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Organizational policies, organizational social support, and work-family conflict: The mediating role of motivation orientation

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ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES, ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIAL SUPPORT,

AND WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT: THE MEDIATING ROLE

OF MOTIVATION ORIENTATION

A Thesis

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

in

Psychology:

Industrial/Organizational

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by

Christie Lynn Crimaldi

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ABSTRACT

The current study examines the relationship between

organizational support and work-family

conflict/family-work conflict. Work-family conflict

literature suggests that there is a negative relationship

between organizational support and work-family/family-work

conflict. Within this study, organizational support is

defined as manager support, coworker support and the use

of family friendly programs. The literature fails,

however, to examine any mediating variables within this

relationship. This study proposed a theory of motivation

orientation as a potential mediating variable.

Specifically, this study proposed an increase in

organizational support would increase the amount of

intrinsic motivation, via Cognitive Evaluation Theory and

as a result a decrease in work-family/family-work

conflict. After examining results of a survey (n = 234)

via structural equation modeling, a partially mediated

model resulted. Intrinsic motivation did increase as a

result of increased organizational support and overall

work-family/family-work conflict was reduced. Extrinsic

motivation was not significantly decreased as a result of

organizational support as was predicted in the model. An

increase in extrinsic motivation did, however, result in

increased levels of work-family/family-work conflict. Implications and future research are discussed.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

In America today, the number of working men and
women, specifically those who are married and have
children, is much higher than ever before (Jacobs &
Gerson, 2001). More adults working mean that there is less
time to dedicate to the home and family. In the past
however, men and women held different roles within the
family and at work. Traditionally, men went to work while
women stayed home with the children. Until the middle of
the twentieth century, women had worked in the textile
industry, however usually those allowed to work were
young, not married and had no children. Once a woman was
married, she was often fired from her job and was expected
that her new job would be in the home (Kessler-Harris,
2001). The traditional family dynamic changed around World
War II. As many men went off to war, women began to
replace them in the workplace. At this time, women were
only allowed to work in positions that were traditionally
considered acceptable for men (Albee & Perry, 1998). After
the war, many of these women were fired from their jobs to
make room for the returning soldiers.

In 1964, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act. Title VII of the Act stated that it was illegal to discriminate based on an individual's sex (among other characteristics) in the workplace. Even though the Act was passed in 1964 it was not until the 1970s that women as a group became more prominent in the workforce (Baker, 2005). During the 1970s the economy began to change and men's wages at work began to decline. Many women, including those who were married and had children, began going to work to increase their family's total income. During this influx of working women, women were again being hired into positions that were originally thought to be for men (Coltrane, 1996; Steil, 2000; Baker, 2005).

Today, many more women are going to work than ever before. According to statistics from the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) women comprised 47.5% of the workforce in 2002. More women are also holding positions of prestige within an organization. The EEOC reported that in 1994 women held 16.35% of the senior level paying jobs within organizations. In 2003 women held 25.52% of these positions.

While the number of women in the workplace is steadily increasing, and there are more dual earner families today than ever before, some conflicts have

resulted. When both parents in a family are working, there is less time available to be spent with children or on household duties. Researchers have studied the relationship between the professional and family lives of adults. This literature reveals that these two aspects of adult life often conflict. Work-family conflict is the term used to describe the conflict created when one's work affects their family life (Bernas & Major, 2000; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Baruch, Biener, & Barnett, 1987). This type of conflict is created, for example, when an employee must stay at work to finish a project and therefore cannot be home in time to have dinner with his or her family. Researchers have also found a reverse effect to happen. Family-work conflict is the term used to describe the conflict created when one's family life affects their work life (Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2002; Hammer, Saksvik, Nytro, Torvatn, & Bayazit, 2004). This type of conflict occurs, for example when a parent must leave work early in order to take a sick child to the doctor's office. Although separate constructs, the combined effect is often referenced under the single title "work-family conflict". Consequently, in this literature review, work-family conflict will refer to both forms, unless otherwise noted.

The literature shows that work-family conflict should be of real concern to employees and organizations because of the negative effects conflict can have on employees. Among the negative outcomes are decreased performance and increased stress (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Frone et al., 1992) Due to these concerns, researchers have invested their time in search of ways of reducing the effects of work-family conflict. One such way that has lent promising results is through various types of support. Researchers have studied the effects of support from organizational policies, coworkers, and supervisors or managers, revealing many positive results. Organizations often show support through the availability of family supportive programs. These programs can include child care, flexible work schedules and compressed work week to name a few (Frone & Yardley, 1996). The literature fails to explain however, what underlying processes might be the reasons why support from various sources can decrease the amount of conflict an employee feels between their work and family life.

This study hopes to add to the literature by looking at individual differences as a possible mediator in the relationship between various sources of support and conflict between work and family lives. Cognitive

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Evaluation Theory is one such theory that explains the individual difference of motivation orientation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Cognitive evaluation theory has been related to various types of support in past research (Senécal, Vallerand, & Guay, 2001). Cognitive evaluation theory has also been strongly linked to increased levels of intrinsic motivation and decreased levels of extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Based on cognitive evaluation theory, this study will examine the relationship between various types of support and work-family conflict mediated by cognitive evaluation theory, as well as, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Before further examination of the possible mediation between different sources of support and work-family conflict, some constructs must be defined.

Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict

In the last few decades researchers have studied the conflicts that men and women have between their work lives and their family lives. The literature has coined the phrase "work-family conflict" to describe this construct. Bernas and Major (2000) define work- family conflict as a "type of inter-role conflict in which the demands of the work and family roles are incompatible" (p. 170). The

literature distinguishes work-family conflict as work related issues that are brought home and influence an employee's family life. An example of work-family conflict is a lawyer who is forced to take work home to finish an assignment and therefore does not have time to put his or her children to bed. Baruch et al. (1987) mention a time when the home was a place for men and women to relax and get away from the stressors of their workplace. Work-family conflict research shows that home is no longer a place to get away and that work now often follows people home. Frone et al. (1997) define work distress as responding to daily work experiences with negative emotions. The study conducted by these researchers showed that work distress was caused because family demands were interfering with the participants' work. They also claimed that work distress was a precursor of work-family conflict because it decreased a person's ability to meet the expectations of their family role.

Researchers have also investigated another form of conflict, family-work conflict (Stoeva et al., 2002; Hammer et al., 2004). Family-work conflict exists when family issues carry over into an employee's work life. Family issues such as a relative's illness, family get together, a child's school play as well as many others can

cause an employee to be absent from work. Family issues can also prevent an employee from performing at his/her highest ability. Research conducted by Frone et al., (1992) looked at how gender affected the prevalence of work-family conflict as well as family-work conflict. They predicted that both work-family conflict and family-work conflict would be more prevalent in women than in men because traditionally women hold more responsibility in the maintenance of the home. These predictions were made because in general women hold more responsibility when it comes to the home and children. The study showed, however, that both men and women experienced more work-family conflict than family-work conflict overall. Thus, they concluded that family boundaries are more permeable than work boundaries for both genders (Frone et al., 1992).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) classified work-family conflict into three different types of conflict: time based, strain based, and behavior based. Time based conflict occurs when time spent in one arena takes away from time needed to be spent in another arena. An example would be when an employee works overtime at their job but does not get home in time to have dinner with their family. Strain based conflict occurs when stress from one arena affects an individual's performance in another

arena. For example, an employee is worried about their sick child and gives a poor presentation at work as a result. The third type of conflict described by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) is behavior based conflict. Behavior based can be defined as "specific patterns of role behavior may be incompatible with expectations regarding behavior in another role" (p. 81). An example of behavior based conflict is a father who feels that his family is a team and he is a team player. Conflict can arise for this father at work when he must compete individually against his colleagues. There has not been as much empirical support for behavior based conflict as there has been for both time and strain based conflict.

Within the literature on work-family conflict there has been a substantial number of studies conducted on gender differences. Overall, it has been found that women experience more conflict than men (Rotondo, Carlson, & Kincaid, 2003). Women tend to take on more responsibilities with not only child rearing but also in maintenance of the home. A study found that men and women spent the same amount of working at a job where they were paid (women 49.1 hrs/wk, men 49.8 hrs/ wk). However, women spent nearly twice as much time working at home without pay than men (women 16.2 hrs/ wk, men 8 hrs/ wk). Thus,

overall, women were found to be more stressed than men because they spent more time working (paid or unpaid) per week than men (Lundberg & Frankenhaeuser, 1999).

Studies have also tried to measure the stress levels of women who have children. For women with children, work family conflict was found to be positively correlated with higher levels of anxiety, depression and hostility towards others (Beatty, 1996). Lundberg and Frankenhaeuser (1999) found that working women who have children living at home under the age of eighteen are more stressed because they are overloaded with work. This same study showed that working women felt their work overload had negative effects on their career opportunities. Men did not report these same feelings. Also found was that women with children reported less recreation time during holidays while men reported more. During holidays when the children are home, working women are then faced with taking care of the house and the children at the same time. These studies on women's stress levels showed that women faced stresses due to their family lives and work lives when contrasted with men (Lundberg & Frankenhaeuser, 1999). Although the work-family conflict literature shows that men often experience less conflict, it is not to say that all men do not experience conflict. Men who are faced with the same

work and family issues as women are likely to experience the same negative outcomes of conflict.

Recognizing that the negative effects of work-family conflict are important in terms of employee stress, performance, and career advancement to name a few relevant outcomes, organizations have invested resources into finding ways to reduce the amount of conflict their employees' experience. One such way researchers have found to reduce conflict is through support for employees.

Organizational Policies to Reduce Conflict

Many organizations have implemented programs within their organizations that address work-family conflict in the hopes of supporting employees in balancing their work and family lives. These programs have often been called "family support programs" in the literature. Family support programs include flextime, compressed work week, job sharing, child care assistance, work from home, and reduced hours (Frone & Yardley, 1996). The literature to date on family support programs has been inconclusive in terms of the programs reducing the amount of work-family conflict felt by an employee. One example of such a study found a negative relationship between schedule flexibility and work-family conflict yet found no significant relationships between dependent child care and either

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work-family or family-work conflict (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002). In a review of the literature, Rosin and Korabik (2002) reveal that many studies have not found support for the programs reducing conflict, and suggest one possible reason could be due to the instruments used to measure. One problem has been low reliability of the measures used. Another problem that the researchers claim is the validity of measures used. Rosin and Korabik say that researchers have measured work-family and family-work conflict in one measure instead of breaking down the two constructs into separate measures. One such study that used a less developed measure found only indirect effects that flexible work schedules for employees can reduce work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). When Rosin and Korabik (2002) conducted their own study with stronger measures to examine work-family and family-work conflict separately, they found positive relationships. Specifically, they found that those who were satisfied with the family support programs offered experienced decreased amounts of work-family and family-work conflict.

Studies have also tested the importance of family support programs to both men and women and how these programs affect work family conflict. Women were found to rate job sharing and child care more importantly than men

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(Frone & Yardley, 1996). Wiersma (1990) found that women gave more importance to flextime, compressed work week and reduced work hours, while Frone and Yardley did not find any gender differences. As previously mentioned, the gender differences found could be due to the fact that men and women on average hold different responsibilities at home. Although some gender differences were found in the importance of the programs, there are no consistent gender differences in the programs' effectiveness in reducing conflict.

One important characteristic that is related to importance of different family support programs is the age of the youngest child (Frone & Yardley, 1996). A negative relationship was found between the age of the youngest child in the household and the importance of flextime, compressed work week, child care assistance and working at home. The researchers explain their findings by saying that younger children are more difficult to take care of. They have more needs than older children and parents are forced to spend more time attending to their younger children's needs.

Family support programs are still relatively new in both organizations and in the work-family conflict literature. While the literature has produced inconsistent

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findings when it comes to family support programs, it is still a very important construct to study because reducing work-family conflict can have so many positive outcomes such as increased performance and reduced stress. The importance ratings, previously mentioned, show that there is something of value in these programs and are important to the growing literature on work-family conflict.

Support from Coworkers and Managers

Another source of support that has been examined is social support from the organization which includes both perceptions of organizational support and perceptions of support from coworkers. Organizational support can be described as a culture within the organization that supports the balance between work and family (Foley, Hang-Yue, & Lui, 2005). An example of organizational support is an organization that provides family supportive programs or has an open door policy when an employee has a family issue. Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, and O'Brien (2001) reported that overall organizational support can decrease work family conflict as well as role strain. Several other studies have found similar results in that organizational support can lead to lower levels of work-family conflict as well as lower levels of family-work conflict (Allen, 2001; Foley et al., 2005). As

for coworker support, Hammer et al. (2004) found that
work-family conflict as well as family-work conflict was
negatively correlated with general support from coworkers.

Another type of support researched to affect
work-family and family-work conflict is supervisor or
manager support. When supervisor support was first
researched in relation to work family and family work
conflict it was defined as support for a particular family
supportive program that an organization offers (Allen,
2001). More recently, supervisor support has been defined
as a supervisor who, "is sympathetic to the employee's
desires to seek balance between work and family and who
engages in effort to help the employee accommodate his or
her work and family responsibilities" (Allen, 2001,
p. 417). An additional study by Anderson et al. (2002) set
out to study a model that examined the relationship
between the conflict between work and family and several
antecedents and outcomes. One such antecedent was manager
support. The researchers found a significantly negative
relationship between work-family and family-work conflict
and manager support. Thus, those who receive support from
a manager are more likely to experience less work-family
and family-work conflict. Another study interested in
women's role strain found that support from a supervisor

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or manager decreased role strain; more specifically work-family conflict was decreased due to supervisor support (Erdwins et al., 2001).

Supervisor support has also been shown to reduce different aspects of stress. Supervisory support related to family responsibilities was found to decrease role conflict for women (Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990). Similarly, Warren and Johnson (1995) found that supervisor flexibility relating to family responsibilities significantly reduced women's strain. Another study found that psychological strain was negatively related to supervisor support (O'Driscoll, Poelmans, Spector, Kalliath, Allen, Cooper, & Sanchez, 2003). O'Driscoll et al. (2003) claimed that the interaction between work family conflict and supervisor support contributes to reducing strain. They suggest organizations increase supervisor awareness of individual employee needs as a way of anticipating conflict between work and family thus preventing conflict induced strain.

The literature shows that support from different sources (i.e. family friendly policies, coworker or supervisor support) can decrease the amount of work-family conflict experienced by employees. The literature however, fails to explain why the relationship between support and

conflict exists. This study hopes to further explore these relationships by examining motivation orientation of employees as a potential mediator.

Individual Differences

The literature has shown that numerous people are experiencing conflict between work and family; however, some people experience more or less conflict than others. It is interesting that while many people find themselves in similar situations, such as having children and working a full time job, they still experience different levels of conflict. These individuals sometimes even experience differing amounts of the negative outcomes associated with work-family conflict such as increased stress and lower performance. One explanation for these differences may be due to the inherent differences between individuals. Such differences have been addressed in the literature, albeit in a limited way.

One individual difference examined by researchers is negative affectivity. An individual who has high negative affectivity tends to feel more negative emotions as well as distress, anxiety and depression (Watson & Clark, 1984). Research has been done on the different ways negative affectivity affects men and women, as well as,

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how it affects work family conflict. A study done by Stoeva et al. (2002) found that regardless of gender, negative affectivity toward work-family conflict was mediated by job and family stress. Those who had higher levels of negative affectivity were more likely to feel stress and consequently more likely to experience work-family conflict. Stoeva et al. (2002) measured work stress as the decreased level of contact with the public and less frequent use of skills. Family stress was measured as limited financial savings and living in tight quarters. Another study (Seligman, 1975) found that women, more than men, credit their successes to factors they cannot control, such as luck. Women attribute their failures however, to lack of their own ability. Consequently, women may be more susceptible to depression because they take blame for their failures but do not give themselves credit for their success (Seligman, 1975).

In addition, research on negative affectivity, researchers began to examine the possible relationships that work-family may have with personality characteristics. The Five Factor Model of Personality (Costa & McCrae, 1991) is often used in research. Also known as the Big Five, the Five Factor Model of personality consists of emotional stability, extraversion,

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conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience. Bruck and Allen's (2003) research overall found that the Big Five personality characteristics did explain more variance than past research on type A behavior and negative affectivity and how it related to work-family and family-work conflict. One study investigated whether personality could be a moderating factor between work-family conflict and some of its well being outcomes (Kinnunen, Vermulst, Gerris, & Mäkikangas, 2003). Emotional stability was found to be negatively related to the outcomes of work-family conflict such as depression. Emotional stability also moderated the effect of work-family conflict on job exhaustion. Another finding involving emotional stability include those who experience higher levels of family-work conflict and low levels of emotional stability are more likely to experience more conflicts in their family climate (Kinnunen et al.). This study also found some evidence for agreeableness affecting work-family conflict outcomes. Lower levels of work-family conflict as well as family-work conflict accompanied with high agreeableness made for higher levels of martial satisfaction. Those with higher levels of both types of conflict and less agreeableness were more likely to experience depression (Kinnunen et al.).

Additional studies have found several relationships between the other Big Five personality characteristics and work-family as well as family-work conflict. Conscientiousness has been found to negatively relate to work-family conflict as well as family-work conflict (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004; Bruck & Allen, 2003). Agreeableness has been negatively linked to time based conflict (Bruck & Allen, 2003), however, there has been conflicting findings on agreeableness and its effect on work-family conflict. Bruck and Allen (2003) found a positive relationship, but Wayne et al. found a negative relationship between agreeableness and work-family conflict. Wayne et al. (2004) also reported negative relationships between extraversion and both types of conflict as well as a negative relationship between openness to experience and both work-family and family-work conflict.

Despite the attention given to gender, negative affectivity, and personality characteristics, one individual differences that the work-family conflict literature has yet to examine and is worthwhile is motivation orientation and its role in work-family conflict. Also, the literature reviewed thus far on individual differences and its relationship to work-family

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conflict has all been studied via direct effects. This study hopes to add to the literature by examining a mediated relationship between support and conflict. Senécal et al. (2001) suggest that motivation to work as well as motivation to be with one's family could help explain both types of conflict. Senécal et al. (2001) looked at both self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and Vallerand's (1997) Hierarchical model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation (Vallerand, 1997). For the purposes of the current study, Senécal et al.'s (2001) ideas of motivation orientation will be used to help explain the relationship between support and conflict between work and family.

<center>Motivation Orientation</center>

According to Ryan and Deci (2000a) a person who is motivated is "moved to do something" (p. 54). They also claim that individuals are not only motivated at differing levels but also in the type of motivation they feel towards a task. Researchers over the last several decades have been looking into different kinds of motivation orientations. More specifically the research has centered on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

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Intrinsic motivation can be defined as "doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable...fun or challenging" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 55-56). Brief and Aldag (1977) defined intrinsic motivation in the context of work. They claim "Intrinsic work motivation is a cognitive state reflecting the extent to which the worker attributes the force of his or her task behavior to outcomes derived from the task per se; that is, from outcomes which are not mediated by a source external to the task-person situation. Such a state of motivation can be characterized as a self -fulfilling experience" (p. 497).

Extrinsic motivation can be defined as "doing something because it leads to a separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 55). These separable outcomes can include pressure, rewards and external prods. Within the context of a working environment it can also be defined as, "Extrinsic work motivation is a cognitive state reflecting the extreme to which the worker attributes the force of his or her task behaviors to having and/or expecting to receive or experience some extrinsic outcome. Such a state of motivation can be characterized as a regulated or instrumental experience" (Brief & Aldag, 1977, p. 497). When compared to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic

motivation is often viewed in a more negative light (Ryan & Deci, 2000a).

Research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation tends to conflict when examining whether motivation orientation is trait or state based (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994). Originally, motivation orientation was studied as a function of the social context in which an individual was engaged in. This form of motivation orientation is considered state based motivation. Some researchers such as Amabile et al. (1994) argue that motivation orientation is trait based or an individual difference. There is literature supporting that motivation orientation is both trait and state based. This research suggests that motivation orientation is not solely state or trait based but rather can vary from one individual to another and from one situation to another.

Several theories have arisen around the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. An early theory by Porter and Lawler (1968) suggested that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are additive and therefore if both kinds of motivation can be fulfilled that total job satisfaction can be achieved. Under this belief it was thought that the more extrinsically motivated a person was by a task they were equally less motivated by intrinsic

forces. Researchers since found evidence that this theory is incorrect and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are indeed not additive constructs (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gagné & Deci, 2005). Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is one theory that claims intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are not additive (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Self-Determination Theory does not look at motivation as a whole; thus a person's intrinsic and extrinsic motivation when added together will not equal one. Self determination theory recognizes that each individual can have varying amounts of different types of motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Self-determined behaviors are defined as intentional behaviors, those that are "initiated and regulated through choice as an expression of oneself" (Deci & Ryan, 1987, p. 1024). An opposing type of behavior is one that is controlled. These type of behaviors can still be intentional but are also "pressured and coerced by intrapsychic and environmental forces and thus do not represent true choice" (Deci & Ryan, 1987, p. 1024).

Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are components of SDT. There are two sub theories within SDT that explain, in greater depth, the varying degrees of both intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

Cognitive evaluation theory or CET is a theory that explains "variability" in intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p. 70). This theory looks at different ways that levels of intrinsic motivation can be increased or enhanced as well as decreased. CET claims that people are intrinsically motivated because of their "innate need for competence, autonomy and relatedness" (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 57). Meeting these needs, according to the theory will increase the amount of intrinsic motivation a person feels toward a task. Competence can be defined as the belief in one's self to complete a task, or efficacy (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Autonomy "involves acting with a sense of volition and having the experience of choice" (Gagné & Deci, 2005, p. 333). Relatedness is defined in the literature as a feeling of connectedness to persons, groups or a culture; a feeling of belonging (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Originally, relatedness was not a component of CET (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In Deci and Ryan (2000b) the researchers claim that relatedness is a component of SDT and not CET. The literature is inconsistent in whether or not relatedness belongs within CET. One study that shows support for the relationship between relatedness and increased intrinsic motivation is children who worked on an interesting and

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fun task while adults near by ignored them. These children reported low intrinsic motivation (Anderson, Manoogian, & Reznick, 1976). In the other study children, whose teacher acted as if she did not care about her students and treated them poorly, reported lower levels of intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Grolnick, 1986).

Occurrences or events such as rewards, feedback and communication can increase feelings of competence and thus increase levels of intrinsic motivation. An addition to this findings was made by deCharms (1968) claiming that increased competence must be coupled with feelings of autonomy in order to increase intrinsic motivation. Therefore, if an individual's autonomy and competence are increased so will their intrinsic motivation. Receiving feedback at work can either increase or decrease levels of intrinsic motivation based on CET. Deci (1975) claims that positive feedback can increase intrinsic motivation, while negative feedback can decrease intrinsic motivation. An example of positive feedback increasing competence to balance work and family roles would be feedback from a manager such as, "Yesterday, you did a great job of getting the proposal finished in time to make it to your son's baseball game." Negative feedback can decrease

intrinsic motivation because it can decrease the amount of competence felt by an employee.

CET also claims that extrinsic motivation or extrinsically motivating events can undermine intrinsic motivation, thus decreasing the amount of intrinsic motivation. In CET, the literature explains that instead of feeling autonomy in one's job, some people experience feelings of being controlled. An example of feeling controlled is an organization that does not allow employees to leave work before five o'clock, even if it is a family emergency. This notion of being controlled or lacking autonomy at work is another way in which intrinsic motivation can be decreased (Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

One important aspect of CET is that it applies only when a task is intrinsically motivating from the beginning (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). If a person, or employee, is not interested in the task from the start, then CET does not apply and intrinsic motivation cannot be increased based on the theory. When an activity is not intrinsically motivating then it may be extrinsic in nature. Organismic integration theory is a theory that speaks to the different levels of extrinsic motivation.

Organismic Integration Theory

Another subtheory under SDT is Organismic Integration
Theory (OIT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This theory suggests
that there are different kinds of extrinsic motivation
depending on the amount of internalization and
integration. Internalization can be defined as "people
taking in values, attitudes, or regulatory structures,
such that external regulations of behavior is transformed
into an internal regulation and thus no longer requires
the presence of an external contingency" (Gagné & Deci,
2005, p. 334). Integration as defined by Ryan and Deci
(2000b) is "further transformation of that regulation into
their own so that, subsequently, it will emanate from
their sense of self (p. 71). Organismic Integration Theory
also includes amotivation which is when a person has no
intentions or carrying out a task or having no motivation
at all. The first type of extrinsic motivation described
by the theory is external regulation. When most people
think of extrinsic motivation, this is usually what comes
to mind. It is also the type of extrinsic motivation
recognized by early operant theorists such as Skinner
(1953). External regulation is purely controlled behavior,
thus doing a task solely for the separable outcome. An
example of external regulation would be an employee

working overtime because they are getting paid time and half. The next type of extrinsic motivation described by OIT (Deci & Ryan, 1985) is introjected regulation. This level of motivation is still controlling; however: the person is acting as a means to avoid some guilt or anxiety. For example, an employee working overtime because they know they will feel guilty the next morning if they do not stay. The next level of extrinsic motivation is identification. A person motivated at this level will recognize the importance of a task and make it their own. The last level, which is the most autonomous within the levels of extrinsic motivation, is integrated regulation. At this level, a person makes the task "congruent" with their own values and morals. An example would be an employee who is told they would receive a raise if they went to a training session. The employee would then also see the value in the training because it could help further their career.

Deci and Ryan (1985) state that the different levels in OIT are not necessarily a progression. People can be motivated at all different levels of the spectrum for different tasks. Depending on the situation however, it is possible to move from one level of extrinsic motivation to another. For example, it is possible that a task is

initially very interesting yet as time passes it becomes
mindless and repetitive and the motivation to complete the
task becomes increasingly more extrinsic in nature.

Within SDT, the variability of intrinsic and
extrinsic motivation can be explained by both CET and OIT.
This paper is proposing a model that will use these
theories, more specifically increased intrinsic motivation
via CET and the removal of extrinsic motivation, to
explain the relationship between support and conflict
between work and family.

Motivation Theories and Work-Family Conflict

As discussed previously, CET explains that
experiencing increased autonomy in the workplace can
increase levels of intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan,
1985). Family supportive programs offered by an
organization can be viewed as creating autonomy for an
employee. For example, if an organization offers its
employees the option of using on- site child care,
flextime, or a compressed work week the employee then has
the freedom to choose which programs to use. If flextime
is offered, the employee has the option to create his or
her own schedule. These freedoms to manipulate one's work
environment to better fit the needs of the employee are

increasing the autonomy for employees. A study conducted

by Kauffeld, Jonas and Frey (2004) predicted that autonomy

in the workplace created by flexible work schedules for

employees would increase employee intrinsic motivation.

The researchers used both an intrinsic motivation scale as

well as open ended questions. Due to the low reliability

of their intrinsic motivation scale their hypothesis was

not supported via this measurement. Through the use of the

open ended questions however, intrinsic motivation of

employees was increased. Those who responded to the open

ended questions believed that their increased motivation

due to family supportive programs was a benefit for

employees as well as a benefit for the organization.

Autonomy within the workplace is also called "job control"

(Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). A study

conducted by Van Yperen and Hagedoorn (2003) examined job

demands, job control and their effects on intrinsic

motivation. Their study was based on the job

demand-control-support model (Karasek, 1979; Karasek &

Theorell, 1990). They found that intrinsic motivation was

enhanced in high demanding jobs when an employee

experienced job control. For those employees in low

demanding jobs, the study found that the combination of

high job control and high social support (discussed in

more detail later) increased intrinsic motivation.
Therefore, employees who can control their use of family
friendly programs may be more likely to be intrinsically
motivated than those who do not have control.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory also claims that
increasing an employee's competency level or efficacy and
autonomy will in turn increase intrinsic motivation (Deci
& Ryan, 1985). Receiving support from a manager or
coworker can increase an employee's confidence in their
ability to balance their work and home life. As defined
previously, manager support within the work-family
conflict literature is support from a manager in regards
to balancing work and life issues. Similarly, receiving
support from a coworker can create the same feelings of
competence or efficacy to balance one's work and family
lives. A study, conducted by Tummers, Van Merode,
Landeweerd and Candel (2003) looked at social support and
combined it with what they called "decision authority" in
nurses. Decision authority is defined as the, "formal
degree of authority nurses have been assigned to make
decisions on their own with regard to the performance of
several tasks as well as the degree to which they can plan
nursing caring tasks, (Tummers et al, 2003, p. 114).
According to this definition, decision authority would

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create higher levels of autonomy. Overall, the researchers were interested in organizational characteristics and work characteristics at the individual and group level and how they affected the nurses psychological work reactions. They found that decision authority combined with social support, both at the individual level, increased employee intrinsic motivation. More specifically, they found that individual level decision authority was directly related to enhanced levels of intrinsic motivation. Van Yperen and Hagedoorn (2003), mentioned previously, found that for those employees in high demanding jobs, social support increased employee intrinsic motivation. Social support is defined within this study as support from both managers and coworkers. The researchers claim that the most important finding of this study was that social support is the most effective way to increase levels of intrinsic motivation regardless of high or low demanding jobs or control. Another study, previously described as examining women's role strain, found that supervisor support increased self-efficacy, or competence, which in turn decreased work-family conflict (Erdwins et al., 2001).

As increased support from policies and managers/coworkers is increasing autonomy and competence, the removal of extrinsic motivation, drawn from OIT, is

also occurring (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Cognitive Evaluation Theory states that feeling controlled at work can undermine intrinsic motivation and increase extrinsic motivation via OIT. The support from both organizational policies and organizational social support will create a feeling of autonomy, not control. Thus, intrinsic motivation will increase via CET and extrinsic motivation will decrease. Also, within OIT, as autonomy increases the level of pure extrinsic motivation (external regulation) decreases and becomes more intrinsic in nature (integrated regulation).

An employee is extrinsically motivated when they gain a separable outcome (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The level of internalization and integration will depend on the task as well as the individual. However, an employee's extrinsic motivation will decrease as a result of organizational support and social support because there is not a separable outcome but rather a feeling of increased autonomy and competence as discussed previously.

These relationships between support, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and work-family conflict lead to the proposed model.

Proposed Model

Based on cognitive evaluation theory and organismic integration theory, this study is proposing the model presented in Figure 1. Cognitive Evaluation Theory can help explain why support from varying sources can mediate the relationship between support and work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Thus, support for an employee can decrease the amount of conflict an employee feels between their work life and their family life. The relationship between support and conflict can be explained by the increase of intrinsic motivation, via CET, and the removal of extrinsic motivation which is drawn from OIT. Participants who experience perceived support from family support programs, supervisors and coworkers will also experience increased levels of both autonomy and competence. Ryan and Deci (2000b) state that while there is some empirical evidence for relatedness in CET it is important to realize that a feeling of closeness is not always needed to feel intrinsically motivated. Also, as previously mentioned, the literature on the inclusion of relatedness in CET is inconsistent. There is however, strong support in the literature for both the need for autonomy and competence. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, relatedness will not be included in the
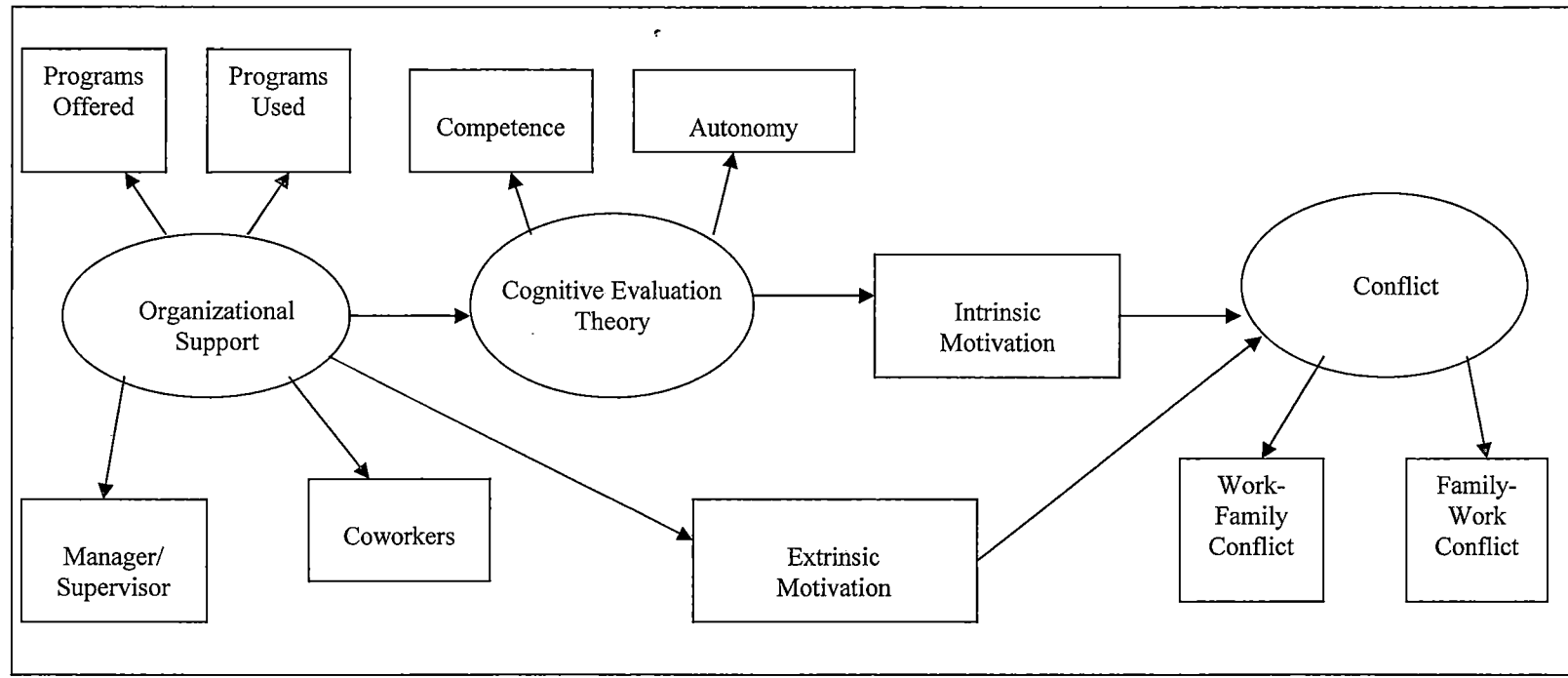
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Figure 1. Proposed Model

proposed model. According to CET (Deci & Ryan, 1985),
increased amounts of autonomy and competence lead to
increased amounts of intrinsic motivation, as well as
lower amounts of extrinsic motivation.

The link between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation
and conflict has not been examined in the work-family
conflict literature to date. Based on the connections that
have been made thus far between perceived support for an
employee and CET, a mediating relationship between
intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and work-family
conflict is proposed. More specifically, those who are
intrinsically motivated will experience lower amounts of
work-family conflict as well as lower amounts of
family-work conflict. Those who are extrinsically
motivated will experience greater amounts of work-family
conflict, as well as, more family-work conflict.

No gender differences are being predicted in the
proposed model. Much of the research, including that which
was discussed previously, within the work-family conflict
literature is focused on the experiences of women. While
the experiences of men have been examined less frequently,
men do experience conflict between their work-family
conflict (Frone & Yardley, 1996). It is expected that both
men and women who are in similar situations, such as

working full time and have children, will experience the same relationships between the variables in the proposed model.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODS

Participants

In order to be eligible to participate in the study, individuals had to have a full time job and at least one child in their care under the age of eighteen. The final sample size was 234. The average participant is 37 years old, has two children, and has worked at their current job for 7.2 years. Of those in the sample 70% identified themselves as "White", 65% are married, 37% chose "Education" as their industry, 24% have a Master's degree, and 18% identified their annual income as $30,000-$39,999.

Procedure

Both online surveys and paper surveys were used for the purposes of this study. Both survey packets included an informed consent form. This form explained the purpose of the study, contact information for the study if there were any questions, approximately how long the survey would take to complete, and directions how to return the surveys upon completion. The survey consisted of 89 questions and took about 30 minutes to complete. There were no foreseeable risks in completing the survey. There also was no deception in the description of the study.

Paper surveys were used for participants that either did not have access to the internet, or those that were local and easy to access. In each organization that received paper surveys there was one contact person. Each paper survey was placed in a manila envelope with no identifying marks on the envelopes. The contact person was then asked to distribute the envelopes to those who were eligible for the study. Participants were asked to complete the surveys within two weeks of receiving them. Upon completion of the survey, participants were asked to place the survey back in the manila envelope, seal the envelope, and place it in the designated return box. These measures were taken to assure anonymity of participants. I, the researcher, then picked up the completed surveys after the two-week time frame has passed.

For those receiving the online survey, an email was sent to a contact person in each organization. The email explained the purpose of the study, how long the survey took to complete, contact information if there were any questions about the study, as well as, asked for the email to be passed on to anyone who may be able to participate. The email contained a link to the online survey. An online survey company such as Surveymonkey.com was used. Such online survey companies assure that no identifiable

information can be collected and/or viewable to the researchers. The first page of the survey was the informed consent form. This page explained that by continuing with the survey, the participant acknowledged that he/she has read and understands the consent form. Upon completion of the online survey, participants were able to submit their answers via the appropriate "Submit" button on the screen.

Measures

Demographics

Information collected in this section included age, sex, employment status, education, ethnicity, tenure, industry, marital status, number of children, age of children, and salary range per year.

Family Support Programs

The measure used was created by Allen (2001) and consists of ten items. The measure asked participants to place a checkmark next to the benefits that are offered by the organization they are employed by. In congruence with Thomas and Ganster (1995) the availability of the programs will be measured as opposed their usage since the mere availability shows that the organization cares about the well being of its employees. The measure was divided into two categories a) Dependent care supports such as on-site

child care and paid maternity leave, as well as b)

Flexible work arrangements such as flextime and compressed

work week. Upon completion of the measure, participant's

scores are summed to give a total score. A second column

was added for program use. Participants were asked to

place a checkmark next to the box if they had either used

the program in the past, or are currently using the

program.

Manager/ Supervisor Support

The scale that was used is from Thomas and Ganster

(1995) which was originally adapted from Shinn, Wong,

Simko and Ortiz-Torres (1989). The scale was a 9 item

index which was scored on a 5 point frequency scale. The

scale ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (very often) with a score

of 1 meaning the supervisor shows no support for family

issues and 5 meaning lots of support is shown for family

issues from the supervisor. Participants were asked to

complete the survey in accordance with their personal

perceptions of their immediate manager or supervisor. The

items asked for the frequency of such events as "Switched

schedules (hours, overtime hours, and vacation) to

accommodate my family responsibilities" and "Was

understanding or sympathetic." Two of the 9 items need to

be reverse scored. These items include, "Held my family

responsibilities against me" and "Showed resentment of my needs as a working parent." The coefficient alpha reported by Thomas and Ganster for this perceived supervisory support scale was .83.

Coworker Support

Coworker support was measured by a scale based on a scale created by Hammer et al. (2004). Hammer's et al scale measured general support from coworkers and therefore two questions were revised to measure coworker support in regards to balancing work and family issues. The two new items include: "When I experience conflict between my work and family lives, I receive help and support from my coworkers," and "My coworkers are understanding if I have a conflict between my work life and my family life." There were five items in the scale with scale reliability of .83. The remaining three items included: "I feel I am accepted in my work group," "My coworkers back me up when I need it," and "I feel comfortable with my coworkers." The items were measured of a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Job Autonomy

This scale created by the Families and Work Institute and discussed in Thompson and Prottas (2005) consisted of

four items. The items included: "I have the freedom to decide what I do on my job," "I have a lot of say about what happens on my job," "I decide when I take breaks," and "It is basically my own responsibility to decide how my job gets done." Each item was measured on a 4-point Likert scale which ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The scale has a coefficient alpha of .71.

Competence

The Personal Efficacy Beliefs Scale was used to measure competency in the workplace (Riggs, Warka, Babasa, Betancourt & Hooker, 1994). The scale was developed in order to assess an employee's beliefs about their work self-efficacy. This scale consisted of ten items and the coefficient alpha is .86. The items were answered according to a 6-point Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). Examples of items from this measure included "I have confidence in my ability to do my job," and " I am very proud of my job skills and abilities." Six of the items were reverse scored. The reverse scored items included: "There are some tasks required by my job that I cannot do well," "When my performance is poor, it is due to my lack of ability," "I doubt my ability to do my job," "My people in my line of

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work can do this job better than I can," "My future in this job is limited because of my lack of skills," and "I feel threatened when others watch me work."

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

The Work Preference Inventory Scale for Adults was used to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Amabile et al., 1994). This scale was created to measure trait based intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. For this study, the measure was prefaced with, "In my current work environment," in order to ask participants about their state based intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels. State based motivation was measured because the proposed model examined motivation that was created by the support offered within the organization. The preface, "In my current work environment," was added to invoke participants to respond to the scale bearing in mind their motivation created through organizational support. This scale consisted of thirty items. Fifteen items measured intrinsic motivation with a coefficient alpha of .75. Examples of questions for the intrinsic motivation scale included: "Curiosity is the driving force behind much of what I do," and "I enjoy tackling problems that are completely new to me." Two items from the intrinsic motivation scale were reverse scored ("I prefer work I

know I can do well over work that stretches my abilities," and "I enjoy relatively simple, straightforward tasks"). The extrinsic motivation scale consisted of fifteen items with a coefficient alpha of .70. Examples of questions from the extrinsic motivation scale included: "I am strongly motivated by the recognition I can earn from other people," and "I'm concerned about how other people are going to react to my ideas." Three items from the extrinsic motivation scale were reverse scored ("I seldom think about salary and promotions," "As long as I can do what I enjoy, I'm not that concerned about exactly what I'm paid," and "I am not that concerned about what other people think of my work"). All items on this scale were rated on a 4-point Likert scale from 1 (*never or almost never true of me*) to 4 (*always or almost always true of me*).

Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict

This study created by Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996) measured both work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Each construct was measured by five items each. Each item was answered on a 7 point Likert scale. The Likert scale ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) in which a low score means there was little work-family and/or family-work conflict and a high

score meant there was a substantial amount of either work-family or family-work conflict. Sample items on the Work-Family Conflict Scale included, "The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities, and "Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me." Sample items from the Family-Work Conflict Scale included, "Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/ partner," and "My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime." Netemeyer et al. reported an alpha for these scales to be .82 and the retest alpha to be .82.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Before running primary analyses, the data were
screened for missing data, outliers, assumptions of
normality and multicollinearity. A total of 278 surveys
had been returned at the end of data collection. Thirty
cases were deleted because they did not fit the
eligibility criteria of both having a full time job and
having a child in their care under the age of eighteen.
Seven cases were deleted because they did not fit the
criteria for a completed survey. In order to be counted as
a completed survey, 70% of the items needed to be
answered. Two cases were deleted because they were
univariate outliers on more than one variable and two
cases were deleted due to being multivariate outliers,
$p < .001$. Upon looking at the missing values it was
decided that the data is MCAR because Little's is not
significant (χ^2 (35) = 44.175, $p > .05$) and because there
are no variables with 5% or more missing values.
Supervisor support and coworker support had 2 missing
cases (0.8%) and intrinsic motivation had 1 missing case
(0.4%). These cases were deleted. Extrinsic motivation,
work-family conflict, family-work conflict, programs

offered, programs used, competence and autonomy had no missing cases. There were a total of 108 (46%) males and 126 (54%) females, for a total of 234 complete cases. Examination of the remaining variables for normality showed several skewed variables. To correct for skewness, square root transformations were done on programs offered and programs used. The inverse was taken, as well as, a square root transformation for coworker support, autonomy and competence due to a negative skew. The transformations successfully reduced the severity of the skew. The final skewness and kurtosis values for all variables can be seen in Table 1. In order to keep the direction of the relationships consistent with the hypothesized relationships, the transformed variables were recoded such that high values on coworker support indicates more support, high values on autonomy indicates more autonomy and high values on competence indicates more competence.

Table 1. Corrected Skew and Kurtosis for Each Scale

Scale	Skew	Kurtosis
Programs Offered	-1.96	-2.16
Programs Used	1.29	-3.99
Manager/Supervisor Support	-2.01	0.27
Coworker Support	0.96	-0.37
Autonomy	0.51	-2.10
Competence	1.38	-0.74
Intrinsic Motivation	1.97	-0.71
Extrinsic Motivation	0.54	1.07
Work-Family Conflict	-0.88	-2.83
Family-Work Conflict	3.17	-0.56

Prior to running analyses, the paths associated with the measured variable intrinsic motivation were reconsidered. According to theory, intrinsic motivation should be a predictor of CET (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). The tested model includes intrinsic motivation as a predictor of the factor cognitive evaluation theory. The new model is pictured in Figure 2. The hypothesized model includes the latent variables: Organizational Support with four indicators (programs offered, programs used, supervisor support, and coworker support), Cognitive Evaluation Theory with three indicators (autonomy, competence, and intrinsic motivation), and Conflict with two indicators (family-work conflict, and work-family conflict).
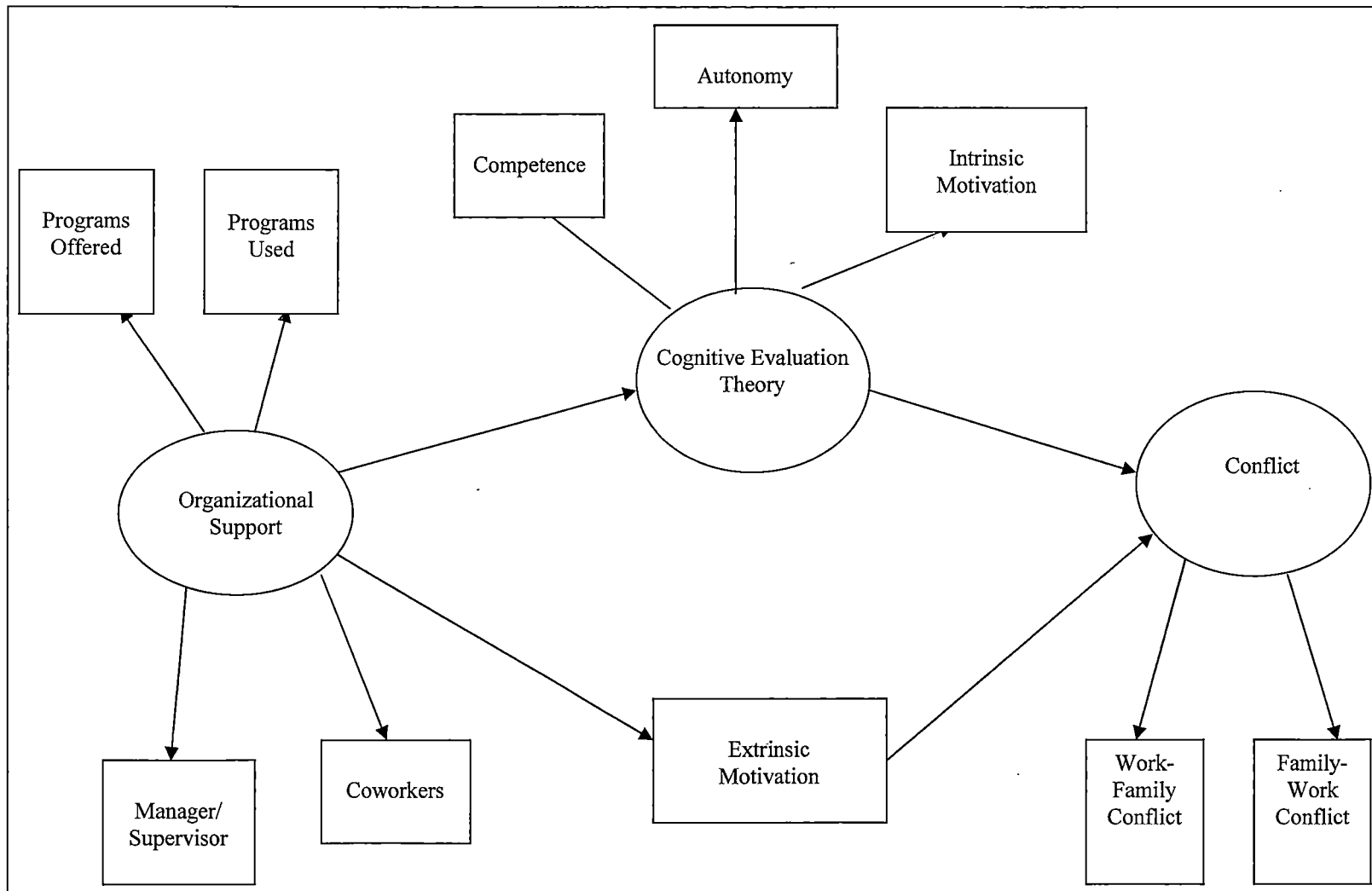
Figure 2. Revised Model

Also included in the model is the measured variable of
extrinsic motivation. The reliability coefficients for
each measured variable can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Reliability Coefficients for Each Scale

Scale	Reliability Coefficient
Programs Offered	n/a
Programs Used	n/a
Manager/Supervisor Support	0.77
Coworker Support	0.86
Autonomy	0.83
Competence	0.82
Intrinsic Motivation	0.80
Extrinsic Motivation	0.71
Work-Family Conflict	0.92
Family-Work Conflict	0.87

Table 2 illustrates the proposed relationships
between the variables. This model hypothesizes that the
relationship between support and conflict is mediated by
cognitive evaluation theory and extrinsic motivation. The
more support that is received the greater the increase in
cognitive evaluation theory and thus a decrease in
conflict. The more support that is received the greater
extrinsic motivation and thus an increase in conflict.

Model Estimation

Because the assumption of multivariate normality was met (Mardia's z = 1.75, p > .001), as well as, the assumption for linearity, maximum likelihood estimation was employed to test the fit of the proposed model. The independence model was tested first. The null hypothesis that the two models were not correlated was rejected, χ^2 (45, N = 238) = 295.58, p < .01. The hypothesized model was tested next and little support was found, χ^2 (32, N = 238) = 89.34, p < .05, CFI = .771, RMSEA = .088. The chi square difference test showed an improved fit between the independent model and the hypothesized model.

Model Modification

Post hoc model modifications were performed with the hopes of finding a better fitting model. As per the Lagrange multiplier test, a path was added predicting Conflict from Organizational Support. In this model, the variance of work-family conflict was fixed to one in order to facilitate convergence. The added path improved the model and resulted in a modest fit, χ^2 (32, N = 238) = 75.72, p < .05, CFI = .873, RMSEA = .077. The final model can be seen in Figure 3.
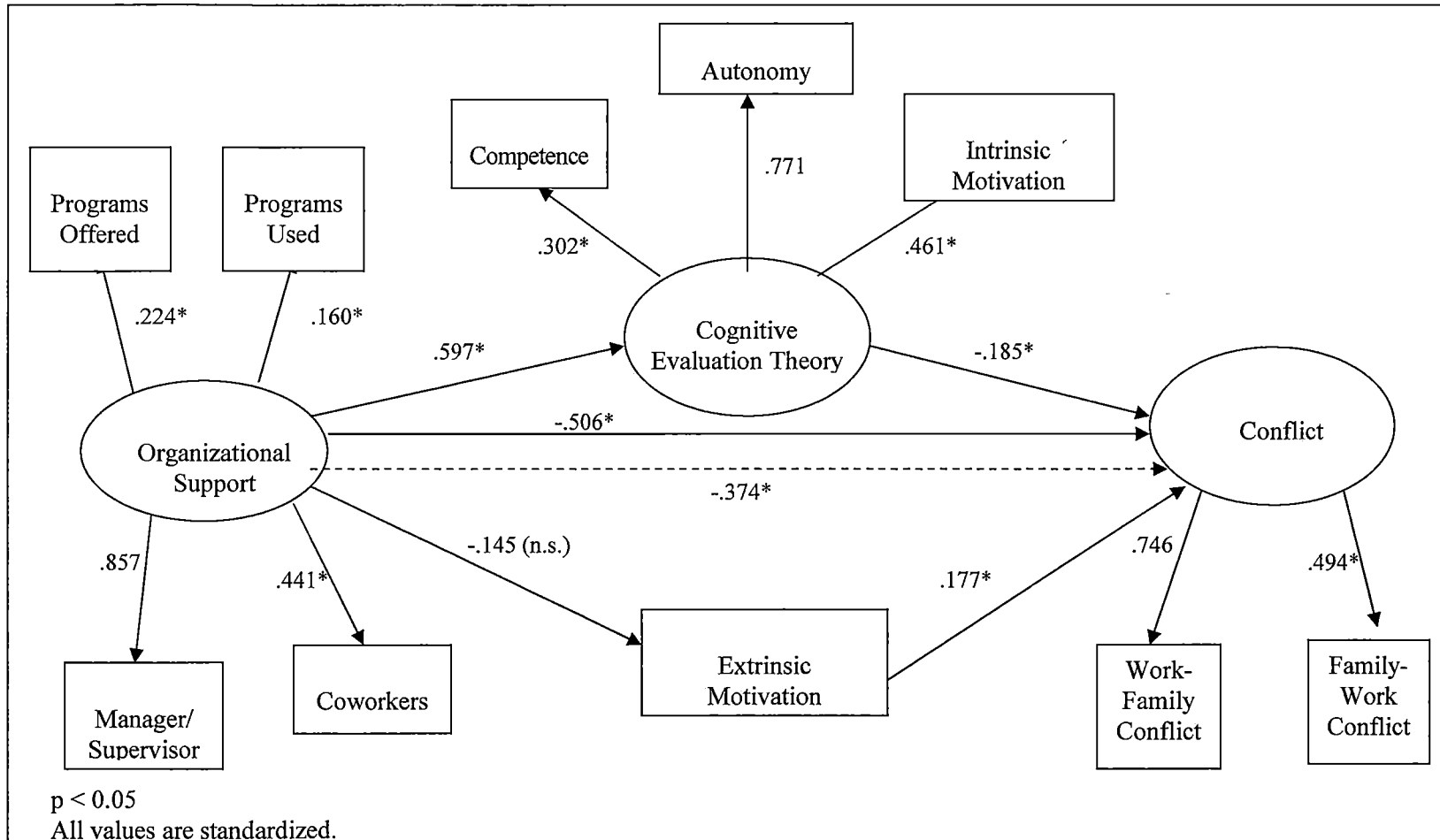
Figure 3. Final Model

All but one path in the model was significant. The path between organizational support and CET was significant. This significant path supports the hypothesis that organizational support from programs offered, programs used, coworker and manager support does in fact increase the effects of CET or autonomy, competence and intrinsic motivation. The path between CET and conflict was significant in the model. This significant path supports the model in that an increase in CET decreases the amount of work-family conflict and family-work conflict. The path between organizational support and extrinsic motivation was not significant in the model. Implications for this insignificant path are discussed further in the Discussion section. The path between extrinsic motivation and conflict was significant in the model. This significant path supports the model in that experiencing increased levels of extrinsic motivation will in turn increase the levels of both work-family conflict and family-work conflict experienced by an individual. Last, the path between organizational support and conflict was significant in that more support from your organization resulted in less conflict experienced by the individual.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

Past research has shown that increased levels of organizational support can decrease the amount of conflict an individual experiences between their work life and their family life (Anderson et al., 2002; Erdwins et al., 2001; Rosin & Korabik, 2002). More specifically, support from a manager, coworker and/or family friendly policies can decrease the amount of work-family conflict and family-work conflict. This study proposed a model that includes the motivation orientation theory of CET as a mediator in the relationship between organizational support and work-family conflict. The literature has already shown that organizational support can increase autonomy, competence and intrinsic motivation which are the components of CET (Erdwins et al., 2001; Kauffeld et al., 2004; Tummers et al., 2003; Van Yperen & Hagedoorn, 2003). The increase in autonomy and competence by organizational support decreases the amount of extrinsic motivation experienced by individuals in the proposed model according to OIT (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This study adds to the literature by taking past research a step further and proposing CET as a mediator in the

relationship between organizational support and work-family conflict.

The tested model includes the constructs of organizational support, CET, extrinsic motivation and conflict. The proposed model suggests such that an increase in organizational support will lead to an increase in CET which will then decrease the amount of conflict experienced. Also proposed is that an increase in organizational support will decrease extrinsic motivation which will in turn increase the amount of conflict experienced. In order to test the hypotheses, data were collected via survey and structural equation modeling was implemented in order to test the fit of the data. The fit of the data collected to the proposed model was modest. The nature of the relationships in the final model was consistent with the predicted relationships. With the exception of one, all paths in the final model were found to be significant. The relationship between organizational support and CET was significantly positive. This relationship is consistent with the findings of Kauffeld et al. (2004) and Van Yperen and Hagedoorn (2003) in that increasing organizational support can increase an employee's autonomy and competence. The significance of this path is also consistent with CET in that increasing

an employee's autonomy and competence through organizational support increased participant intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The relationship between CET and conflict was found to be significantly negative in the final model. This relationship is also consistent with the predicted relationship. An increase in autonomy, competence and intrinsic motivation significantly decreased the level of work-family and family-work conflict experienced by participants. As previously mentioned motivation orientation has not yet been linked in the research to work-family conflict. This study took the first step in proposing the connection between motivation orientation, specifically CET, and work-family conflict. This significant path adds to the work-family conflict in that the relationship between organizational support and work-family conflict can be further understood. The findings of this study open many doors for future research which will be discussed in the future research section.

The potential mediating role of extrinsic motivation was tested in the final model. The relationship between organizational support and extrinsic motivation was not significant in the tested model. However, the relationship between extrinsic motivation and conflict was found to be

significantly positive. Thus, participants who experienced feelings of extrinsic motivation were more likely to experience work-family and family-work conflict. These results pertaining to extrinsic motivation are consistent with past claims that intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are not interdependent but rather independent constructs (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The tested model proposed a negative relationship between organizational support and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The findings of this study show that the relationship between organizational support and extrinsic motivation may be more complicated than had been originally proposed. The non-significant path between organizational support and extrinsic motivation shows that in this study extrinsic motivation is not playing a mediating role between support and conflict. Deci and Ryan (1985) claim that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are indeed related, however they operate independently of one another. Consistent with the tested model, intrinsic motivation increased due to an increase in organizational support yet, extrinsic motivation was not significantly affected. It is important to note, however, that extrinsic motivation was a significant predictor of increased levels of work-family

conflict which is an addition to the work-family conflict literature.

The final model included an added path between organizational support and conflict following recommendations from the Lagrange Multiplier Test. Consistent with Erdwins et al. (2001), this path was found to be significantly negative. Thus, participants who experienced more support from family friendly programs, managers or coworkers were less likely to experience work-family or family-work conflict. This finding is consistent with past research including Hammer et al. (2004), who found general support from coworkers decreased work-family conflict. These findings are also consistent with Allen (2001) who found that organizational support can lead to lower levels of work-family conflict and family-work conflict. The significant direct path between organizational support and conflict signifies that the relationship between these two constructs is not solely explained by motivation orientation. Thus, the relationship between organizational support and family-work conflict and work-family conflict is not fully mediated by motivation orientation. The model is partially mediated meaning that there are other possible factors that can influence the relationship between organizational

support and work-family conflict. Suggestions for other variables that might explain this relationship are discussed in the future research section.

Role of Gender

The role of gender was not examined as part of the hypothesized model. In the past, however, work-family conflict literature has identified gender as a relevant variable to understanding work-family conflict. Consequently, after all predicted relationships were tested, the way in which men and women experience the relationships within the model were examined. Bivariate correlations for all measured variables were examined for both men and women. These correlations can be seen in Table 3. The correlations were then compared to see if men and women were experiencing the relationships in the same manner. A majority of the relationships are consistent with Frone and Yardley (1996) who did not find gender differences; men and women experience many of the relationships in the model quite similarly. Specifically, the strength of the correlations and the direction of the relationships are the same with few exceptions. These findings are important to note because overall, men and women are experiencing the relationships between

organizational support, CET and conflict in the same way as predicted in the model. For some of the relationships however, men and women are having different experiences. For some cases, men and women are not experiencing the relationships in the same direction. In some cases, women may be experiencing a negative relationship while men are experiencing a positive relationship or vice versa. In other cases, the direction of the relationships may be the same but one is a significant correlation while the other is not. Although, overall there were few differences in the strength and direction of the relationships experienced by men and women, the differences that were found may be explained by past research. As previously discussed, some past literature claims that women are more likely to experience work-family conflict than men (Rotondo et al., 2003). Women are also more likely to take on more responsibility in the home (Lundberg & Frankenhaeuser, 1999). As for family friendly programs and conflict, Lundberg and Frankenhaeuser (1999) explain that women are more likely to use and/or be aware of family support programs due to the traditional role women play in child rearing. These differences in gender roles may explain some of the different relationships found in the current model. Within the current study, a stronger test

Table 3. Gender Bivariate Correlations (Male/ Female)

	Supervisor Support	Coworker Support	Programs Offered	Programs Used	Autonomy	Competence	Intrinsic Motivation	Extrinsic Motivation	Work-Family Conflict	Family-Work Conflict
Supervisor Support	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Coworker Support	.37*/.38*	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Programs Offered	.22*/.19*	.04/.10	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Programs Used	.18/.07	.15/−.05	.28*/.30*	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Autonomy	.45*/.42*	.15/.21*	.14/.21*	.15/.07	X	X	X	X	X	X
Competence	.02/.19*	.01/.17*	−.01/.12	−.02/.04	.18/.20*	X	X	X	X	X
Intrinsic Motivation	.26*/.13	.15/.05	.04/.03	.17/−.10	.37*/.30*	.41*/.23*	X	X	X	X
Extrinsic Motivation	−.04/−.13	−.12/−.08	−.04/−.03	−.02/−.14	−.03/−.09	.04/.10	−.09/.10	X	X	X
Work-Family Conflict	−.31*/−.40*	−.17/−.30*	.08/−.12	.02/−.14	−.09/−.15	−.13/−.09	−.19*/−.02	.21*/.15	X	X
Family-Work Conflict	.14/−.35*	.01/−.11	.23*/−.13	.13/−.04	−.01/−.06	−.36*/−.12	.02/.09	.13/.08	.32*/.47*	X

$p < 0.05$

of the role of gender would use multiple groups modeling within EQS, however, such an examination was beyond the scope of this study.

Summary

The findings of this study show that motivation orientation does play a role in explaining the relationship between organizational support and work-family conflict. These findings are important because they help further explain the relationship between organizational support and work-family conflict. As previously mentioned motivation orientation theories have not yet been introduced to the work-family conflict literature. Therefore, this study brings to light a new area of research, motivation orientation, which should be further examined in the future.

CHAPTER FIVE

FUTURE RESEARCH AND LIMITATIONS

Some areas for future research include further examination of the variables and relationships tested in the present study. This study is the first of its kind to include motivation orientation theories in the work-family conflict literature. Further research should be conducted to test the replicability of the current findings. The model should also be tested in different demographic groups to see if it can be applied in differing populations such as men vs. women, minority vs. non-minority, and married vs. single parents to name a few.

Future research should also include a more detailed look at extrinsic motivation, as well as, explore other motivation theories. Extrinsic motivation did not play a mediating role between support and conflict in this study, but it was a predictor of decreased conflict. Further research should be conducted to better understand the role that extrinsic motivation plays in work-family conflict and family-work conflict. A different motivation theory that could be related to work-family conflict may be Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory. It is possible that if

employees understand how to achieve their goal, believe they are capable of achieving it and believe there is genuine value in attaining the goal of work-family balance, they will be more likely to reach the goal. Other theories that might be worth examining in relation to work-family conflict include Goal Setting Theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) and Consistency Theory (Festinger, 1957).

Other factors that might affect the relationship between organizational support and work-family conflict should be examined. One source of support that is not tested in this model is spouse and/or family support. Spouse and/or family support has been operationalized in two ways, tangible support and emotional support. Tangible support is providing assistance with household chores such as cooking dinner or putting the kids to bed (Bernas & Major, 2000). Emotional support can be defined as providing "nurturance and positive affective experiences" (Bernas & Major, 2000, p. 171). Research shows that spouse and/or family support can decrease the amount of work-family conflict an individual employee experiences (Bernas & Major, 2000; Frone & Yardley, 1996). Some researchers in the past few decades have begun to examine what they call crossover, which is similar to spouse/family support (Barnett & Brennan, 1998; Gareis,

Barnett & Brennan, 2003; Hammer, Allen, & Grisby, 1997).
The crossover literature identifies this construct as when
employees act "as autonomous agents, not as members of
dyads in which each partner's job and family experiences
affect the other partner's social-role experiences"
(Gareis et al., 2003, p. 1041). In future research,
spouse, family support and crossover should either be
considered as a predictor of support along side family
friendly programs, coworker and manager support or tested
separately as its own construct.

While gender was not a focus in this study, future
research should investigate how gender roles might affect
the model. For example, as discussed previously, women
tend to play the role of homemaker and take care of the
children (Lundberg & Frankenhaeuser, 1999). In some
families, however, men take on this role and women serve
as the breadwinner. Future research should examine how
these differences in traditions roles affect the amount of
work-family conflict experienced. It would also be
interesting to examine these so called "role reversal"
individuals in the model tested in this study. If the
relationships are different than what was found in this
study, it might lend that there is something inherently

different in the way men and women experience work-family conflict.

The sample tested in this study had participants from both white collar and blue collar jobs. This is one area of the work-family conflict literature that is starting to get attention. Future research should include testing models for both white and blue collar populations to examine their similarities and/or differences. Frone, Russell, Cooper (1992) found that in their model work-family conflict was not significantly related to family distress for white collar workers but was significantly positive for blue collar workers. The findings for their model support the hypothesis that the way in which white and blue collar employees experience different situations can vary. Some differences that could affect the model from this study are that the family friendly programs offered could be different. Also, in some blue collar environments, such as a manufacturing plant, managers might not have the same level of personal interaction with their employees as in some white collar jobs. This could lend to different levels of manager support. Due to the random sample used in the current study, the model could not be tested for white and blue

collar employees. Further research, however should examine the potential differences.

Another area of the work-family conflict literature that needs to be further examined is the measurement and value of family friendly programs. Consistent with the recommendations of Rosin and Korabik (2002) future research should study a more reliable and valid way to test the value of family friendly programs in organizations. In trying to find the value of family friendly programs, researchers could conduct case studies in different organizations to see what works for them and what does not work. Looking at a detailed examination across organizations might provide some consistency and therefore valuable insight. Further discussion of the difficulties with the family friendly programs scale used in this study is presented in the limitations section.

Within an applied setting, this research supports the hypothesis that an increase in an employee's intrinsic motivation can make a difference the amount of work-family conflict experienced by employees. One such way that organizations can increase employee intrinsic motivation is via support from managers, coworkers and family friendly policies. As for family-friendly policies, organizations should monitor their use within the

organization and possibly get feedback from employees who use them to make sure the programs offered are of value to employees. Also, organizations should assess the amount of awareness that is present with employees about the family-friendly programs. Organizations should encourage all employees, including supervisors, to create supportive environments for when a personal issue may arise outside of work. One step in creating this environment might be by fostering the idea that all employees should speak freely about the challenges they face in balancing work and family issues. Some organizations that have implemented family friendly programs have reported an impact on the bottom line, decreased turnover and absenteeism and an increase in employee engagement (Gresham, 2007; Stephenson, 2007). In the future, it may be beneficial for those in an applied setting to pair with researchers in order to better understand where future research can go based on what is happening in an applied setting and what the applied settings can learn from the research.

While the current study does show evidence that motivation orientation does partially mediate the relationship between organizational support and work-family conflict, other variables should be considered. One example is job type. There are some job

types that may not allow for managers and coworkers to increase levels of autonomy and competence. An example of such a job type would be manufacturing. For those who work on an assembly line, there may be very little opportunity for managers and coworkers to increase an employee's autonomy on the job. In other jobs, a manager may not have the ability to create greater autonomy or distribute extrinsic rewards. Future research should investigate whether such variables could alter the outcomes of the current model.

While the results of this study do lend valuable information to the literature of work-family conflict, there are several limitations of the study that should be noted. First, the survey used in this study was self report. Along with this method of data collection comes several known limitations such as participants may answer questions in a socially desirable manner, human error in checking the appropriate box, and misunderstanding the question to name a few. Within this study, participants could have interpreted the family support programs in different ways. Also, participants may have felt it socially desirable to respond to the work-family conflict scale in a certain way. Consequently, participants may not have wanted to admit that they struggle balancing their

work and family lives. Another limitation in the method of data collection is the use of Likert scales. One limitation in the use of these scales is the differing ways in which participants interpret each anchor and the space between them. For example, one individual might interpret the space between agree and strongly agree to be much closer than another individual. These limitations may or may not be relevant to the current study but are important to recognize as possibilities.

As previously discussed, the scale used to measure the use and organizational offering of family friendly programs has some limitations. To date, there is no single measure that is reliable and valid. Rosin and Korabik (2002) claim that past researchers have not been consistent in which aspects of policies they are measuring (i.e. importance, satisfaction, use, awareness) and therefore a standard, reliable and valid measure has not been created. Rosin and Korabik also claim that there too much variability in the populations that have been studied on family friendly programs. This variability in populations has not provided enough information on any one population to get a true understanding on the relationships that are occurring. In the future, researchers should consider these limitations and

concentrate their efforts to gain a better understanding of the usefulness and awareness of family friendly programs. One such way to overcome this limitation could be to focus solely on one population (i.e. women) until a better understanding of how the usefulness and awareness affect that particular population.

Another possible limitation of the study was in altering the Work Preference Inventory Scale from trait based to state based (Amabile et al., 1994). The scale was prefaced with "In my current work environment" in order to change the scale to state based. The validity of this new scale has not been tested. Therefore, it is possible that participants did not respond to the items in the way that was intended by the preface. State based motivation may not have been captured in the current study as was anticipated. Future research should use different motivation scales to test the reliability of the present model.

While the sample used in the present study was rather diverse, other populations should be tested. The present sample has an array of participants from differing income levels, industries, racial/ethnic groups, gender and marital status. This diverse sample means that the results of the study are generalizable to similar populations. The

sample from the study however, is solely US participants. In order to generalize the results to different countries and cultures around the world, the model should be tested with these populations. Another population that was not included in the sample is part-time employees. Employees who work part-time might experience work-family conflict in a different way than those who work full-time. Family friendly policies might not be as available for those who work part-time. Also, coworkers and managers might not be as supportive in an employee's attempt to balance work and family issues due to the decreased hours worked per week. In order to further understand the possible differences and similarities between full-time and part-time workers more research needs to be conducted.

Conclusion

Overall, the present study has offered some important new findings to the work-family conflict literature. Prior to this study, motivation orientation had not yet been included in the work-family conflict literature. This study found that a motivation orientation theory, specifically CET played a significant role in the relationship between organizational support and conflict. Cognitive Evaluation Theory partially mediated the

relationship between organizational support (manager support, coworker support, and family friendly policies) and work-family conflict and family-work conflict. With this addition to the literature, researchers should continue to examine the role motivation orientation plays in work-family conflict and how these findings can be applied in organizations.

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographics
1. Age: _____

2. Sex
   a. Male
   b. Female

3. Employment Status
   a. Full time
   b. Part time
   c. Not currently employed

4. Education
   a. Some high school
   b. High school diploma
   c. Some college
   d. Associates degree
   e. College degree
   f. Some graduate school
   g. Master's degree
   h. Ph.D.
   i. Other: _____

5. Ethnicity
   a. Asian-American
   b. Black (African-American)
   c. Hispanic-American
   d. Native American
   e. White (Caucasian, non-Hispanic)
   f. Other: _____

6. Tenure: _____ Years _____ months

7. Industry
   a. Manufacturing
   b. Service
   c. Government
   d. Retail
   e. Education
   f. Health Care
   g. Other: _____

8. Relationship Status
   a. Single/ Never married
   b. In a serious relationship but not cohabitating
   c. Cohabitating
   d. Married
   e. Separated
   f. Divorced/ Widowed

9. Number of Children: _____

10. Age of Children: _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

11. Salary Range Per Year
    a. Less than $20,000/ year
    b. $20,000- $29,999
    c. $30,000- $39,999
    d. $40,000- $49,999
    e. $50,000- $59,999
    f. $60,000- $69,999
    g. $70,000- $79,999
    h. $80,000- $89,999
    i. $90,000- $99,999
    j. $100,000 or more

Family-Supportive Programs (Place a checkmark next to programs offered and those that are used)
(Allen, 2001)

    Programs Offered Programs Used
1. Flextime _____ _____
2. Compressed work week _____ _____
3. Telecommuting _____ _____
4. Part-time work _____ _____
5. On-site child care _____ _____
6. Subsidized local child care _____ _____
7. Child care information/ referral service _____ _____
8. Paid maternity leave _____ _____
9. Paid paternity leave _____ _____
10. Elder care _____ _____

Total Score _____ _____

Perceived Manager/ Supervisor Support (5-point response scale, 1 = never, 5 = very often)
(Thomas & Ganster, 1995)
1. Switched schedules (hours, overtime hours, vacation) to accommodate my family responsibilities.
2. Listened to my problems.
3. Was critical of my efforts to combine work and family.
4. Juggled tasks or duties to accommodate my family responsibilities.
5. Shared ideas or advice.
6. Held my family responsibilities against me.
7. Helped me to figure out how to solve a problem.
8. Was understanding or sympathetic.
9. Showed resentment of my needs as a working parent.

Coworker Support (5-point response scale, 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree)
(Hammer et al., 2004)
1. When I experience conflict between my work and family lives, I receive help and support from my coworkers.
2. I feel I am accepted in my work group.
3. My coworkers are understanding if I have a conflict between my work life and my family life.
4. My coworkers back me up when I need it.
5. I feel comfortable with my coworkers.

Job Autonomy (4-point response scale, 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = strongly agree)

(Thompson & Prottas, 2005)

1. I have the freedom to decide what I do on my job.
2. I have a lot of say about what happens on my job.
3. I decide when I take breaks.
4. It is basically my own responsibility to decide how my job gets done.

Competence (6-point response scale, 1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree)

(Riggs et al., 1994)

1. I have confidence in my ability to do my job.
2. There are some tasks required by my job that I cannot do well.
3. When my performance is poor it is due to my lack of ability.
4. I doubt my ability to do my job.
5. I have all the skills needed to perform my job very well.
6. Most people in my line of work can do this job better than I can.
7. I am an expert at my job.
8. My future I this job is limited because of my lack of skills
9. I am very proud of my jobs skills and abilities.
10. I feel threatened when others watch me work.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (4-point response scale, 1 = never or almost never true of me, 4 = always or almost always true of me)
(Amabile et al., 1994)
Instructions: Answer the following questions based on the prefix "In my current work environment..."

In my current work environment....
1. I enjoy tackling problems that are completely new to me. (I)
2. I enjoy trying to solve complex problems. (I)
3. The more difficult the problem, the more I enjoy trying to solve it. (I)
4. I want my work to provide me with opportunities for increasing my knowledge and skills. (I)
5. Curiosity is the driving force behind much of what I do. (I)
6. I want to find out how good I really can be at my work. (I)
7. I prefer to figure things out for myself. (I)
8. What matters most to me is enjoying what I do. (I)
9. It is important for me to have an outlet for self-expression. (I)
10. I prefer work I know I can do well over work that stretches my abilities. (I)
11. No matter what the outcome of a project, I am satisfied if I feel I gained a new experience. (I)
12. I'm more comfortable when I can set my own goals. (I)
13. I enjoy doing work that is so absorbing that I forget about everything else. (I)
14. It is important for me to be able to do what I most enjoy. (I)
15. I enjoy relatively simple, straightforward tasks. (I)
16. I am strongly motivated by the money I can earn. (E)
17. I am keenly aware of the promotion goals I have for myself. (E)
18. I am strongly motivated by the recognition I can earn from other people. (E)
19. I want other people to find out how good I really can be at my work. (E)
20. I seldom think about salary and promotions. (E)
21. I am keenly aware of the income goals I have for myself. (E)
22. To me, success means doing better than other people. (E)
23. I have to feel that I'm earning something for what I do. (E)
24. As long as I can do what I enjoy, I'm not that concerned about exactly what I'm paid. (E)
25. I believe that there is no point in doing a good job if nobody else knows about it. (E)
26. I'm concerned about how other people are going to react to my ideas. (E)
27. I prefer working on projects with clearly specified procedures. (E)
28. I'm less concerned with what work I do than what I get for it. (E)
29. I am not that concerned about what other people think of my work. (E)
30. I prefer having someone set clear goals for me in my work. (E)

Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict (7-point response scale,
1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
(Netemeyer et al., 1996)

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life. (WFC)
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities. (WFC).
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me. (WFC)
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties. (WFC)
5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities. (WFC).
6. The demands of my family or spouse/ partner interfere with work-related activities. (FWC)
7. I have to put off doing thins at work because of demands on my time at home. (FWC)
8. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/ partner. (FWC)
9. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime. (FWC)
10. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties. (FWC).

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