring environment for subordinates.

These leaders care for the welfare of their followers and work to improve their well-being

(House, 1996). They also take an individualized approach in attending to followers'

needs, listening to followers' concerns, and acting as mentors or coaches (Bass, 1985,

1998). Considerate leaders foster the expectation that employees can place effort on their

family role, creating a work-group climate that allows employees the flexibility to cope

with nonwork demands. The supervisor support research has generated evidence that

considerate leader behaviors relate to perceptions of a family-oriented work-family

climate (Thompson et al., 1999; Hammer et al., 2007). Supportive supervisors provide

individualized instrumental support (i.e., behavioral support) by allowing flexibility in

how employees' balance their work and nonwork roles and allowing employees to utilize

work-life policies, such as telework, without imposing negative career consequences (Hammer et al., 2007). In additional to instrumental support, considerate leaders also provide individualized emotional support to followers, making them feel cared for and comfortable. These leaders are likely to ask employees about their family or nonwork roles and allow employees to talk about their family in the workplace. Also, considerate leaders serve as role models of supportive behavior (Hammer et al., 2007). These leaders will allow their employees to see that they also have lives outside the organization. Unsupportive leaders are likely to demand that work be the only priority in an employee's life and they will serve as role models by putting work in the center of their own lives. When leaders exhibit family-friendly behavior, employees perceive their work unit and organization as supportive of their own ability to achieve work-family balance. Thus, I suggest that considerate leader behaviors create positive perceptions of a work-family climate supportive of the integration of employees' work and family lives.

> *Hypothesis 2a: The individualized support dimension of considerate leader behaviors is positively related to perceptions of work-family climate that is supportive of the integration of its employees' work and family lives.*
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> *Hypothesis 2b: The emotional support dimension of considerate leader behaviors is positively related to perceptions of work-family climate that is supportive of the integration of its employees' work and family lives.*
>
> *Hypothesis 2c: The instrumental support dimension of considerate leader behaviors is positively related to perceptions of work-family climate that is supportive of the integration of its employees' work and family lives.*

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Hypothesis 2d: The role model dimension of considerate leader behaviors is positively related to perceptions of work-family climate that is supportive of the integration of its employees' work and family lives.

The potential for a nonlinear relationship between considerate leader behaviors will also be examined. It may be that low levels of considerate behavior have no effect on employees' perceptions of the work-family climate because employees may not expect leaders to exhibit these behaviors. For example, employees may not expect physical assistance with scheduling one's work so that it does not conflict with ones family life (i.e., instrumental support). Thus, low levels of considerate leader behaviors, may have no relationship with perceptions of the work-family climate, but there is a threshold above which employees notice these behaviors and they start to have an impact on employees' perceptions of a family-supportive work-family climate.

Mediating Role of Work-Family Climate

Work empowering and considerate leadership behaviors also have an indirect influence on employees' levels of work-family conflict. These leader behaviors are hypothesized to influence employee perceptions of work-family climate. Work-family climate, in turn, strongly and negatively relates to levels of employees' levels of work-family conflict experienced (Thompson et al., 1999). Some research has examined the direct relationship between leader behaviors and work-family outcomes, finding a significant negative relationship between LMX and work-family conflict (Meert & Major, 2006; Youngcourt et al., 2008). Additionally, supervisor support has been shown to negatively relate to work-family conflict (Frye & Breaugh, 2004; O'Driscoll et al.,

2003), though I suggest that these transformational leadership behaviors affect work-family conflict because of leadership's influence on the work-family climate of an organization. Allen (2001) found that family supportive organizational perceptions (i.e., work-family climate) mediates the relationship between supportive leadership and work-family conflict, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Additionally, Adams et al. (2005) found that perceptions of family supportiveness mediate the relationship between leader effectiveness and work-family conflict. Hence, leaders act in a way that shape employee perceptions of the work-family climate, which in turn influences organizational outcomes. Specifically, I suggest that work-empowering leader behaviors create negative perceptions of the work-family climate, which in turn create higher levels of work interfering with family conflict. Conversely, I suggest that considerate leader behaviors increase perceptions of a family-supportive climate, which in turn lessen the level of work interfering with family conflict experienced by employees. Thus, I hypothesize that perceptions of a work-family climate mediate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors (i.e., both inspirational and work empowering and considerate leader behaviors) and nonwork outcomes.

> *Hypothesis 3a: Perceptions of work-family climate mediate the relationship between inspirational/work empowering leader behaviors and work-family conflict.*
>
> *Hypothesis 3b: Perceptions of a work-family climate mediate the relationship between considerate leader behaviors and work-family conflict.*

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected from 320 employees from a large consulting firm via an online survey using the *Vovici Community* survey software. The survey link was disseminated from Human Resources (HR) to all 3,000 employees in the organization. Therefore, the overall response rate was 10.7%, but 82.7% of employees who clicked on the survey link completed the survey. Employees completed measures of inspirational and work empowering leader behaviors and considerate leader behaviors in reference to the behaviors of their immediate supervisor and also completed measures of their own levels of work-family climate, work interfering with family conflict, and demographic information. Employees were given three weeks to complete the survey during nonwork time, and they received one reminder email from the researcher 1.5 weeks after receiving the survey link from HR. A random drawing of 10 participants received $20 *Target* gift cards as an incentive for participation.

The sample consisted of 320 employees from 64 different Line of Businesses within the organization. The majority of participants were female (66.3%), white (85.0%), and highly educated (12.2% had a Ph.D. or professional degree, 47.8% has a Master's degree, and 32.2% had a Bachelor's degree). The average age of participants was 40.28 years old and 69.7% of participants were married or cohabiting and 36.7% of

participants had at least one child living at home. Participants were mainly full-time employees (79.6%), with an average organizational tenure of 4.05 years and an average work week of 40.96 hours per week.

Measures

Work-Family Climate. The values of work-family climate were measured using the dimensions of the work-family culture scale developed by Thompson et al. (1999) and the family supportive organizational perceptions (FSOP) scale developed by Allen (2001). *Flexibility* was measured using three items from Allen's (2001) scale (e.g., "Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business"). *Organizational time demands* was measured with four items total: two from Thompson et al.'s (1999) scale and two from Allen's (2001) scale (e.g., "To get ahead at this organization, employees are expected to work more than 50 hours a week, whether at the workplace or at home"). *Negative Career Consequences* was measured using five items from Thompson et al.'s (1999) instrument (e.g., "In this organization employees who participate in available work-family programs [e.g., job sharing, part-time work] are viewed as less serious about their careers than those who do not participate in these programs"). *Priority of work over family* was measured using six items total: two from Thompson et al.'s (1999) scale and four from Allen's (2001) scale (e.g., "Work should be the primary priority in a person's life"). The last value of work-family climate, *segmentation*, was measured using five items from Allen's (2001) measure (e.g., "It is best to keep family matters separate from work"). All items tapping values of work-family climate were rated on a 7-point response scale ranging from 1 =

strongly disagree to 7 = *strongly agree*. All items were scored so that higher scores represent a more supportive work-family climate (i.e., more flexibility, low level of time demands, lack of negative career consequences, not prioritizing work over family, and integration of ones work and family lives). Coefficient alphas were .86, .67, .76, .52, .74, and .68 for composite work-family climate, flexibility, time demands, negative career consequences, priority, and segmentation, respectively.

Work Interfering with Family Conflict. Work interfering with family conflict (WIF) was measured on a 9-item scale developed by Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2000; e.g., "I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities"). The measure is divided into three dimensions (i.e., time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict), measured with three items each. The items were rated on a 7-point response scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree.* Higher scores indicate higher levels of work interfering with family conflict. Coefficient alphas were .86, .76, .87, and .68 for work interfering with family conflict composite, time-based WIF, strain-based WIF, and behavior-based WIF, respectively.

Inspirational and Work Empowering Leader Behaviors. Inspirational and work-empowering leader behaviors was measured using 7 items from Podsakoff et al's (1990) transformational leadership measure. Three items measured high performance expectations (e.g., "My supervisor insists on only the best performance"), while four items measured intellectual stimulation (e.g., "My supervisor asks questions that prompt me to think"). Responses were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale with 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree.* Coefficient alphas were .84, .76, and .85 for work

empowering leader behaviors composite, high performance expectations, and intellectual stimulation, respectively.

Considerate Leader Behaviors. Considerate leader behaviors were measured using 4 items from Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) individualized support dimension of transformational leadership (e.g., "My supervisor behaves in a manner thoughtful of my personal needs"). To examine in more detail the consideration behaviors of leaders, I also used 14 items from Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, and Hanson's (under review) measure of family supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB) to better measure the considerate leader behaviors described in the literature. Four items from Hammer et al.'s (under review) scale measured emotional support (e.g., "My supervisor takes the time to learn about my personal needs"), three items from Hammer et al.'s (under review) scale measured instrumental support (e.g., "I can depend on my supervisor to help me with scheduling conflicts if I need it"), and three items from Hammer et al.'s (under review) scale measured role model behavior (e.g., "My supervisor is a good role model for work and nonwork balance"). Responses were indicated on a 7-point Likert-type scale 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Coefficient alphas were .94, ..93, .85, .74, and .91 for considerate leader behaviors composite, individualized support, emotional support, instrumental support, and role model behavior, respectively.

Demographics. Gender, age, race, employment status, employment tenure, job title, education, marital status, and number of children living at home were assessed as demographic variables.

RESULTS

Because multiple individuals were rating the same target (i.e., supervisees rating

supervisors) intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC[1]) is an appropriate measure of rater

similarity (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Intraclass correlation coefficients were calculated

for work-empowering leader behaviors (ICC[1] = -.12), considerate leader behaviors

(ICC[1] = -.06), and employee perceptions of the work-family climate (ICC[1]= .09).

These inter-rater agreement and inter-rater reliability results of considerate leader

behaviors and work-empowering leader behaviors show a negative value, which occurs

when the between-group variance is less than the within-group variance (i.e., people

within a group differ from each other more than they differ from individuals in other

groups). Therefore, it is appropriate to examine these variables at the individual level,

since the nesting of individuals within supervisors does not account for similarity of

individual scores. Further, examining perceptions of climate (i.e., individual-level) is

consistent with other research on psychological climate (e.g., D'Amato & Zijlstra, 2008;

James & James, 1992; Tordera, González-Romá, & Peiró, 2008) and work-family culture

and climate (e.g., Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). James, Choi, Ko, McNeil, Inton,

Wright, & Kim (2008) state that the lack of shared climate perception implies the absence

of an organizational climate. Thus, it is not appropriate to aggregate individual responses

to the organizational level because of this lack of agreement. Lastly, the outcome of

interest, work-family conflict, is an individual-level phenomenon, making it appropriate to conduct analyses at this level of analysis. Therefore, all analyses were conducted at the individual level of analysis.

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted for all study variables, including work-empowering leader behaviors, considerate leader behaviors, work-family climate, and work interfering with family conflict (WIF). Each of these variables is comprised of various dimensions, so confirmatory factor analyses were conducted comparing a one-factor model to the multidimensional model (consisting of all previously-supported dimensions). Results supported the multidimensional model in all cases. More specifically, confirmatory factor analyses supported a two-factor solution for work-empowering leader behaviors (i.e., intellectual stimulation and high performance expectations; RMSEA = .06), a four-factor solution for considerate leader behaviors (i.e., emotional support, instrumental support, individualized support, and role model; RMSEA = .06), a five-factor model for perceptions of work-family climate (i.e., flexibility, negative career consequences, time demands, priority, and segmentation; RMSEA = .09), and a three-factor solution for work interfering with family conflict (WIF; i.e., time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based; RMSEA = .06). The leader behavior constructs will be examined at the factor level to assess differences across the dimensions in order to fully understand the phenomena, but although CFA results also support a multidimensional approach for work-family climate and work-family conflict, the dimensions are highly correlated. Therefore, for parsimony sake and because the relationships with dimensions of these variables show the same pattern of results,

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composite work-family climate and composite work interfering with family conflict (WIF) are reported.

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for each study construct and its corresponding dimensions are found in Table A1. Hypotheses 1a and 1b (i.e., work-empowering leader behaviors are negatively related to perceptions of a work-family climate) were tested using multiple regression and quadratic hierarchical regression to examine the potential for a negative linear and a negative nonlinear relationship. Work-empowering leader behavior variables were centered and a quadratic variable for each work-empowering leader behavior was created. Both the linear term for high performance expectations and intellectual stimulation were entered in the first step of the hierarchical regression, while the quadratic terms for high performance expectations and intellectual stimulation were entered in the second step of the hierarchical regression. Results suggest support for hypothesis 1a, but they do not support hypothesis 1b (see Table A2). Work-empowering leader behaviors of high performance expectations have a negative relationship with perceptions of a supportive work-family climate (β = -.23, t = -3.48, p < .05), and this negative relationship is nonlinear ($\beta(HPE^2)$= -.18, t = -2.99, p < .05). The nature of this negative nonlinear relationship is such that at below average levels of performance expectations, there is no relationship between performance expectations and perceptions of a supportive work-family climate, but at average to above average levels of leader performance expectations, perceptions of a supportive work-family climate are negatively related (see Figure B2). Conversely to the high performance expectations dimension of work-empowering leader behaviors, the work-

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empowering leader behaviors of intellectually stimulating employees have a positive

linear relationship with perceptions of the work-family climate ($\beta = .33$, t = 4.79, p < .05;

$\beta(IS^2) = -.00$, t = -.07, p = .95). This suggests that stimulating and challenging employees'

minds have a positive relationship with employees' perceptions of a supportive work-

family climate. In sum, the relationships between work-empowering leader behaviors and

perceptions of work-family climate differ in direction and linearity depending on the

dimension of leader behavior examined.

Hypotheses 2a through 2d (i.e., considerate leader behaviors are positively related

to perceptions of a supportive work-family climate) were tested using multiple regression

and quadratic hierarchical regression to examine the potential for a positive linear and a

positive nonlinear relationship (similar to hypothesis one). Considerate leader behavior

variables were centered and quadratic variables for each considerate leader behavior were

created. The linear terms for each of the dimensions of considerate leader behaviors (i.e.,

individualized support, emotional support, instrumental support, and role model

behavior) were entered in the first step of the hierarchical regression, while the quadratic

terms for each dimension of considerate leader behaviors were entered in the second step

of the hierarchical regression. Considerate leader behaviors overall (i.e., all dimensions in

one regression) are positively related to perceptions of work-family climate composite

($\Delta R^2 = .34$, $\Delta F(1, 285) = 36.30$, $p < .05$; see Table A3). When examining the individual

contribution of each considerate leader behavior dimension, providing individualized

support ($\beta = .29$, $t = 2.61$, $p < .05$) and providing instrumental support ($\beta = .16$, $t = 2.10$, p

< .05) show a significant, positive linear relationship with composite work-family climate

perceptions, supporting hypotheses 2a and 2c. Providing emotional support does not

show a significant relationship (β = -.01, t = -.01, p = .94) when examined in conjunction

with the other dimensions of considerate leader behavior, failing to support hypothesis

2b. Because the individual correlation between emotional support and work-family

climate is moderately positive (r = .49, p < .05), this result suggests that emotional

support does not explain incremental variance in perceptions of the work-family climate

above the other dimensions of considerate leader behaviors. Being a considerate leader

by serving as a role model of work-family balance has a positive relationship with work-

family climate (β = .26, t = 3.74, p < .05), supporting hypothesis 2d. Through exploratory

analyses, this positive relationship between role model behavior and work-family climate

was found to be nonlinear ($\beta(RM^2)$ = .14, t = 1.97, p < .05),. The nature of this

relationship is such that when leaders exhibit below average levels of family-supportive

role model behavior (e.g., neglecting his/her own family responsibilities), there is no

relationship with perceptions of work-family climate, but at average to above average

levels of supportive role model behavior, there is a positive relationship between

considerate role model leader behavior and perceptions of a family-friendly work-family

climate (see Figure B3). In sum, considerate leader behaviors, such as providing

individualized support and instrumental support, are positively related to employees'

perceptions of a supportive work-family climate and being an average to above average

role model of family-friendly behavior has a positive relationship with perceptions of a

supportive work-family climate.

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Hypotheses 3a and 3b were tested with structural equation modeling using a latent-variable approach with individual measured items as manifest variables. The hypothesized model (i.e., perceptions of work-family climate mediates the relationship between leader behaviors and work interfering with family conflict, see Figure B1) was compared to the saturated model (i.e., which included the direct effects of leader behaviors on work interfering with family conflict). The hypothesized model ($\chi^2_{hyp}(895)$ = 2354.30) is not significantly different than the saturated model ($\chi^2_{sat}(892)$ = 2354.02; $\Delta\chi^2(3)$ = .28, p = ns), suggesting that the mediated hypothesized model is the best fitting model to the data. Also, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) fit index of the hypothesized model (RMSEA = .07) falls within an acceptable range, indicating good model fit. The path coefficients between perceptions of the work-family climate and high performance expectations (β = -.14, t = -1.71, $p < .05$) and considerate leader behaviors (β = .68, t = 5.85, $p < .05$) are significant, but the path coefficient between work-family climate and intellectual stimulation (β = .01, t =.07, p = ns) is not significant. The path coefficient between perceptions of the work-family climate and work interfering with family conflict is strongly negative (WIF; β = -.69, t =-7.73, $p <$ .05). This model suggests that perceptions of work-family climate mediate the effect that high performance expectations and considerate leader behaviors have on work interfering with family conflict (i.e., these leader behaviors shape employee perceptions of the work-family climate and this climate negatively relates to individuals' experiences of work interfering with family conflict). This mediation is not significant for intellectual stimulation leader behaviors because there is not a significant relationship between these

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type of leader behaviors and work-family climate. When examined without considerate leader behaviors—as in its bivariate correlation ($r = .28$, $p < .05$) and as it is tested in hypothesis 1 only with high performance expectations—intellectual stimulation is significantly related to perceptions of work-family climate. Thus, intellectual stimulation does not explain incremental variance in perceptions of work-family climate beyond considerate leader behaviors. Therefore, hypothesis 3a is partially supported and hypothesis 3b is supported.

DISCUSSION

The main aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and nonwork outcomes. The research examining leadership's influence on nonwork outcomes is limited (Harrison, Jones, Cleveland, & O'Neill, 2007). A few studies have examined leader-member relations' impact on work-family conflict, showing mixed results. For example, Bernas and Major (2000) found a positive relationship between leader-member relations and work interfering with family conflict (WIF; i.e., good leadership relations create more conflict between an employees' work and family lives), while Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) found a negative relationship between leader member relations and levels of WIF (i.e., good leadership relations helped to alleviate conflict between an employees' work and family lives). Additionally, Harrison et al. (2007) found that transformational leadership created more positive spillover (i.e., a positive influence) from employees work to family lives. In sum, the few studies that have examined the relationship between leadership and nonwork outcomes have mostly found that leadership positively impacts nonwork outcomes, though at least one study (Bernas & Major, 2000) has found that leadership relations can have a negative impact on nonwork outcomes.

Some theories of leadership describe behaviors that can have a negative impact on work-family outcomes, but this has not been examined in the literature. This dissertation

examined, and found support for, multiple dimensions of transformational leadership

having countervailing effects on employee perceptions of work-family climate.

Specifically, high performance expectations (i.e., a dimension of transformational

leadership) show a negative nonlinear relationship with employee perceptions of a

family-supportive work-family climate, while intellectual stimulation and individualized

support (i.e., two other dimensions of transformational leadership) have a positive

relationship with perceptions of work-family climate. Results also show that additional

considerate leader behaviors (i.e., emotional support, instrumental support, and serving as

a role model of work-family balance) are positively related to perceptions of work-family

climate. High performance expectations were found to have a negative nonlinear

relationship with perceptions of climate, such that below average to average levels of

performance expectations have no relationship with climate perceptions, but above

average levels of expectations have a negative relationship with perceptions of a

supportive work-family climate. Results support that the intellectual stimulation

dimension of work-empowering leader behaviors and all dimensions of considerate

leader behaviors (e.g., emotional support, instrumental support, individualized support,

role model) positively impact perceptions of a family-supportive work-family climate,

though intellectual stimulation does not explain incremental variance in work-family

climate above the variance explained by considerate leader behaviors. Further, serving as

a role model of work-family balance has a positive nonlinear relationship with

perceptions of a supportive work-family climate, such that at below average levels of role

model behavior (i.e., demonstrating a lack of work-family balance), climate perceptions

are low and unaffected, but average to above average levels of leader role model behavior relate positively to family-supportive climate perceptions. Lastly, high performance expectations and considerate leader behaviors were found to indirectly relate to levels of work interfering with family conflict through their influence on work-family climate. Therefore, high performance expectations are negatively related to supportive climate perceptions, which in turn is negatively related to levels of employee work-family conflict (WIF). Conversely, considerate leader behaviors are positively related to levels of a family-supportive work-family climate, which in turn is negatively related to employees' levels of WIF. The results of this dissertation give greater clarity to leadership's influence on nonwork outcomes.

Intellectual stimulation, a dimension of inspirational and work empowering transformational leadership was hypothesized to negatively relate to perceptions of climate, though results suggest a positive relationship when considered separately from considerate leader behaviors. This effect may occur because leaders who intellectually stimulate employees are likely to allow for and inspire more innovative ways to cope with multiple life roles, which could lead to more flexibility (i.e., very similar to considerate leader behaviors). Also these leaders are likely to have a greater tolerance for employees using work-life policies, which are viewed as creative and resourceful ways of coping with life demands. In this type of leadership, there also no public criticism of new ideas and processes (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2001), such as using family-friendly policies.

The considerate leader behavior results support existing research on general supervisor support (Hammer et al., under review; Thompson et al., 1999). This study takes that research a step further and examines some of the specific leadership behaviors that supportive leaders use to influence perceptions of supportive work-family climate and reduce work-family conflict (e.g., providing emotional support, serving as a role model of work-family balance).

Although high performance expectations were found to decrease perceptions of a supportive work-family climate and increase levels of work-family conflict, these leadership behaviors are not completely negative. High performance expectations can create higher levels of employee task performance, as demonstrated in the existing research on the Pygmalion effect (e.g., Heinen, Shuffler, Haynes, & Nguyen, 2008; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968) and goal theory (Latham & Locke, 2006), though these literatures caution readers that expectations that are too high can have a detrimental effect on employees motivation and performance. Expectations and goals should be attainable, so that employees are motivated to exert effort and persistence toward the goal and/or expectation. Moderate to high (but not too high) levels of performance expectations should be combined with more family-friendly, considerate leader behaviors, such as individualized, instrumental, and emotional support and serving as a role model of work-family balance. Employee task performance is important for the success of a company, but caring for the individual needs of employees (e.g., coping with dueling work and family pressures) also influences important organizational outcomes, such as increased organizational commitment (Allen, 2001; Galinsky et al., 1993; Hannigan, 2004; Lyness,

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Thompson, Francesco, & Judiesch, 1999; Hill, 2005; O'Neill, Harrison, Cleveland,

Almeida, Stawski, Snead, et al. 2007; Thompson et al., 1999), increased organizational

citizenship behaviors (Bragger et al., 2005; Clark, 2001), decreased turnover intentions

(Allen, 2001; Anderson, S. et al., 2002; O'Neill et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 1999;

Thompson & Prottas, 2005), decreased absenteeism (Anderson, S. et al., 2002), lower

levels of burnout (Galinsky et al., 1993), and increased organizational performance

(Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001). Therefore, it is important to understand how leadership

behaviors impact a variety of work and nonwork outcomes in order to identify the best

leadership style that will benefit the employees and organization.

Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of this study includes the use of cross-sectional, single-source data.

This type of data collection creates the potential for inflation of correlations and does not

allow for firm inferences of causality. Another study limitation stems from collecting

data from a single organization. Because all employees work for the same organization

and are influenced by the same organizational policies and top leadership, the amount of

variance in climate perceptions may have been increased by considering multiple

organizations with various policies, foundations, and histories.

I suggest that future research examine the relationship between various leadership

behaviors and nonwork outcomes across multiple levels of leadership (e.g., supervisors,

middle-level managers, top management team) within multiple organizations. Multiple

organizations would allow for greater variance in climate perceptions, potentially

allowing for the multilevel examination of these phenomena. Also, since the current

study only examined the leader behaviors of immediate supervisors, it would be valuable to investigate if the studied relationships vary in direction and/or magnitude depending on the level of leadership examined (i.e., if level of leadership acts as a moderator). Also, I suggest that future studies examine the relationship between leadership and nonwork outcomes in conjunctions with work outcomes, such as task performance. Research examining work and nonwork outcomes simultaneously would be able to investigate the relative positive and/or negative impact of specific leader behaviors on performance, work-family climate, and work interfering with family conflict. For example, one might find that certain leader behaviors have a uniformly positive or negative impact on both work and nonwork outcomes, while other leader behaviors may have both positive and negative effects (e.g., positively impact work outcomes, but negatively impact nonwork outcomes).

Lastly, I suggest future research examine these phenomena in the context of leadership development programs. The current research demonstrates that transformational leader behaviors can both help and hurt employees' perceptions of the organizational work-family climate. Past research has demonstrated how organizational culture and climate can be manipulated (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Denison, 2001).The results of this study can be combined with culture change research to develop leadership training programs at all levels of the organization to help leaders create supportive environments for employees. These training programs can teach leaders how to create a more supportive work-family climate for their direct reports by providing individualized, emotional, and instrumental support, serving as a role model of work-family balance, and

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intellectually stimulating employees. Additionally, leaders can be instructed on how to hold appropriate levels of performance expectations to increase performance and to minimize its negative effect on perceptions of work-family climate.

Conclusions

In sum, this research demonstrated that dimensions of transformational leadership theory have countervailing effects of perceptions of work-family climate and work-family conflict. Specifically, high performance expectations were found to be negatively related to perceptions of a family-supportive work-family climate, while considerate leader behaviors were found to positively relate to perceptions of family-supportive work-family climate. Further, these leader behaviors have an indirect relationship with work-family conflict because of their effect on work-family climate. The results of the current study demonstrate that there is a complex relationship between transformational leadership and work-family outcomes and more research is needed to fully understand the intricacy of specific leadership behaviors on nonwork outcomes.

Table A1
Study Means, SDs, and Correlations

Variable	M	SD	ConLB	ConLB: ES	ConLB: IS	ConLB: RM	ConLB: IndS	WELB	WELB: HPE	WELB: Int Stim
Considerate Leader Behaviors (ConLB)	5.33	1.15	(.94)							
ConLB: Emotional Support (ES)	5.24	1.36	.91*	(.85)						
ConLB: Instrumental Support (IS)	5.08	1.21	.79*	.69*	(.74)					
ConLB: Role Model (RM)	4.80	1.51	.82*	.65*	.54*	(.91)				
ConLB: Individualized Support (IndS)	5.83	1.22	.90*	.79*	.62*	.62*	(.93)			
Work-Empowering Leader Behaviors (WELB)	4.81	1.06	.52*	.49*	.35*	.48*	.42*	(.84)		
WELB: High Performance Expectations (HPE)	4.87	1.14	.17*	.13*	.10	.21*	.14*	.78*	(.76)	
WELB: Intellectual Stimulation (Int Stim)	4.73	1.24	.60*	.58*	.44*	.53*	.49*	.92*	.44*	(.85)
Work-Family Climate (WFCl)	4.90	.86	.57*	.49*	.47*	.49*	.51*	.21*	-.02	.28*
WFCl: Flexibility (Flex)	5.48	.98	.54*	.46*	.44*	.45*	.50*	.32*	.13*	.25*
WFCl: Time Demands (TD)	4.05	1.48	.34*	.28*	.31*	.36*	.30*	.00	-.13*	.09*
WFCl: Negative Career Consequences (NCC)	5.02	1.07	.26*	.24*	.21*	.17*	.24*	.17*	.06	.18*
WFCl: Priority (Prio)	4.51	1.36	.44*	.35*	.40*	.45*	.38*	.08	-.08	.15*
WFCl: Segmentation (Seg)	5.39	1.08	.51*	.49*	.38*	.38*	.48*	.27*	.04	.31*
Work Interfering with Family Conflict (WIF)	3.41	1.19	-.45*	-.39*	-.36*	-.42*	-.42*	-.16*	-.01	-.21*
WIF: Time	3.60	1.40	-.34*	-.31*	-.27*	-.31*	-.30	-.12	-.01	-.15*
WIF: Strain	3.47	1.55	-.38*	-.29*	-.29*	-.36*	-.36	-.10	.06	-.16*
WIF: Behavior	3.13	1.18	-.36*	-.33*	-.27*	-.32*	-.31	-.20*	-.10	-.22*

Table A1 (cont).
Study Means, SDs, and Correlations

Variable	WFCl	WFCl: Flex	WFCl: TD	WFCl: NCC	WFCl: Prio	WFCl: Seg	WIF	WIF: Time	WIF: Strain	WIF: Behavior
Considerate Leader Behaviors (ConLB)										
ConLB: Emotional Support										
ConLB: Instrumental Support										
ConLB: Role Model										
ConLB: Individualized Support										
Work-Empowering Leader Behaviors (WELB)										
WELB: High Performance Expectations										
WELB: Intellectual Stimulation										
Work-Family Climate (WFCl)	(.86)									
WFCl: Flexibility	.76*	(.67)								
WFCl: Time Demands	.75*	.36*	(.76)							
WFCl: Negative Career Consequences	.57*	.35*	.21*	(.52)						
WFCl: Priority	.85*	.56*	.70*	.35*	(.74)					
WFCl: Segmentation	.66*	.60*	.23*	.29*	.40*	(.68)				
Work Interfering with Family Conflict (WIF)	-.56*	-.43*	-.46*	-.20*	-.53*	-.39*	(.86)			
WIF: Time	-.50	-.34*	-.48*	-.18*	-.49*	-.30*	.84*	(.76)		
WIF: Strain	-.55*	-.41*	-.47*	-.18*	-.54*	-.37*	.88*	.61*	(.87)	
WIF: Behavior	-.37*	-.34*	-.20*	-.15*	-.32*	-.41*	.71*	.44*	.41*	(.68)

Note. Coefficient alphas are on the diagonal; * p <.05

Table A2
Hypotheses 1a-1b Regression Results

	Standardized Betas	
Variable and Statistic	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1. Linear effects		
High Performance Expectations	-.17*	-.23*
Intellectual Stimulation	.34*	.33*
Step 2. Nonlinear effects		
High Performance Expectations^2		-.18*
Intellectual Stimulation^2		-.00
F	15.09*	10.17*
df 1	2	2
df 2	285	283
R^2	.10*	.13*
Adjusted R^2	.09*	.11*
Change in R^2	.10*	.03*

Note. * $p < .05$

Table A3
Hypotheses 2a-2d Regression Results

	Standardized Betas	
Variable and Statistic	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1. Linear effects		
Individualized Support	.25*	.29*
Emotional Support	.06	-.01
Instrumental Support	.16*	.16*
Role Model	.22*	.26*
Step 2. Nonlinear effects		
Individualized support^2		.05
Emotional Support^2		-.13
Instrumental Support^2		-.00
Role Model^2		.14*
F	36.30*	19.03*
df 1	4	4
df 2	285	281
R^2	.34*	.35*
Adjusted R^2	.33*	.33*
Change in R^2	.34*	.01

Note. * $p < .05$

Figure B1.

Perceptions of Work-Family Climate as a Mediator of Leader Behaviors and Work Interfering with Family Conflict
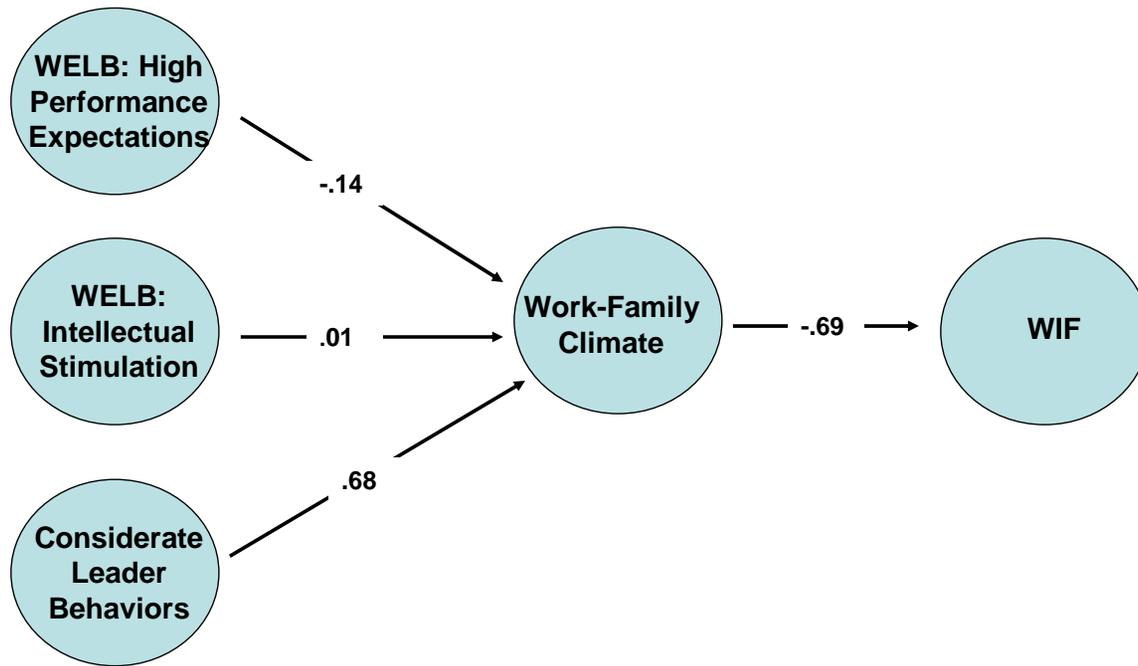
Figure B2.

The Negative Nonlinear Relationship between Work-Empowering Leader Behaviors High Performance Expectations and Perceptions of Work-Family Climate
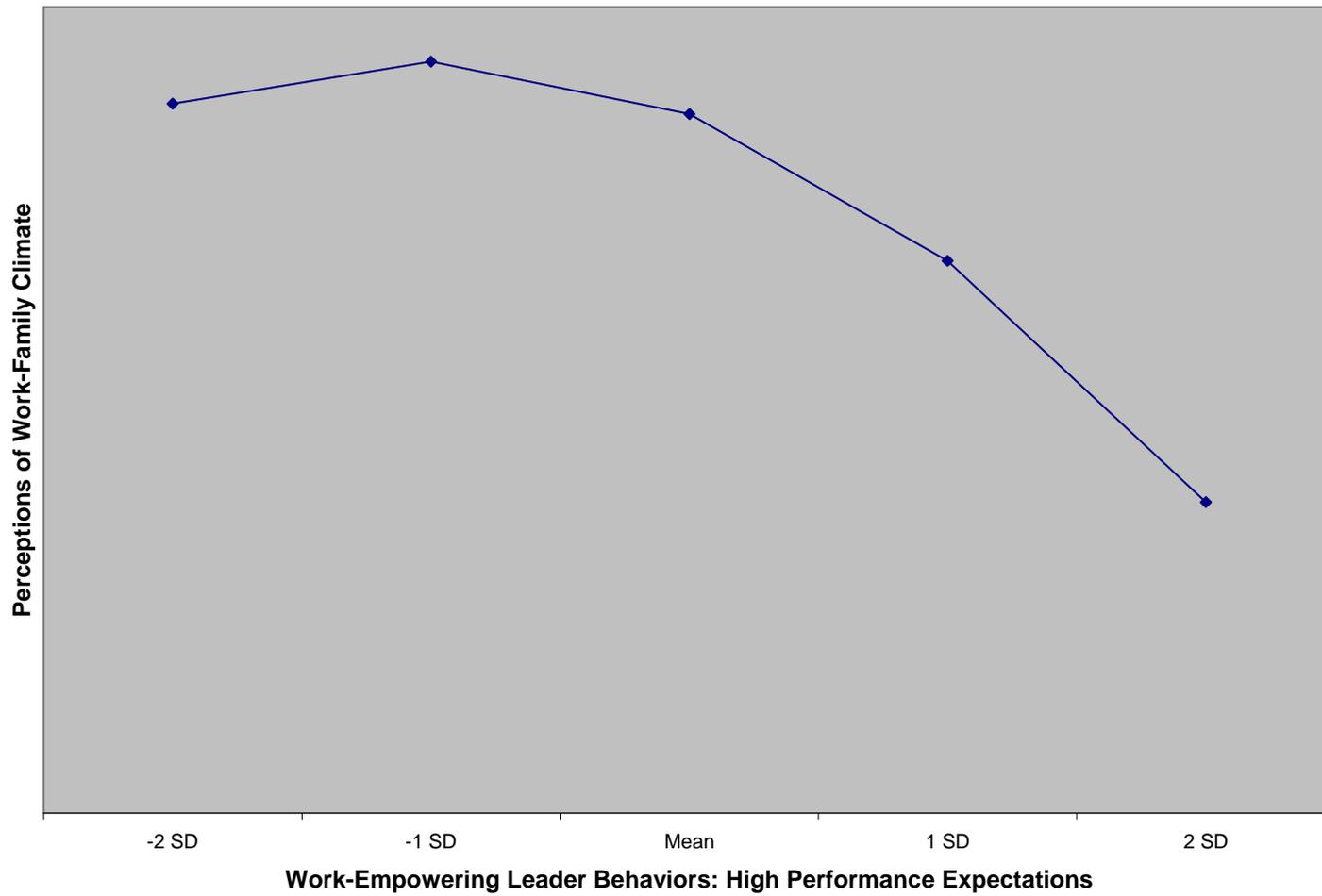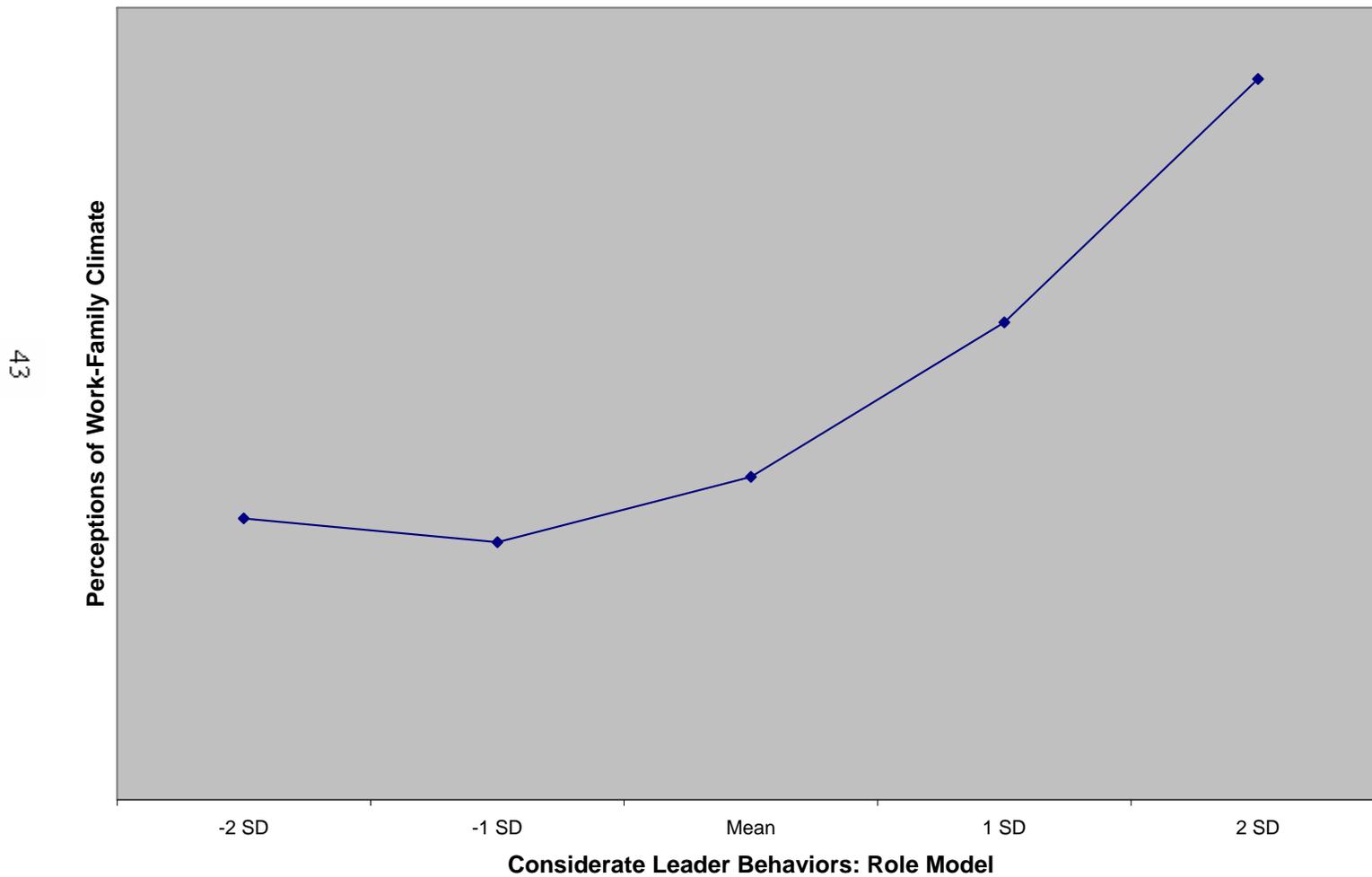
Figure B3.

The Positive Nonlinear Relationship between Considerate Leader Behaviors Role Model and Perceptions of Work-Family Climate

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APPENDIX C: LITERATURE REVIEW FROM PROPOSAL

Societal developments have escalated the obligation and benefit for organizations to focus attention on an employee's life outside work. Leaders are the main organizational agent that allow for flexible accommodations, aiding in employees' abilities to cope with work and family demands, though this connection has not thoroughly been examined in the Industrial-Organizational Psychology or Organizational Behavior literature (Harrison, Jones, & Cleveland, 2007; Youngcourt, Huffman, & Alden-Anderson, 2008). Work-family research has come close by examining the relationship between supervisor support and work-family outcomes, but the work-family literature is vague and incomplete in examining the contribution of leadership on the nonwork domain. Very little research has examined the link between specific processes, behaviors, or theories of leadership and nonwork criterion. Because of the fundamental link between an employee's work and family life (Frone, 2003), it is essential for leadership research to move beyond traditional organizational outcome-based studies into research that examines leadership's influence on nonwork variables. Thus, this dissertation examines the work-nonwork dynamics of leadership. I propose leadership creates countervailing expectations for work and family. Specifically, this paper examines the relationship between behaviors espoused in leadership theories (i.e., inspirational and work empowering behaviors, considerate behaviors) and work-family climate as well as the mediating effect of work-family climate between these leadership

behaviors and nonwork outcomes (see Figure C1). The purpose of this paper is to examine how specific leadership behaviors differentially relate to nonwork outcomes.

Over the past three decades, there has been an increase of women in the workplace (Clark, 2001; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Hegtvedt, Clay-Warner, & Ferrigno, 2002; Jalilvand, 2000; Lee & Duxbury, 1998; Stebbins, 2001; U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). Specifically, 56.6% of women aged 16 years or older (i.e., 66.9 million) participated in the U.S. labor force in 2006 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). These figures are significantly higher than in 1971, when only 40.4% of women aged 16 years or older (i.e., 30.0 million) were employed in the U.S. (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). This increase has occurred, in part, due to the rise in dual-earner couples and single-parent families. The percentage of dual-earner married couples increased from 35.9 to 59.5 between 1970 and 1997 (Jacobs & Gerson, 1998). Further, in only 10 years, the percentage of single-parent households has risen 1.4 percent, a difference of 3.5 million households (i.e., 15.0% of U.S. households were headed by single parents in 1990, while 16.4% of U.S. households were headed by single parents in 2000; U.S. Census Bureau, 2001). These demographic changes have severely increased employee's nonwork responsibilities. The traditional female from years ago who cooked, cleaned, and cared for the children is no longer solely responsible for these tasks. Most women have moved into the workplace, leaving all employees—men and women—responsible for family-related duties. Employees are demanding more flexible schedules and other accommodations to help them balance their work and family duties (Marston, 2005; Offerman & Gowing, 1990).

Simultaneous to these societal developments, work pressures are also increasing for employees. We live in 24/7 economy, which places increased forces on employees to be more productive at a quicker rate. Schor (2003) reported that the average American employee worked almost 200 more hours in the year 2000 than the average American worker in 1980. There are a number of workplace trends that have made work, especially managerial and professional work, more complex. First, communication technologies, including voice mail, fax, e-mail, and cell phones, have increased the methods available for communication between people. This makes employees constantly available and increases senders' expectations for quick responses (Milliken & Dunn-Jensen, 2005). These technologies have made the boundary between work and home more permeable, causing countless workers to conduct work-related activities (e.g., checking email) during time that was traditionally leisure or family time. Second, an increased pace of innovation has shortened the duration of competitive advantage, causing organizations to place increased pressure on employees to work quicker and more efficiently than ever before (Milliken & Dunn-Jensen, 2005). Further, the customer service focus of the U.S. economy has caused organizations to respond to clients' demands for cheaper and faster products and services, further increasing the pressure on employees to work longer and harder. Lastly, globalization has increased the need for organizations to be more efficient in order to compete with companies operating in low-wage countries (Milliken & Dunn-Jensen, 2005). All of these factors have placed demands on employees to work faster, work longer hours, and work around the clock, including in the evenings and on weekends (Milliken & Dunn-Jensen, 2005).

Work-Family Conflict

These increasing levels of both work and nonwork pressures cause employees to be very stressed and feel conflict between their work and family roles (Frone, 2003). Work-family conflict is "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Thus, conflict can occur in two directions: work can interfere with an individual's family life (WIF) and family can interfere in an individual's work life (FIW). For example, an employee experiences work interfering with family conflict when working late hours precludes him/her from spending needed time with the employee's family. Alternatively, an employee experiences family interfering with work conflict when, for example, he/she is disrupted at work by worry about his/her children. Researchers have further broken down each of these directions into three dimensions: time-based conflict (i.e., "a consequence of competition for an individual's time from multiple role demands"), strain-based conflict (i.e., "when role stressors in one domain induce physical or psychological strain in the individual, hampering fulfillment of role expectations in the other domain"), and behavior-based conflict.(i.e., "when patterns of behavior appropriate to each domain are incompatible, and necessary adjustments are not made by the person," Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 76; see also Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Stephens & Sommer, 1996). The prevalence of employees experiencing and reporting work-family conflict is raising over time (Bellevia & Frone, 2005). Three U.S. national studies examining the

pervasiveness of work-family conflict were conducted during the early-, mid-, and late-1990s; results of each study demonstrate a positive upward trend in percentage of the U.S. population experiencing WIF and FIW conflict. Specifically, the National Comorbidity Study (NCS) was conducted in the early-1990s and found that an average of 26.3% of the overall population experienced WIF conflict, and 11.6% of the population experienced FIW conflict. The National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States (MIDUS), which was conducted in the mid-1990s, reported that 38.3% and 13.6% of the overall population experienced WIF and FIW conflict, respectively. Lastly the National Study of the Changing Workforce (NSCW), which was conducted in the late-1990s, found that 56.6% and 9.9% of the overall U.S. population experienced WIF and FIW conflict, respectively (Bellevia & Frone, 2005). These studies also demonstrate that work interfering with family conflict is much more prevalent than family interfering with work conflict (Bellevia & Frone, 2005; Frone, 2003).

Organizations can greatly benefit, from a business-case perspective, from taking actions to relieve their employees' work and family stress. Employee talent is a resource that can be a source of competitive advantage (Kossek & Friede, 2006). By offering family-friendly policies, such as flexible work hours or location, organizations can enhance organizational performance (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). This happens through increased competitiveness (i.e., better recruitment of top-talent individuals; Cascio & Young, 2005; Kossek & Friede, 2006), stock price/market performance (Cascio & Young, 2005; Kossek & Friede, 2006; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000), turnover (Friedman, 2001; Lewis & Taylor, 1996), absenteeism (Friedman, 2001), employee performance

(both task performance and citizenship behaviors; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Lambert, 2000; Kossek & Friede, 2006), and commitment (Berg, Kalleberg, & Appelbaum, 2003; Gibson, 2006; Kossek & Friede, 2006). Overall, offering family-friendly policies enhances the well-being of an organization and its employees and provides equal opportunity to women and those with dependents (Lewis, 1997).

In addition to parents, who are most prone to experience conflict between their work and family roles (Bellevia & Frone, 2005; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Frone, 2003), younger workers—including single, non-parent employees—expect employers to offer flexible arrangements and enact family-friendly practices (Marston, 2005). Many employees actually view family-friendly actions as a matter of corporate social responsibility. Over 90 percent of employees who participated in the "1997 Business Week's Work and Family Corporate Ranking" indicated that they felt workplaces should address work-family issues, and over 70 percent of participants declared that they felt their communities should respond (Litchfield & Bankert, 1998; Pitt-Catsouphes & Googins, 2005). Organizations are realizing that the company's reputation can be enhanced when key stakeholders (e.g., investors, customers) view the organization as giving back to society (Pitt-Catsouphes & Googins, 2005).

Work-family Enrichment

Although most of the work-family literature has focused on the negative aspects of engaging in multiple roles, there is research suggesting that engaging in multiple roles is positive and can be beneficial to an individual's well-being (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Hanson, Hammer, & Colton; 2006; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002; Thoits,

1983). This idea has been referred to as work-family facilitation (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005), work-family positive spillover (Hanson et al., 2006), expansionist theory (Barnett & Hyde, 2001), identity or role accumulation (Ruderman et al., 2002; Thoits, 1983) and enrichment (Carlson Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Rothbard, 2001; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006). Carlson et al. (2006) suggest that each of these similar constructs are distinct, so the term work-family enrichment will be used in this paper. Work-family enrichment is defined as "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life, namely performance or affect, in the other role" (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 132). Maintaining multiple roles can have a positive influence on a person's mental, physical, and relationship health because of many processes that occur as a function of holding various roles (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

This positive spillover can happen through an instrumental path or an affective path (Carlson et al., 2006). In the instrumental path, resources (e.g., skills, perspectives, flexibility, psychological and physical social-capital, and material resources) gained in one role *directly* improve performance in another role. For example, interpersonal skills learned outside of work can help a manger relate to his/her employees (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Hanson et al., 2006; Ruderman et al., 2002). Also, each additional role provides a greater opportunity for increased income, if the extra role is paid work (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). In the affective path, resources (e.g., skills, perspectives, flexibility, psychological and physical social-capital, and material resources) gained in one role *indirectly* influence performance in the other role by increasing positive affect (Carlson et al., 2006). For

example, positive affect, energy, self esteem and/or confidence derived in one role invigorate behavior in another role (Hanson et al., 2006; Ruderman et al., 2002). Also, positive experiences in one role create a buffer for failures in another role (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Thoits, 1983). The availability of social support (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Ruderman et al., 2002), the complexity of one's self-image (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Hanson et al., 2006; Thoits, 1983), and the opportunity to relate to others (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Hanson et al., 2006) is increased by holding multiple roles. Additionally, each additional role provides a greater opportunity for success and gratification (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

Similar to work-family conflict, work-family enrichment is bidirectional (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne et al., 2006). Experiences at work can enhance one's family life (i.e., work to family enrichment [WFE]), or experiences at home can enhance one's work life (i.e., family to work enrichment [FEW]). As an example of WFE, an employee who hones his/her negotiation skills through their sales position can use these techniques to successfully get his/her child to sleep. As an example of FWE, a good relationship with one's spouse and children can enhance an employee's mood while he/she is at work, making him/her easier to work with and more productive. Carlson et al. (2006) further broke each direction of work-family enrichment into three dimensions. Work to family enrichment is divided into development, affect, and capital, while family to work enrichment is divided into development, affect, and efficiency. Work-family development is defined as "when involvement in work leads to the acquisition or refinement of skills, knowledge, behaviors, or ways of viewing things that help an

individual be a better family member" (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 140). This factor refers to the intellectual and personal development of skills, knowledge, behaviors, and perspectives that are gained at work, which help that employee to succeed more in their nonwork life. Work-family affect is "when involvement in work results in a positive emotional state or attitude which helps the individual to be a better family member" (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 140). This facet of work-family enrichment refers to the mood and attitude gains from work that result in fulfilling family responsibilities more successfully. The last component of work to family enrichment is work-family capital, which occurs "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, p. 140). This dimension refers to the psychosocial capital gained at work that help an employee be a better parent or spouse. Family to work enrichment also includes a development and affect dimension, which refer to the same process as in work to family enrichment, but it is the intellectual, personal, or emotional resources gained in the family role that enhance the work role. Unique to this direction, FWE includes an efficiency dimension (as opposed to the psychosocial capital facet of WFE). Family-work efficiency 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, pp. 140-141).

These positive effects of the work-family interface have been linked to important work and nonwork outcomes. When employees enrich their life experiences by holding multiple roles, they have more positive affect (Wayne et al., 2006), better mental health

(Carlson et al., 2006; Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, & Shapiro, 2005; Hanson et al., 2006; Thompson & Prottas, 2005), better physical health (Hammer et al., 2005), higher levels of family satisfaction (Carlson et al., 2006; Hill, 2005; Thompson & Prottas, 2005), and higher levels of life satisfaction (Hill, 2005; Thompson & Prottas, 2005). On the organizational side, work-family facilitation creates higher levels of organizational commitment (Hill; 2005; Gordon, Whelan-Berry, & Hamilton, 2007; Wayne et al., 2006) and job satisfaction (Carlson et al., 2006; Gordon et al., 2007; Hanson et al., 2006; Hill, 2005; Thompson & Prottas, 2005), career satisfaction (Gordon et al., 2007), lower levels of turnover intentions (Wayne et al., 2006; Gordon et al., 2007; Thompson & Prottas, 2005).

Organizations can help employees cope with dual work and family pressures and help facilitate positive work-family spillover through both formal and informal methods. Formally, an organization can offer formal human resource policies that allow an employee to better care for nonwork responsibilities (e.g., flextime, on-site child care), as well as providing suitable employment conditions (e.g., pay, benefits). These policies and practices help employees physically and emotionally cope with their work and family struggles. Positive outcomes have been linked to formal organizational initiatives. For example, offering dependent care is related to high levels of job satisfaction (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002), better employee health (e.g., lower blood pressure; Thomas & Ganster, 1995), and lower turnover intentions (Anderson, S. et al., 2002). The ability for an employee to have a flexible schedule results in higher levels of job satisfaction (Anderson, S. et al., 2002; Thomas & Ganster, 1995), better health (Thomas & Ganster,

1995), lower work-family conflict (Anderson, S. et al., 2002), and lower stress (Anderson, S. et al., 2002). In addition to the formal organizational policies and practices, the informal means by which an organization supports its employees' conflicting work and family pressures, such as a supportive organizational climate and norms (Kossek & Friede, 2006), can be just as, or more, important than formal policies. The current study will focus on informal support, specifically work-family climate (as it is manipulated by leadership), as the organizational characteristic influencing employees' abilities to balance their work and family roles.

Work-family Climate

The construct of work-family climate, or how supportive an organizational workgroup is of the integration of its employees' work and family lives, has been referred to as culture (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999; Warren & Johnson, 1995), organizational perceptions (Allen, 2001; Jahn, Thompson, & Kopelman, 2003), and climate (Adams, Woolf, Castro, & Adler, 2005; Anderson, Morgan, & Wilson, 2002; Hannigan, 2004). There is much confusion in the literature about the meaning, operationalization, and distinction between climate and culture (Denison, 1996; Parker et al., 2003). Some researchers treat these variables as separate constructs (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003), while others consider them the same (Denison, 1996), and still others claim they are separate constructs, but treat them the same (Ashkanasy & Jackson, 2002). Many researchers state that culture and climate are derived from different perspectives and traditions, but acknowledge there is considerable overlap, especially when it comes to their measurement (Ashkanasy & Jackson, 2002; Denison, 1996; Ostroff et al., 2003).

Both culture and climate consist of understanding psychological phenomena in

organizations, and they both "rest upon the assumption of shared meanings—a shared

understanding of some aspect of the organizational context" (Ostroff et al., 2003, p. 565).

I suggest that organizational culture and climate stem from different traditions, although

they are getting at the same occurrence. Organizational culture refers to an evolved

context that is rooted in history, while climate reflects a situation that links to thoughts,

feelings, and behaviors of organizational members (Denison, 1996; Ostroff et al., 2003),

but these differences "should be viewed as differences in interpretation rather than

differences in phenomenon" (Denison, 1996, p. 645). Therefore, this paper will discuss

some of the culture literature, but will focus on work-family climate because of the

concentration and measurement of perceptions at the individual and work-group levels.

Parker and Hall (1992) noted that culture and climate are "ideas that almost beg to

be used in work-family inquiry" (p. 443). Work-family culture/climate is the "shared

assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports

and values the integration of employees' work and family lives" (Thompson et al., 1999,

p. 394). According to Schein (1990, 1992, 1999), there are three levels at which

culture/climate manifests itself: 1) artifacts; 2) values, strategies, and ideologies; and 3)

underlying assumptions. Artifacts are the most surface-level of the three levels and

include the physical and tangible demonstrations of the culture/climate; they are the

phenomena that one sees, hears, and feels when one encounters a new group with an

unfamiliar culture/climate (Schein, 1992). Some cultural/climate artifacts in an

organization include the physical layout, organizational policies, and company records

(Schein, 1990, Schein, 1999). In a work-family climate, family-friendly policies (e.g., telework, flexible scheduling, dependent care, paid maternity/paternity leave) serve as artifacts of a family-supportive climate (Kinnunen, Mauno, Geurts, & Dikkers, 2005; Lewis, 1997). These policies are surface-level indications that the organization intends to be supportive of employees' nonwork lives. Artifacts are palpable and are obvious to the external observer, but are not reliable indicators of the entire culture/climate (Schein, 1990). One must also be familiar with the values and underlying assumptions that govern thoughts, feelings, and behavior to truly understand the organizational culture/climate.

The middle-level in which organizational culture/climate manifests itself is in the values, strategies, ideologies, and philosophies of the organization (Schein, 1990; 1999). This level answers the question of what actually happens in the organization; the actions that people observe on a daily basis. Thompson et al.'s (1999) definition of work-family culture/climate identifies two important values underlying a work-family culture/climate: organizational time demands and perceived negative career consequences associated with using family-friendly policies. Organizational time demands include both expectations that employees prioritize work above family and pressures from the organization for employees to work long hours (Thompson et al., 1999). A supportive work-family climate is one in which organizations understand and support that a person's family is their first priority, even above the employee's work and the organization. Moreover, it is not a supportive climate when employees perceive a pressure to work long hours, including working late into the night and on weekends. The second work-family culture/climate dimension in Thompson et al.'s definition, perceived negative career

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consequences, implies that workers feel that utilizing work-life benefits portray they are not interested in advancement or are less committed to the organization. Policies are put in place to support and help a worker balance his or her work and family lives. When an organization's work-family climate discourages its employees from using these policies, the purpose and supportiveness of these policies is undermined. Both organizational time demands and negative career consequences demonstrate values of an organization—the middle level in which organizational culture/climate manifests itself. Companies that possess norms of working long hours and not utilizing family-friendly benefits value traditional workers—typically male—who prioritize work about all else and do not allow their nonwork lives to interfere with work.

Allen (2001) has a similar theory of work-family climate—termed Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions (FSOP)—which purports additional organizational values within a work-family climate. In addition to time demands, Allen's measure has items that tap values of flexibility and segmentation (Kinnunen et al., 2005). Flexibility refers to organizations offering flexibility in completing their work as a strategic way of doing business. In a flexible environment, employees are able to structure their own work, including their work schedule, place, and tasks. Also, a value of flexibility allows employees to take time off for unexpected nonwork responsibilities, such as a sick child. Organizations that value segmentation discourage employees to showcase their nonwork lives in the workplace (e.g., talking about one's family). A supportive work-family climate invites employees' family lives to be visible in the organization.

The deepest level in which organizational culture/climate manifests itself is in underlying assumptions or paradigms (Schein, 1990; 1992; 1999). These assumptions govern the thoughts and feelings of the organization and may start out as values before gradually being taken for granted over time (Kinnunen et al., 2005). The underlying assumptions of culture/climate answer the question of why people feel and behave the way they do in the organization (Schein, 1990). Through understanding these underlying assumptions, it is easier to identify the meanings of the observed artifacts (Schein, 1990). Lewis (2001) argued that the male model of work continues to govern most organizations today. In this model, there are four assumptions that underlie an unsupportive work-family climate. The first assumption that guides the thoughts and behavior of an organization is that traditional gender role division of labor is preferred. In this assumption, men are supposed to earn income by working outside the home and women are supposed to stay in the home to take care of family obligations. Male workers and those without family commitments are therefore valued because they conform to traditional gender roles. The second assumption in the male model of work is that a traditional, full-time work schedule is the norm and preferred (Lewis, 1997; Lewis, 2001). Employees who choose to work part-time or work non-traditional schedules are considered deviant from generally accepted practices and less committed to the organization. This type of work schedule may be considered second-class and is usually limited to females (Kinnunen et al., 2005), which perpetuates the male model of work (Lewis, 2001). The third assumption of an unhealthy work-family climate is that visibility is needed in the workplace and that long work hours reflect commitment to the

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organization (Lewis, 2001). This assumption condemns employees who make time to attend to their family responsibilities. Employees without a spouse or children are able to remain constantly visible in the organization by working long hours. The fourth and last assumption of an unhealthy work-family climate is that work-life policies and practices are favors, rather than rights. Employees who perceive these procedures to be favors may feel fortunate to have options, but feel that utilizing these options may result in decreased career advancement or other costs (Kinnunen et al., 2005). In a family-oriented work-family climate, employees feel a sense of entitlement for initiatives to help them cope with balancing their work and family demands (Lewis, 1997). These four paradigms lead to regarding male workers and those without family commitments higher than female employees and those with dependents (Kinnunen et al., 2005). A supportive work-family climate is one in which non-traditional gender roles are considered the norm, family-friendly practices are considered the right of employees, performance (rather than visibility) is a priority, and different work schedules are accepted and potentially encouraged.

It is important to consider more than just the artifacts of the work-family climate when assessing climate's relationship with key outcomes. Artifacts, such as family-friendly policies, are not enough to alone create positive work outcomes and employee well-being. Some organizations may have many work-life policies on the books, but at a deeper level may have contradictory values of time demands, negative career consequences, inflexibility, and/or segmentation. These deeper ideologies will undermine

the usefulness of the policies because employees will not feel they are allowed or feel they will be penalized for using the policies.

Managerial support has been considered as its own dimension of work-family climate/culture (Thompson et al., 1999). Supervisors often represent the entire organization to their employees (Allen, 2001, Aselage, Sucharski, Eisenberger, & Stinglhamber, 2006). Managers frequently report evaluations of their subordinates to upper management, which further authenticates the supervisor as being symbolic of the organization (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore, when a supervisor is supportive of his/her employee, the employee perceives the organization as being supportive because of the symbolic role of the supervisor. Managers certainly influence the work-family climate, but it is through specific behaviors and styles that leaders influence perceptions of the climate. Supervisors' and executives' actions are the overt manifestations of the values and assumptions of the organization (i.e., the two deeper levels of organizational culture/climate). Therefore, management should be examined as being a proximal and strong influence of employee perceptions of the organizational work-family climate. Not much research has studied the specific leader behaviors and their influence on nonwork outcomes. Studies that do consider this relationship have only scratched the surface and usually look at general supervisor support of employees' abilities to balance work and family commitments. This paper delves into this relationship and specifically investigates how leader behaviors that have traditionally been the focus of the leadership literature relate to both work and nonwork outcomes.

Just as organizational culture/climate influences many important organizational outcomes (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003), so does work-family climate. A climate supportive of employee integration of work and family does not allow negative career consequences to result from using family-friendly benefits. Therefore, employees are more likely to use family-friendly benefits (e.g., parental leave, dependent care, flexible scheduling) in supportive climate (Allen, 2001; Dikkers, den Dulk, Geurts, & Peper, 2004; Haas, Allard, & Hwang, 2002; Thompson et al., 1999). Having a supportive climate and perceiving the ability to use these work-life organizational policies help employees physically and emotionally juggle multiple life roles, resulting in lower levels of work-family conflict (Adams et al., 2005; Allen, 2001; Anderson, S. et al., 2002; Behson, 2002; Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino & Rosner, 2005; Galinsky, Bond, & Friedman, 1996; Hill, 2005; O'Driscoll, Poelmans, Spector, Kalliath, Allen, Cooper, et al., 2003, Thompson et al., 1999; Thompson & Prottas, 2005), higher levels of work-family balance (Mauno, Kinnunen & Pittulainen, 2005; Dikkers et al., 2004), and lower levels of stress and strain (Anderson, S. et al., 2002; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Thompson & Prottas, 2005). Supportive work-family climates make companies more pleasant places to work and signal to the employees that the organization is willing to look after the well-being of its personnel (Kinnuenen et al., 2005). Supporting this notion, empirical research has found that a supportive work-family climate results in increased job satisfaction (Allen, 2001; Anderson, S. et al., 2002; Bragger et al., 2005; Galinsky, Bond, & Friedman, 1993; Hill, 2005; Mauno et al., 2005; Thompson & Prottas, 2005), increased positive job-related mood experiences (Mauno et al., 2005), and

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increased positive spillover from home to work and vice versa (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). A healthy work-family climate also has direct benefits on the organization. Supporting employees' lives outside the organization results in increased organizational commitment (Allen, 2001; Galinsky et al., 1993; Hannigan, 2004; Lyness, Thompson, Francesco, & Judiesch, 1999; Hill, 2005; O'Neill, Harrison, Cleveland, Almeida, Stawski, Snead, et al. 2007; Thompson et al., 1999), increased organizational citizenship behaviors (Bragger et al., 2005; Clark, 2001), decreased turnover intentions (Allen, 2001; Anderson, S. et al., 2002; O'Neill et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 1999; Thompson & Prottas, 2005), decreased absenteeism (Anderson, S. et al., 2002), lower levels of burnout (Galinsky et al., 1993), and increased organizational performance (Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001). Social exchange theory can be used to explain these positive organizational outcomes: workers who receive informal family supports will reciprocate with increased commitment, motivation, and performance to the organization (Colton, 2004). These important outcomes that result from work-family climate demonstrate that informal supports are a critical construct to study, especially given the significance placed on these matters in today's organizations.

A healthy work-family climate can not only help avoid negative employee attitudes and consequences, it can also foster employee well-being. Very little research has examined the how work-family climate can enhance employees' experiences of their work and family lives (Colton, 2004). As discussed previously, a healthy work-family climate creates a positive mood at work (Mauno et al., 2005). This positive mood may spillover into and enrich other areas of employees' lives (Thompson & Prottas, 2005).

There is evidence that the presences of family-friendly policies increases employees

levels of work to family facilitation. Hill (2005) found that offering flexible benefits

helped employees experience higher levels of work to family facilitation/enrichment, but

these policies had no effect on family to work enrichment. Similarly, Thompson &

Prottas (2005) found that the availability of family benefits (e.g., onsite dependent care,

financial assistance with dependent care) significantly increased levels of positive

spillover between employees' work and family roles, however the availability of

alternative schedule benefits (e.g., flextime, telecommuting) did not significantly related

to positive spillover in their study.

A few studies have also examined the relationship between the values of a

supportive work-family climate and work-family enrichment. Thompson & Prottas

(2005) and Gordon et al. (2007) found that more supportive work-family climates create

higher levels of work-family facilitation from work to home. Thompson & Prottas further

found that work-family culture/climate positively predicted facilitation from home to

work. Additionally, Wayne et al. (2006) found that high levels of organizational time

demands (i.e., a value of an unhealthy work-family climate) significantly decreased one's

level of work to family enrichment and family to work enrichment. The authors suggest

that climate's effect on work to family enrichment happens because the informal work-

family supports generate positive affect in employees, which spills over into employees'

nonwork lives.

Leadership

Leadership and work-family issues have been two frequently studied phenomenon in Industrial/Organizational Psychology in the past twenty years, though very little research has examined the intersection between these two fields (Harrison, Jones, Cleveland, & O'Neill, 2007). The majority of leadership research has aimed at predicting work outcomes, mostly around a leader's ability to facilitate high levels of worker involvement, motivation, and performance in their subordinates and organization (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Yukl, 2006). For example, transformational leadership is characterized by motivating and inspiring followers to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2002). Increased motivation and hard work are beneficial for the organization, in that it leads to increased job performance, but these processes may take away from employees' families. Workers are contributing more time and energy—both of which are finite resources—into organizational tasks, which take time and energy away from fulfilling family responsibilities.

Leadership and Culture/Climate

Organizational culture/climate is a group- or organizational-level phenomenon that is defined as "a pattern of basic assumptions, invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore is to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein, 1990, p. 111). This shared social knowledge guides the behavior and decisions of employees (Tsui et al., 2006).

Most leadership and culture/climate researchers agree about the link between leadership and culture/climate, although not much detailed conceptual or empirical evidence has examined this link (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989). Leadership is an important factor in the determination of culture and climate, such that leadership processes help employee's form and maintain perceptions of culture and climate (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Schein, 1992; Zohar & Luria, 2005). This link dates back to the research of Lewin, Lippit, and White (1939), further replicated by Litwin and Stringer (1968), who manipulated leader behavioral styles and observed differences in employee perceptions. Other researchers have found further empirical support for leadership's influence on culture and climate perceptions (Barling, Loughlin, & Kelloway, 2002; Gonzalez-Roma, Peiro, & Tordera, 2002; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Tsui, Zhang, Wang, Xin, & Wu, 2006). Conceptually, Smircich and Morgan (1982) argued that the essence of leadership is to influence perceptions of their subordinates. Through their consistent pattern of behavior, leaders set forth mental frameworks or structures for identifying or understanding things, actors, events, and situations within the organization (Michela & Burke, 2000), which becomes normative and integrated into the organization's culture/climate (Avolio & Bass, 1995).

Schein (1992) discusses that organizational culture/climate is created through three sources: 1) the beliefs, values, and assumptions of the founders of the organization; 2) the beliefs, values, and assumptions of leaders in the organization, and 3) the learning experiences of employees as the organization evolves. Because this paper focuses on leadership's influence on culture/climate, the learning experiences of employees as the

organization evolves will not be discussed here beyond what they learn from leaders'

deliberate and unconscious actions. The organizational founders are one of the strongest

influences of organizational culture/climate (Schein 1983, 1992). Founders provide initial

answers to the questions employees have about how to operate internally and externally.

Organizational founders usually have strong opinions about the appropriate ways the

group should work and function and these founders usually select employees who agree

with these beliefs. If these opinions are wrong, the group usually fails early in the

formation process, but those founders with successful theories on how to operate create

strong culture/climates that reflect their original beliefs, values, and assumptions (Schein,

1983, 1992). Founders are most influential of culture/climate in the early, formation

stages of the organization.

In addition to the founder, the senior-, middle-, and lower-level leaders play an

important role in the formation and maintenance of organizational climate and culture.

Leaders throughout the organization execute conscious, deliberate actions and

unconscious, unintended behaviors that communicate and embed values and assumptions

in the thinking, feeling, and behaviors of organizations (Tsui et al., 2006). Schein (1990,

1992) lists six primary embedding mechanisms through which leaders shape the

organizational culture/climate. First, what the leaders pay attention to, comment,

question, measure, and control on a daily basis sends a clear message to employees of

that leader's priorities, values, and beliefs. Secondly, the leaders' reactions to critical

incidents and organizational crises create new norms, values, and working processes and

reveal important underlying assumptions. This happens because crises create heightened

arousal and anxiety, making learning more prevalent. Thirdly, the criteria for which resources are allocated shape the cultural perceptions of employees (Schein, 1992). For example, money and other resources that are invested into risky business ventures signal entrepreneurial values and embed this value into the culture/climate over time. Fourthly, leaders' visible actions through deliberate role modeling, teaching, and coaching communicate assumptions and values to employees, especially newcomers to the organization (Schein, 1992). Fifthly, the observed criteria for allocation of rewards and status convey the culture/climate of the organization. Employees experience and view who gets promoted, rewarded, or punished and they have discussions with their boss in performance appraisals and on a daily, informal basis. These experiences teach workers what is rewarded and what is punished, which stem from values and assumptions of the organizational culture/climate. Lastly, the criteria for recruitment, selection, promotion, retirement, and excommunication reveal the values and assumptions of the organizational culture/climate. Leaders often unconsciously recruit and select individuals who align with cultural values. These assumptions are further perpetuated though who gets promoted, who retires early, and who is excommunicated, either by being fired or by being socially or professionally ostracized. Tsui et al. (2006) empirically support the notion that leaders at all levels, including CEO and middle-managers, can influence and create a strong, integrated culture/climate.

Leadership and Work-Family Climate

Leadership behavior can have mixed effects on employee perceptions of how supportive the organization and work group are of employees balancing their work and

family lives. Various models of leadership (e.g., transformational leadership, path-goal theory, leader-member exchange) suggest that leaders act in ways that empower and inspire increased work motivation in subordinates (Zaccaro, Ely, & Nelson, in press). These theories focus on creating meaningful work for subordinates and encouraging them allocate more energy into their daily tasks and to perform beyond expectations. These views of leadership that promote worker motivation and involvement may in turn reduce employees' ability to be involved in their family or nonwork activities. These same leadership theories also suggest that leaders act in considerate ways, addressing the individual needs of subordinates, creating more supportive, flexible environments, which help employees to better bridge the work-nonwork boundary. Research examining the relationship between leader-member relations and work-family outcomes found mixed results, with some showing a negative relationship (Bernas & Major, 2000) and some finding a positive relationship (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Mauno & Kinnunen, 1999; Meert & Major, 2006). Since leadership behaviors are multidimensional (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Maslyn, 1998), these mixed results support the possibility of some behaviors aiding in employees' perceptions of work-family support and work-family balance, while other leader behaviors impeding employees' abilities to cope with simultaneous work and family demands. Thus, leaders behave in ways that create countervailing expectations for work and family. This dissertation explores this dueling dynamic in detail. Specifically, this paper expands on the existing research by examining two functions of leadership (i.e., inspirational and work empowering leader behaviors and

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considerate leader behaviors) as they relate to perceptions of a family-supportive work-family climate and to work-family conflict and enrichment.

Inspirational and Work Empowering Leader Behaviors

A major aspect of leadership is work empowerment. Work empowering leader behaviors give followers a vision, increased responsibility, and gets them excited for their work (Bass, 1998). These behaviors create expectations for employees to prioritize work above nonwork, work long hours, and to segment family from interfering with work tasks. Several leadership theories describe how leaders inspire and empower followers to be more engaged in work, and thus more motivated to perform at high levels. First, transformational leadership theory describes charismatic leaders who inspire and intellectually stimulate their employees to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1995; Bass 1998). Second, path-goal theory postulates an achievement-oriented leader who inspires subordinates to strive for higher standards of performance (House & Mitchell, 1997). Thirdly, leader-member exchange theory (LMX), in part, describes a leader who provides necessary resources, information, and attractive work assignments to subordinates, empowering subordinates to produce high quality and efficient work (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). All three of these theories focus on inspiring and motivating subordinates to allocate more time and energy into their work responsibilities, thus creating a shared expectation among employees (i.e., a climate) that high levels of motivation and work are expected. Consequently, work empowerment aids in producing work outcomes, such as increased performance, however, it impedes employees' abilities to cope with simultaneous family responsibilities. I will detail out

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the theoretical underpinnings of inspirational and work empowering leadership behaviors,

as described in transformational leadership, path-goal, and leader-member exchange

theories.

Transformational leadership theory discusses how leaders articulate a vision of

the future that is shared with peers and followers and intellectually stimulate subordinates

(Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). These leaders

empower their subordinates to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985). Bass (1985,

1998) discussed how transformational leadership encompasses, in part, 1) charismatic

leadership/idealized influence; 2) inspirational motivation, and 3) intellectual stimulation.

Charismatic leadership is demonstrated by a leader's ability to be admired, respected,

trusted, and to serve as a role model to their subordinates. These leaders have high moral

and ethical standards, which are shown in their actions. Followers identify with these

leaders and want to emulate them (Bass, 1998). Inspirational motivation is characterized

by leaders who inspire enthusiasm and excitement in their followers by providing

meaning and challenge to their subordinates work (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). These

inspirational leaders provide clear expectations and goals for their followers based on a

shared vision of a better future state (e.g., higher organizational performance; Bass,

1998). Intellectual stimulation of employees' work is generated by challenging the status

quo. Transformational leaders stimulate innovation in their followers, encouraging

creativity and new ideas in a non-threatening environment. These types of leaders

evaluate situations in new ways and try to reframe problems and promote this behavior in

their subordinates (Bass, 1998). All these behaviors of transformational leadership

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increase the emotional attachment to the leader and work tasks, empowering subordinates

to increase levels of motivation, task performance, and other work outcomes (Shamir,

House, & Arthur, 1993).

Path-goal theory of leadership proposes that effective leaders "engage in

behaviors that complement subordinates' environments and abilities in a manner that

compensates for deficiencies and is instrumental to subordinate satisfaction and

individual and work unit performance" (House, 1996, p. 323). Like transformational

leadership theory, the behaviors of leaders inspire and empower subordinates to fully

engage in work responsibilities. In path-goal theory, the role of the leader is to provide

information, support, and resources over and above what the formal organization

provides in order to increase subordinate motivation and performance (House, 1996).

Path-goal theory is examined, in part, by considering achievement-oriented leader

behaviors (House, 1996; House & Mitchell, 1974; House & Mitchell, 1997).

Achievement-oriented behavior encourages outstanding performance by setting

challenging goals, encouraging improvement, emphasizing excellence in performance,

and being confident that subordinates will perform at high levels (House, 1996).

Achievement-oriented leadership causes followers to strive for higher performance levels

and to have more confidence in their ability to meet challenging goals (House &

Mitchell, 1997).

Leader-member exchange (LMX) is a dydadic leadership theory, which suggests

that leaders do not use the same style in dealing with all subordinates; they develop a

different type of exchange relationship with each subordinate (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Those high in LMX receive greater opportunities, latitude, and support in exchange for their loyalty, effort, and heightened responsibility (Dansereau et al., 1975; Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, & Tepper, 1992). LMX theory, in addition to transformational leadership and path-goal theories, discusses how leaders inspire and empower their followers to be more involved in their work. LMX postulates a contribution dimension, which is the perception of the amount, direction, and quality of work-oriented activity each member puts forth toward mutual goals (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Leaders judge each subordinate's performance on delegated tasks and thus, leaders have higher quality relationships with employees who accept and perform well on instructions entrusted by the leader. Leaders inspire subordinates to produce high quality and efficient work by allocating physical resources (e.g., budget, materials, equipment), information, and attractive work assignments to those in their in-group (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). This exchange invigorates employees to be more motivated and perform better on work-related tasks (Liden & Graen, 1980; Wayne & Green, 1993).

Very little research to the author's knowledge has linked inspirational and work empowering leadership behaviors with nonwork outcomes. This dissertation extends both the leadership and work-family literatures by investigating specific leader behaviors, beyond leadership's effect on work outcomes and general supervisor support for work-family, and their influence on the most popular work-family outcomes. I suggest that inspirational and work empowering behaviors—which have been shown to relate to many positive *job* outcomes (Bass, 1998; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2002)—may have an adverse effect on perceptions of work-family climate and nonwork outcomes. Employees

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are inspired to take on additional and higher levels of work responsibilities and to feel

more committed to their jobs and organizations. Because time and energy are finite

resources, this increased commitment comes at a cost of nonwork-related responsibilities.

Inspiration and work empowerment leadership behaviors motivate and inspire

subordinates by providing meaning to their work, enhancing subordinate commitment to

goals, and creating a shared expectation that employees will work hard on job tasks.

These leader behaviors invigorate employee motivation to tackle problems that were

previously unsolved in a new way and to strive for higher standards of performance,

channeling personal efforts to serve the organization rather than the individual. Time is a

finite resource and through inspirational leader behaviors from their immediate

supervisor, employees are empowered and have the expectation to put more effort and

time into their work tasks, which inherently takes time away from family responsibilities.

This may cause shared perceptions at the work-group level of high time demands (Allen,

2001; Thompson et al., 1999), such as the need to work more than 50 hours per week,

including at night and on the weekends. These expectations to be involved in work also

create a work-group climate of prioritizing work over family (Allen, 2001; Thompson et

al., 1999). Employees who are overtly committed to their family may be viewed as not

committed to the organization or work group. Similarly, supervisors focused on work

empowerment may impose negative career consequences to those who use family-

friendly policies because the leaders may perceive them as not focusing on achievement

of task performance. Thus, I suggest that inspiration and work empowerment leadership

behaviors are negatively associated with perceptions of a work-family climate that is accommodating to employees' work and family needs.

> *Hypothesis 1: Inspirational and work empowering leader behaviors are negatively related to perceptions of a work-family climate that is supportive of the integration of its employees' work and family lives.*

Work empowering leadership behaviors also have an indirect influence on employee's levels of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. As previously hypothesized, these inspirational leader behaviors have a convincing negative effect on employee perceptions of work-family climate. A negative work-family climate, in turn, strongly relates to higher levels of employees' work-family conflict (Thompson et al., 1999) and lower levels of work-family enrichment (Gordon et al., 2007). Allen (2001) found that family supportive organizational perceptions (i.e., work-family climate) mediates the relationship between supportive leadership and work-family conflict, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Hence, leaders act in a way that enhances employee perceptions of the work-family climate, which in turn produces positive organizational outcomes. Further supporting the mediating effect of work-family climate, Adams et al. (2005) found that perceptions of family supportiveness mediate the relationship between leader effectiveness and work-family conflict. Thus, I expect perceptions of work-family climate to partially mediate the relationship between inspirational and work empowering leader behaviors and nonwork outcomes.

Hypothesis 2a: Perceptions of work-family climate mediate the relationship

between inspirational/work empowering leader behaviors and work-family

conflict.

Hypothesis 2b: Perceptions of work-family climate mediates the relationship

between inspirational/work empowering leader behaviors and work-family

enrichment.

Considerate Leader Behaviors

Another core leadership function is consideration. The three previously discussed

leadership theories (i.e., transformational leadership, path-goal theory, and leader-

member exchange) also purport that leaders should be considerate and take into account

the individual needs and desires of subordinates. Path-goal theory centers around

supportive leadership, in which the role of the leaders is to provide information, support,

and resources according to subordinate needs (House, 1996). Transformational leadership

theory discusses that leaders realize and focus on the individual differences of employees

(i.e., individualized consideration; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996;

Yammarino & Bass, 1990). Lastly, leader member exchange theory (LMX) asserts an

affect dimension, which describes mutual liking behaviors between a leader and his/her

follower (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Path-goal theory of leadership proposes that effective leaders "engage in

behaviors that complement subordinates' environments and abilities in a manner that

compensates for deficiencies and is instrumental to subordinate satisfaction and

individual and work unit performance" (House, 1996, p. 323). The role of the leader is to

provide information, support, and resources over and above what the formal organization

provides (House, 1996). Path-goal theory is examined, in part, by considering supportive

leadership (House, 1996; House & Mitchell, 1974; House & Mitchell, 1997). Supportive

leadership describes a leader who is friendly and approachable, shows concern for the

well-being and needs of his/her subordinates, and behaves in a way that makes the work

more pleasant for subordinates (e.g., treats members as equals; House & Mitchell, 1997).

Supportive leaders display concern for subordinate's welfare and create a psychologically

supportive work environment (House, 1996). Supportive leaders are considerate, and thus

gain friendship and loyalty from their followers (Yukl, 2006).

Transformational leadership theory discusses that leaders realize and focus on the

individual differences of employees, which is outlined in the individualized consideration

dimension (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

Individualized consideration is very similar to supportive leadership, as described in path-

goal theory. Transformational leaders give attention to each of their follower's individual

needs and desires (Bass, 1998; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Through this mentorship role,

transformational leaders tailor their behaviors to the needs and desires of their

subordinates (e.g., one follower is given more direction, another more autonomy, and

another more encouragement). Through these behaviors, leaders foster a supportive

environment that generates learning opportunities and growth in their followers.

Lastly, leader member exchange theory (LMX), like path-goal theory and

transformational leadership theory, suggest that successful leaders are considerate toward

their followers. LMX specifically suggests an affect dimension, in which there is mutual

affection between the leader and subordinate (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). This liking is based solely on interpersonal attraction, rather than anything related to work. High affect between a leader and follower indicates that they are friends. Friends look out for and try to improve each other's well-being, which includes their ability to balance their multiple life roles.

Considerate leaders, at all levels of the organization, help decrease employees' work-family conflict, stress, and strain by being supportive emotionally, as well as actively by being understanding and using discretion to allow employees the flexibility they need. The majority of the research that has studied leadership's influence on nonwork outcomes has examined supervisor or managerial support (e.g., Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007; Hopkins, Kossek, & Lambert, 2005), and the results have been quite positive with regard to work and nonwork outcomes. Those with supportive supervisors tend to report less work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Anderson, S. et al., 2002; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999); less depression (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), less stress (Anderson S. et al., 2002), higher benefit utilization (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999), and better health (Greenberger, Goldberg, Hamill, O'Neil & Payne, 1989; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Considerate leader behaviors create a warm, caring environment for subordinates. These leaders care for the welfare of their followers and work to improve their well-being (House, 1996). They also take an individualized approach in attending to followers' needs, listening to followers' concerns, and acting as mentors or coaches (Bass, 1985,

1998). Considerate supervisors foster the expectation that employees can place effort on their family role, creating a work-group climate that allows employees the flexibility to cope with nonwork demands. The supervisor support research has generated much evidence that considerate leader behaviors relate to perceptions of a family-oriented work-family climate (Thompson et al., 1999; Hammer et al., 2007). Supportive supervisors provide individualized instrumental support (i.e., behavioral support), by allowing flexibility in how employees' balance their work and nonwork roles and allowing employees to use utilize work-life policies, such as telework, without imposing negative career consequences (Hammer et al., 2007). In additional to instrumental support, considerate leaders also provide individualized emotional support to followers, making them feel cared for and comfortable. These supervisors are likely to ask employees about their family or nonwork roles and allow employees to talk about their family in the workplace. Also, considerate leaders serve as role models of supportive behavior (Hammer et al., 2007). These leaders will allow their employees to see that they also have lives outside the organization. Unsupportive supervisors are likely to demand that work be the only priority in an employee's life and they will serve as role models by putting work in the center of their own lives. When supervisors exhibit family-friendly behavior, employees perceive their work unit and organization as supportive of their own ability to achieve work-family balance. Thus, I suggest that considerate leader behaviors create positive perceptions of a work-family climate supportive of the integration of employees' work and family lives.

Hypothesis 3: Considerate leader behaviors are positively related to perceptions of work-family climate that is supportive of the integration of its employees' work and family lives.

As with inspiration and work empowering leadership behaviors, I suggest an indirect relationship between considerate leader behaviors and work-family outcomes, such as work-family conflict and work-family facilitation. I have hypothesized a direct relationship between considerate leader behaviors and perceptions of work-family climate, and in turn, work-family climate has been shown to relate to work-family conflict (Thompson et al., 1999) and work-family enrichment (Gordon et al., 2007). Some research has examined a direct relationship between considerate leader behaviors and work-family outcomes. Youngcourt et al. (2008) found a significant negative relationship between LMX affect (i.e., considerate leader behaviors) and work-family conflict and a significant positive relationship between LMX affect and work-family facilitation. Meert & Major (2006) empirically found a negative relationship between overall LMX, including consideration behaviors, and work-family conflict. Supervisor support has been shown to relate to work-family conflict (Frye & Breaugh, 2004; O'Driscoll et al., 2003) and work-family enrichment (Hill, 2005), though I suggest that these leadership behaviors affect work-family outcomes, in part, because of leadership's influence on the work-family climate of an organization. Thus, I suggest that perceptions of a work-family climate mediate the relationship between considerate leader behaviors and nonwork outcomes.

Hypothesis 4a: Perceptions of a work-family climate mediate the relationship between considerate leader behaviors and work-family conflict.

Hypothesis 4b: Perceptions of a work-family climate mediate the relationship between considerate leader behaviors and work-family enrichment.

Role Salience

Individuals vary on the importance they ascribe to life roles, such as their work or their family (Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986). This importance is referred to as role salience, and it influences one's beliefs about the personal relevance of a role, the standards of performance within that role, and the manner in which personal resources (e.g., time, money, energy) are devoted to that role (Amatea et al., 1986; Lobel & St. Clair, 1992). High role salience is marked by placing a high value on the role (i.e., the extent to which the role is an important means of one's self-definition and/or their personal satisfaction; Amatea et al., 1986) and high levels of commitment devoted to the role (i.e., the extent to which a person willingly commits personal resources to perform successfully in that role; Amatea et al., 1986).

The incorporation of role salience into the work-family literature is essential because role value and salience is central to organizing meaning and action for working people (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000). Researchers have found that higher levels of work-role salience (Frone & Rice; 1987; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz, & Beutell, 1989; Aryee & Luk, 1996) and family-role salience (Stoner, Hartman, & Arora, 1990-91) result in increased levels of work-family conflict. Similarly, Wayne et al. (2006) and Carlson et al. (2006) found that the more important a role was to a person's

identity, the more work-family enrichment that person experienced from that role to the other. These demonstrate that greater amounts of value and commitment in one role lead to increased levels of work-family conflict and enrichment.

In addition to the direct effect on nonwork outcomes, role salience can act as a moderator, such that positive or negative experiences occurring in that role exacerbate the negative/positive effects on an individual's well-being (Noor, 2004). When more time and emotions are invested into a certain role, there is more opportunity for one to experience negative or positive events (Wayne et al., 2006). Also, the occurrences in one role are likely to impact a person more heavily when the person is more invested in that role. For example, when an individual who has a high level of value and commitment in their marital role gets in a fight with his/her spouse, that person is likely to be more upset by that fight than someone not invested in the marital role.

Carlson and Kacmar (2000) examined how role values moderated the relationship between work and family antecedents and work-family conflict. They found that when family is more salient, antecedents from the work domain have a greater impact on conflict and satisfaction. Likewise, when work is more salient, antecedents from the family domain have a greater impact on conflict and satisfaction (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000). This demonstrates that individuals who are high on role salience in one role are more sensitive to sources of conflict in the other domain. For example, individuals with high occupational-role salience are more sensitive and experience more conflict when they experience family time demands (e.g., his/her child is demanding a lot of time to

potty-train) because it takes time and energy away from the work role (to which they are more devoted).

The intersection of work and family is especially important for those who have high role salience in both their work and nonwork roles. When one has high levels of role salience simultaneously in both their work role and their family role, it increases the chance for conflict between these roles. Individuals who are high in occupational-role salience and low in family-role salience will not have as many issues in balancing their work and family roles. They are likely to devote more time and energy to their work role and are not as concerned with their nonwork role. Time pressures and inflexibility experienced at work are less of a concern to these types of individuals. They are unlikely to need or want to utilize family-friendly policies because they do not value and are not committed to the family role, and so negative career consequences associated with using work-life policies are not distressing, and are possibly not noticed, for this type of person. Likewise, individuals who have high levels of family-role salience and low levels of occupational-role salience do not have as many issues when trying to balance multiple roles. These types of individuals are very concerned with family and are less concerned with work. Therefore, they will be less distressed when supervisors impose intense time demands or negative career consequences associated with utilizing family-friendly policies because they are not concerned with impressing their boss or devoting resources to their work role. It is the individuals who highly value and are committed to *both* their work and family roles that face the greatest challenge trying to balance their work and family responsibilities. These individuals are distraught when time demands and

inflexibility are imposed because these practices take time away from their family responsibilities, but they concurrently feel the need to adhere to the pressures to keep a good reputation and perform well at work. Similarly, distress occurs when leaders enforce negative career consequences associated with using work-life policies because dually-committed individuals want to both excel in their career as well as make time for their nonwork lives. Frone and Rice (1987) tested the interaction between family and job salience on work-family conflict and found that job and spouse involvement (i.e., salience) significantly interacts to produce higher levels of job-spouse conflict. Thus, those who have high levels of both job and spouse salience are more likely to experience work-family conflict because of a family-unsupportive work-family climate than those who value only one role.

> *Hypothesis 5: A three-way interaction between family-role salience, occupational-role salience, and perceptions of a work-family climate in predicting work to family conflict, such that employees with high levels of both family- and occupational-role salience will have a stronger negative relationship between a family-supportive work-family climate and work-family conflict.*

Similarly, I expect a healthy work-family climate to lead to greater levels of work-family enrichment for those who have high levels of both occupational- and family-role salience. These individuals who are dually committed spend a lot of time and energy both at work and at home. This creates greater opportunity and motivation for the individuals to gain resources (e.g., skills, perspectives, or material resources) or affective benefits (e.g., self-esteem, energy, confidence) in one role that can transfer to another role

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(Carlson et al., 2006; Ruderman et al., 2002). Also, since these individuals are invested in both roles, positive experiences in one role are more likely to create a buffer for failures in another role (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Thoits, 1983). Those that are only committed to one role will not be able to compensate for a negative experience in their valued role. Also, those who are strongly committed in both the work and nonwork realm are more likely to appreciate the ability to balance these roles because of a supportive work-family climate, leading to higher levels of life satisfaction. For these reasons, I propose that individuals who highly value and are highly committed to both their work and family roles will have a stronger relationship between perceptions of a work-family climate and work-family enrichment.

> *Hypothesis 6: A three-way interaction between family-role salience, occupational-role salience, and work-family climate in predicting work to family enrichment, such that employees with high levels of both family- and occupational-role salience will have a stronger positive relationship between a family-supportive work-family climate and work-family enrichment.*

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Figure C1.
Leadership's Influence on Work-Family Climate and Work and Nonwork Outcomes
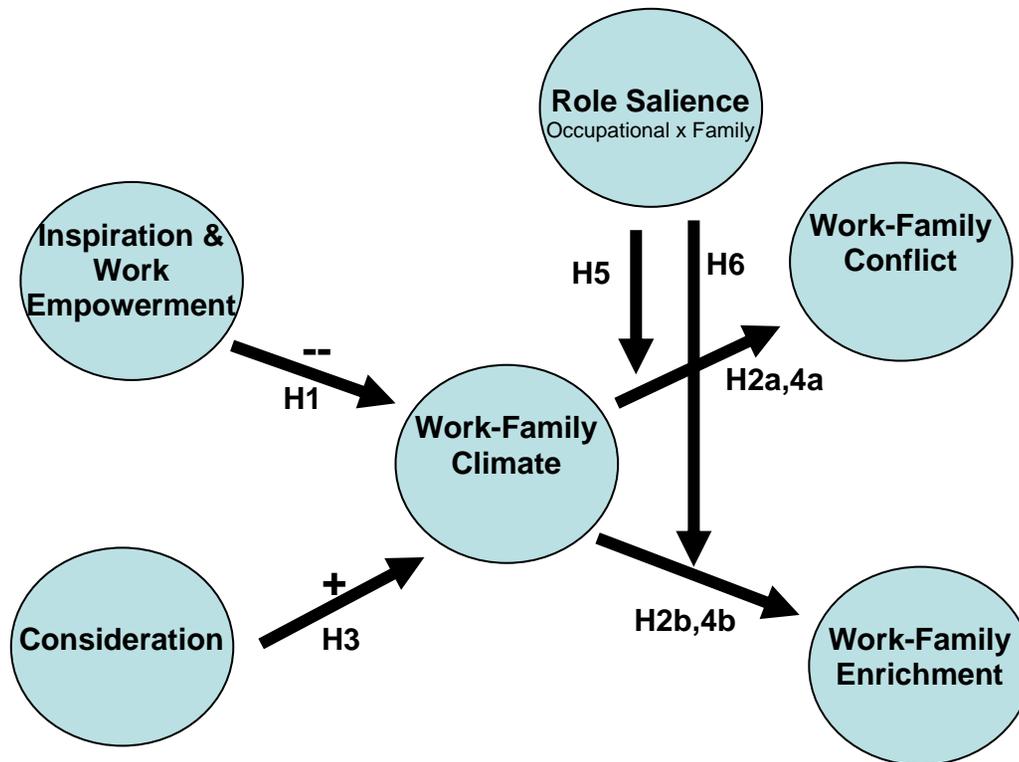
APPENDIX D: ADDITIONAL ANALYSES

Results

Additional research questions were examined based on my dissertation proposal.

First, I used structural equation modeling to test work-family climate as a mediator of

leader behaviors (work-empowering leader behaviors high performance expectations,

work-empowering leader behaviors intellectual stimulation, and considerate leader

behaviors) and work-family enrichment (WFE). This hypothesis is similar to hypothesis

3, but looks at work-family enrichment, a positive aspect of the work-family interface, as

the outcome variable instead of work interfering with family conflict (WIF). This

mediated model was compared to the saturated model. The mediated model ($\chi^2_{med}(895)$ =

2478.75) is significantly different than the saturated model ($\chi^2_{sat}(892)$ = 2449.61; $\Delta\chi^2(3)$

= 29.14, p <.05), suggesting that the mediated model is not the best fitting model to the

data. There is some variance in work-family enrichment that is explained through the

direct effects of leader behaviors in addition to the indirect effects through perceptions of

work-family climate.

Additionally, I tested occupational and nonwork role salience as moderators of the

work-family climate and WIF/WFE relationships. Hierarchical multiple regression was

used to test for moderation effects. To test role salience as a moderator of the work-

family climate and WIF relationship (hypothesis 5 described in Appendix C), WIF was

first regressed on nonwork-role salience, occupational-role salience, and work-family

climate (ΔR^2 = .35, F (3, 292) = 51.29, p <.05). Neither occupational role salience (β = -

.08, $t = -1.55$, $p = .12$) nor nonwork role salience ($\beta = -.01$, $t = -.20$, $p = .84$) were individually significantly related to WIF, but work-family climate ($\beta = -.57$, $t = -11.99$, $p < .05$) does have a significant negative relationship with WIF. This significant relationship between perceptions of work-family climate and WIF has been established in the work-family literature (e.g., Allen, 2001). In the next step of the hierarchical regression, WIF was regressed on each of the three two-way interaction factors ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F (3, 289) = .64$, $p = .59$). These results indicate that neither occupational role salience nor nonwork role salience interact with work-family climate in predicting work interfering with family conflict. Lastly, WIF was regressed on the three-way interaction term ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F (1, 288) = .60$, $p = .44$). These results indicate that there is not a significant three-way interaction between occupational role salience, nonwork role salience, and perceptions of work-family climate in predicting WIF.

This three way interaction between occupational role salience, nonwork role salience, and perceptions of work-family climate was also tested in predicting work to family enrichment (WFE). In the first step of the hierarchical multiple regression, WFE was regressed on nonwork-role salience, occupational-role salience, and work-family climate ($\Delta R^2 = .26$, $F (3, 292) = 33.30$, $p < .05$). Contrary to the previous analyses, occupational role salience ($\beta = .17$, $t = 3.29$, $p < .05$), nonwork role salience ($\beta = .25$, $t = 4.94$, $p < .05$), and work-family climate ($\beta = .38$, $t = 7.43$, $p < .05$) are all individually significantly related to WFE. In the next step of the hierarchical regression, WFE was regressed on each of the three two-way interaction factors ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F (3, 289) = .44$, $p = .72$). These results indicate that neither occupational role salience nor nonwork role

salience interact with work-family climate in predicting WFE. Lastly, WFE was regressed on the three-way interaction term ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F (1, 288) = .05$, $p = .82$). These results indicate that there is not a significant three-way interaction between occupational role salience, nonwork role salience, and perceptions of work-family climate in predicting WFE.

Discussion

The additional results examining work-family enrichment as an outcome variable of the mediated model suggests that leader behaviors have a direct, in addition to an indirect, relationship with work to family enrichment (WFE). Work to family enrichment occurs when one role (e.g., work) positively impacts experiences in another role (e.g., family). This can occur affectively (e.g., success at work can create a better and increased confidence, which allow him/her to perform better as a parent) or instrumentally (e.g., interpersonal skills learned at work allow a person to better interpersonally relate to his/her friends). It makes sense that this influence occurs outside of employees' perceptions of work-family climate (i.e., direct relationship). For example, leadership behaviors may increase perceptions of a family-supportive work-family climate, which in turn increases one's mood and allows an individual to better perform in their nonwork responsibilities. (i.e., WFE), but positive organizational performance may also create this increased mood that results in increased WFE.

The role salience results suggest that neither occupational role salience nor nonwork role salience are moderators of the relationship between work-family climate and WIF/WFE. Therefore, the level of commitment and value derived from work or

nonwork does not strengthen or lessen how perceptions of the work-family climate influence levels of work interfering with family conflict or work to family enrichment. Role salience does not have a significant direct relationship with work interfering with family conflict. This is contrary to prior research, which has found that higher levels of occupational-role salience (Frone & Rice; 1987; Greenhaus et al., 1989; Aryee & Luk, 1996) and nonwork-role salience (Stoner, Hartman, & Arora, 1990-91) result in increased levels of work-family conflict. Conversely, the current study's results suggest that both occupational role salience and nonwork role salience have direct positive relationships with work to family enrichment, supporting previous research (Carlson et al., 2006; Wayne et al., 2006). Therefore, the more invested in ones work or family role, the more likely one is to experience enrichment between the two roles. Further research should more thoroughly examine leadership's influence on work to family enrichment and the effect of employees' occupational and nonwork role salience on the interplay between leadership and nonwork outcomes.

APPENDIX E: SURVEY ITEMS

Work-Family Climate

Organizational Time Demands

(Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999)

1. Employees in this organization are often expected to take work home at night and/or on weekends. (R)
2. To get ahead in this organization, employees are expected to work more than 50 hours a week, whether at the workplace or at home. (R)

(Allen, 2001)

3. In this organization, the ideal employee is the one who is available 24 hours a day. (R)

Priority

(Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999)

4. Employees in this organization are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families/nonwork activities. (R)
5. To be viewed favorably by top management, employees in this organization must constantly put their jobs ahead of their families or personal lives. (R)

(Allen, 2001)

6. In this organization, individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are viewed as not committed to their work. (R)

Negative Career Consequences

(Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999)

7. Many employees are resentful when women in this organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children. (R)
8. In this organization employees who participate in available work-family programs (e.g., job sharing, part-time work) are viewed as less serious about their careers than those who do not participate in these programs. (R)
9. Many employees are resentful when men in this organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children. (R)

Flexibility

(Allen, 2001)

10. Attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children is frowned upon in this organization. (R)
11. Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business in this organization.
12. Employees in this organization are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities well.

Segmentation

(Allen, 2001)

13. In this organization, it is considered taboo to talk about life outside of work. (R)

14. Expressing involvement and interest in nonwork matters at work is viewed as healthy by this organization.
15. The way to advance in this company is to keep nonwork matters out of the workplace. (R)

<div align="center">Work Interfering with Family Conflict (WIF)</div>

(Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000)

Time-based work interference with family
1. My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.
3. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.

Strain-based work interference with family
4. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/ responsibilities.
5. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
6. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

Behavior-based work interference with family
7. The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.
8. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.
9. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.

<div align="center">Inspirational and Work Empowering Leader Behaviors</div>

(Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990)

Transformational Leadership

High Performance Expectations
1. My supervisor shows us that he/she expects a lot from us.
2. My supervisor insists on only the best performance.
3. My supervisor will not settle for second best.

Intellectual Stimulation
4. My supervisor challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.
5. My supervisor asks questions that prompt me to think.
6. My supervisor has stimulated me to rethink the way I do things.
7. My supervisor has ideas that have challenged me to reexamine some of basic assumptions about my work.

Considerate Leader Behaviors

Transformational Leadership (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990)

  Provide Individualized Support
    1. My supervisor acts without considering my feelings (R)
    2. My supervisor shows respect for my personal feelings.
    3. My supervisor behaves in a manner thoughtful of my personal needs.
    4. My supervisor treats me without considering my personal feelings. (R)

Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, under review)

  Emotional Support
    5. My supervisor is willing to listen to my problems in juggling work and nonwork life.
    6. My supervisor takes the time to learn about my personal needs.
    7. My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him/her about my conflicts between work and nonwork.
    8. My supervisor and I can talk effectively to solve conflicts between work and non-work issues.

  Instrumental Support
    9. I can depend on my supervisor to help me with scheduling conflicts if I need it.
    10. I can rely on my supervisor to make sure my work responsibilities are handled when I have unanticipated nonwork demands.
    11. My supervisor works effectively with workers to creatively solve conflicts between work and nonwork.

  Role Model
    12. My supervisor is a good role model for work and nonwork balance.
    13. My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and nonwork balance.
    14. My supervisor demonstrates how a person can jointly be successful on and off the job.

Work to Family Enrichment (WFE)

Work to family development
    1. My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.
    2. My involvement in my work helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member, friend, or community member.
    3. My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member, friend, or community member.

Work to family affect
    4. My involvement in my work puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member, friend, or community member.
    5. My involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member, friend, or community member.

6. My involvement in my work makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member, friend, or community member.

Work to family capital
7. My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member, friend, or community member.
8. My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member, friend, or community member.
9. My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member, friend, or community member.

Occupational Role Salience

Occupational Role Reward Value
1. Having work / a career that is interesting and exciting to me is not my most important life goal.
2. I expect my job / career to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do.
3. Building a name and reputation for myself through work / a career is not one of my life goals. (R)
4. It is important to me that I have a job / career in which I can achieve something of importance.
5. It is important to me to feel successful in my work / career.

Occupational Role Commitment
6. I want to work, but I do not want to have a demanding career. (R)
7. I expect to make as many sacrifices as are necessary in order to advance in my work / career.
8. I value being involved in a career and expect to devote the time and effort needed to develop it.
9. I expect to devote a significant amount of my time to building my career and developing the skills necessary to advance in my career.
10. I expect to devote whatever time and energy it takes to move up in my job / career field.

Nonwork Role Salience

Dependent Care Role Reward Value
1. Although caring for a dependent requires many sacrifices, the love and enjoyment of dependents is worth it all.
2. It is important to me to feel I am (will be) an effective dependent care-giver.
3. The whole idea of having children and raising them is not attractive to me. (R)

Dependent Care Role Commitment
4. I expect to devote a significant amount of my time and energy to taking care of my dependents.
5. I expect to be very involved in the day-to-day matters of taking care of my dependents.
6. Becoming involved in the day-to-day details of taking care of my dependents involves costs in other areas of my life which I am unwilling to make. (R)

Committed Relationship Role Reward Value
7. My life would seem empty if I never had a committed relationship.
8. Being committed to a person I love is more important to me than anything else.
9. I expect the major satisfactions in my life to come from a committed relationship.

Committed Relationship Role Commitment
10. Devoting a significant amount of my time to being with or doing things with a life partner is not something I expect to do. (R)
11. I expect to put a lot of time and effort into building and maintaining a committed relationship.
12. Really involving myself in a committed relationship involves costs in other areas of my life which I am unwilling to accept. (R)

Homecare Role Reward Value
13. Having a comfortable and attractive home is of great importance to me.
14. Having a nice home is something to which I am very committed.
15. I want a place to live, but I do not really care how it looks. (R)

Homecare Role Commitment
16. I expect to devote the necessary time and attention to having a neat and attractive home.
17. I expect to assume the responsibility for seeing that my home is well kept and well run.
18. Devoting a significant amount of my time to managing and caring for a home is not something I expect to do. (R)

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CURRICULUM VITAE

Beth A. Heinen received her Bachelor of Arts in 2003 from Miami University in Oxford, Ohio. She received her Master of Arts (2005) and Doctorate (2009) in Psychology, with a concentration in Industrial/Organizational Psychology, from George Mason University (GMU) in Fairfax, Virginia. From 2005 – 2008, Beth was employed as an Adjunct Faculty member at GMU. Since 2006, Beth has also worked as an Associate/Senior Associate for ICF International.

Select Publications:

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