

A Within-Person Evaluation of Decision Making Logics as Mediating Mechanisms in
Episodic Work-Family Conflict Decision Making

A Dissertation

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Abstract

Increased workforce diversity, technological innovations, and globalization are some of the diverse macro-environmental factors that have changed the very nature of work. While many organizations have adopted flexibility initiatives with the intention of enabling better employee management of work and family demands, this flexibility has come at a cost. Blurring of boundaries between work and family domains, and greater work-family customization by employee are some of the unanticipated consequences of initiatives that were intended to reduce demands but only make additional demands of the employee's attention. Consequently, 'making work and family work' represents a persistent concern among many working individuals. Although research on work-family decision making has acknowledged that individuals intentionally allocate resources to different domains to achieve desired outcomes, research has only recently begun to examine the antecedents of and process by which individuals resolve work-family conflict episodes. While recent research has found that contextual factors influence whether the work or family role is prioritized, the mediating processes underlying these decisions have yet to be examined.

This study contributes to the literature by examining the episodic work-family decision making process to evaluate decision making logics as mediating mechanisms of work-family decisions. It adopted a daily diary method to examine episodes of work-family conflict and drew on theoretical frameworks to evaluate the decision making logics namely, the logic of consequences and appropriateness (March, 1994) as potential mechanisms at the within-person level. The study found evidence to suggest that a concern for consequences and concern for complying with role appropriate behaviors

may mediate the relationship between contextual factors, such as role pressure, support and activity importance, and the decision to prioritize either work or family. Essentially, short-term penalties associated with non-participation in certain activities, especially in the work domain, are associated with prioritizing work over family while benefits accruing from participating in activities, in the family domain are associated with prioritizing family over work. Further, a need to comply with certain role expectations and the need to maintain positive relationships with the other individual in the activity may also be associated with individuals prioritizing activities, especially in the family domain. Additionally, the study examined whether role salience moderates the relationship between activity importance and decision to participate in an activity and found no interactive effects on the decision to prioritize work or family.

Work-family conflict is a pervasive concern for most employees and managing episodic instances of conflict is an important part of achieving work-family balance. This study provides insight into why individuals may decide to prioritize work or family in certain situations during episodic conflict. Although over 80% of US organizations offer some form of flexibility (Kossek & Michel, 2011), research finds that most management policies and practices aimed at reducing work-family conflict levels are associated with weak or ambiguous effects (Kelly, 2008; Kossek & Michel, 2011) given ambiguity about the direction of interference experienced. This study adds to research on episodic conflict and a better understanding of which can lead to greater insight into how practices may be modified to reduce conflict and improve outcomes for individuals.

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Work-Family Conflict Decision Making

Work-family research examines the intersection of individuals' work experiences and family lives. This body of research has grown tremendously in the past few decades since Kanter's (1977) landmark work, observed that, organizations paid scant attention to employees' home lives and acted as if all that mattered was employees' life at work, shattering the myth of separate work and family domains (Allen, 2012). Kanter was critical of the prevailing research position that perpetuated the 'myth of separateness' of work and family domains, despite broad agreement among social scientists of strong links between the two. Subsequent research and practice reflected and thrived on acknowledging the intersections between the two domains. Growth in work-family research and practice has been fueled by several macro-environmental influences including socio-economic changes (increased participation of women and higher percentage of dual-earner families in the work force), technological innovations (improved communication capabilities allowing remote and asynchronous working), and globalization (impacting expectations about nature of contract between employees and organizations), which have influenced how, where and by whom work is performed (Major & Germano, 2006).

Changes in work and the workforce have influenced decisions made by individuals on how to allocate their time and energy to work and family roles, such that decisions that were once defined by social gender norms and relatively straightforward, are now more complicated. Further, flexible work arrangements, such as flex-time and flex-place, which allow work to be performed from any place and at any time, have blurred the boundaries between work and family. Although flexibility increases the

number of available choices, it also increases the number of decisions to be made, and places additional demands on the individual, which can undermine self-regulation (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven & Tice, 1998). Consequently, “making work and family work” represents a persistent concern among many working individuals (Greenhaus & Powell, 2016). This concern underscores the dilemmas that many individuals face on a daily basis and the decision making involved in allocating time and energy in order to meet conflicting role demands.

To Choose Family or Work - That Is The Question

Although work-family research acknowledges that individuals make intentional allocation decisions to manage work and family demands (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) and that individuals may limit involvement in one role to manage demands from the other, researchers have yet to fully understand the decision processes that determine whether work interferes with family or family interferes with work (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Individuals play a variety of roles and are part of complex situations that require them to prioritize and make decisions. These decisions, both episodic and longer term, are important in managing career and family priorities. Unfortunately, research on work-family decision making has been conducted primarily at the between-person level, largely neglecting the causes and consequences of episodic, in-the-moment decision making across time. Yet, distinct factors may influence episodic decision making and other kinds of longer-term decision making such as family adaptive strategies (Moen & Wethington, 1992). In contrast to family adaptive strategies, which refer to strategies that individuals/families adopt in the face of long-term life changes (Moen & Wethington, 1992), or longer-term decision making as evidenced with investing in work and family

roles (e.g., Amatea et al., 1986; Greenhaus, 1971; Lobel, 1991), episodic decisions are shorter-term in impact. As such, a given episode may be more constrained in the scope of its impact. Nonetheless, because episodic decisions are made more frequently and are ubiquitous, their cumulative impact influence and may rival that of larger-scale life-course decisions. This makes understanding of the process imperative for better management of work-family conflict.

Aims of the study. Although some scholars have taken initial steps to begun addressing the issue of episodic work-family decision making (Poelmans, Greenhaus & Stepanova, 2013), many questions remain unaddressed, particularly with regard to the processes by which contextual factors impact work-family decisions. This study aimed to examine episodes of work-family conflict in order to shed light on the process by which individuals make explicit decisions to prioritize work over family or vice-versa. Although, recent research (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015) on episodic decision making has found that contextual variables significantly influence the decision to prioritize work or family, the mediating processes underlying these effects have not been examined. Hence, a primary contribution of this study is to identify and empirically evaluate potential mediating mechanisms of work-family prioritization decisions. In so doing, I drew upon theory and research regarding the logic of consequences and logic of appropriateness. While the logic of consequences views decisions as based on evaluation of alternatives in terms of their consequences for work and family, the logic of appropriateness is based on actions that follow rules consistent with work and family identities. To date, research on decision making has generally considered decision making logics at the between-person level. However,

research on time investment in work and family roles (e.g., Lobel, 1991; Rothbard & Edwards, 2003) suggests the possibility of intraindividual variability in the use of decision logics. Hence, a related contribution is an examination of the extent to which these logics are utilized in episodic work-family decision making. Further, this study proposed and tested specific contextual variables that may function as antecedents of greater use of a particular kind of logic over the other.

Another important aim was to refine our understanding of the impact of two key antecedents—role salience and activity importance—on the decision making process. Although individuals may identify with multiple roles, such as employee, family member, community member etc., and thereby exhibit a range of role identities (Ashforth, 2001), for a given individual, the importance of these identities is likely to vary across roles (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000). Role salience refers to the psychological or subjective importance of a given role to an individual (Thoits, 1991). Research on work-family decision making has generally focused more on the importance of roles to the neglect of individual activities within each role. While research on work-family decision making (e.g., Lobel, 1991; Stryker & Serpe, 1982) has found that role salience is positively associated with the decision to invest time and energy in an activity, studies have only recently begun to examine it in the context of episodic decision-making. Recent research has also focused on the importance of activities within those roles for the decision to participate in the activity. Activity importance, a contextual variable that refers to the import of the activity, is associated with the decision to participate in the role activity (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015). Further, activity importance is more predictive of decision making than role salience in situations when

the individual can only participate solely in one activity (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). Conversely, role salience is predictive when importance of both activities is high but it is possible to participate partially in both activities. This suggests that individuals can and do discern within-role differences in the importance of activities such that in some cases the importance of a particular activity overrides the salience of the role in which the activity is embedded. For instance, an employee who is high on work role salience may take off from work, despite an important meeting, to be able to stay home and care for a sick child. However, research has yet to examine the conditions under which the salience of a role takes precedence over the importance of a particular activity.

Based on Steel & König's (2006) Temporal Motivation Theory (TMT), I proposed that role salience moderates the relationship between activity importance and decision to participate in a domain activity. In choosing from a variety of possible activities, TMT postulates that individuals have an innate tendency to undervalue future events in favor of more immediate events. Accordingly, when faced with the option of choosing between a high importance activity with nearer term consequences and an activity from a role that is salient but consequences are somewhat more in the future, individuals tend to choose the high importance activity. Hence, a second aim of this study was to examine the interactive effects of role salience and activity importance on the decision to prioritize one role activity over the other.

In summary, this study adds to the growing nascent literature on episodic work-family decision making by empirically examining the phenomenology of conflict and decision making in episodic work-family conflict situations. It employed a daily diary design to examine episodic work-family conflict. In so doing, it answers the call by

researchers (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007; Lapierre & McMullan, 2015) for diary studies that can help investigate work-family phenomena over time and to examine dynamic relationships among study variables. Use of diary method, where measurements are done close to the occurrence of the experience and within the participant's natural environment, provides the advantage of reduced risk of retrospective recall bias and increased ecological validity, thereby overcoming key limitations associated with some studies (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006) in episodic work-family decision making research.

I begin with a review of the literature on work-family decision making discussing the historical studies on dominant approaches to decision making namely, the utilitarian and social identity approaches and then highlight subsequent research on decision making frameworks that provide the theoretical basis for the proposed study. Next, I emphasize the advantages of episodic approaches to understanding the work-family conflict process before reviewing contributions from extant studies and reiterating the importance of episodic studies for effective interventions. Then, I discuss the proposed model of episodic work-family decision making, elaborating on different variables before presenting the relevant hypotheses. Next, I discuss the details of data collection and measures used. I follow this by detailing the analysis conducted to test the proposed hypotheses and the auxiliary analysis done. Finally, I present a discussion of the results, consider the implications before ending with an examination of the limitations of the study and potential directions for future research.

A Review of Literature on Work-Family Conflict Decision Making

In general, work-family conflict (work to family conflict, WFC) is thought to occur when participation in a work-activity conflicts with participation in a family-activity. Family-work conflict (family to work conflict, FWC), on the other hand, occurs when participation in a family-activity conflicts with participation in a work-activity (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In their original formulation of work-family conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell explicitly stated that conflict itself is non-directional and the direction becomes apparent only when a decision is made to resolve the incompatible demands. The decision establishes causal attribution of conflict by clarifying which is the interfering domain and which domain is being interfered with. Work-family decision making is defined as “a choice regarding the nature or extent of one’s participation in a given role, whether work or family, that is influenced by consideration of participation in the other roles” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2007, p5). For instance, an employee may face a choice between working extra-hours to meet an important project deadline and attending their child’s music recital and decide to forego attendance in the child’s recital to complete the project report. Hence, when an individual is faced with a predicament regarding how to allocate time, energy, and resources among competing needs, work-family conflict decision making results in the selection of a course of action from among different alternatives in the domains of work and family roles (Poelmans et al., 2013).

It is interesting to note that neither the definition posited by Greenhaus & Powell (2007) nor the elaborations proposed by Poelmans et al., (2013) refer to temporality of decision making as part of the definition. As a result, work-family decision making is a catchall that refers to a broad array of decisions concerning the individual’s participation

in work and family domains that vary by focus, temporality, and impact. However, this study focuses on work-family decision making that occurs episodically, involves consideration of involvement in both work and family domains, and carries shorter-term consequences for the individual. Hence, it is different from work-family decisions that may be taken at or during important life events, involve considerations of involvement in both domains, but are arguably less frequent, and most importantly carrying longer-term implications for both work and life domains. An instance of such longer-term decision making would be of an employee choosing to go to work shortly after the birth of a baby. Such a decision is more likely to a) be linked to an important life events, b) expected to be a decision involving (likely) both partners, and c) have longer-term implications in terms of social support, financial resources etc. This is in contrast to an episodic work-family decision where the occurrence of conflict is more frequent, with shorter-term implications. For instance, an employee may need to decide whether to miss a meeting with his daughter's teacher in order to remain in the office to finish a status report that is due the next morning or, alternatively, to attend the meeting but take work home in an attempt complete it by the next day's deadline.

Employees make episodic decisions — often on a daily basis — in order to negotiate work and family demands. Such decisions generally involve prioritizing one role (work/family) over the other (family/work). Despite the prevalence of episodic decision making in our daily lives, research has yet to explicate the episodic work-family decision making process and the reasons underlying the decisions. This literature review will focus on the extant research on work-family decision making starting with a detailed discussion of two specific aspects namely, a) decision making logics, and b) decision

frameworks. In discussing the recent research interest in episodic work-family decision making, I elaborate on the historical reasons behind a lack of clarity around the decision making process namely, a) lack of consensus around the conceptualization of the work-family conflict process, b) interchangeable use of construct definitions relating to conflict and interference, and c) the pervasive use of cross-sectional research designs for examining work-family conflict. I conclude with a discussion of predictors of episodic work-family decision making with a focus on role salience and activity importance.

Dominant Approaches to Work-Family Decision Making

Research on work-family decision making in the past few decades can be traced back to studies of role investment (e.g., Lobel, 1991; Lobel & St. Clair, 1992; Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh & Reilly, 1995) which examined crucial, longer-term decisions people made regarding how to devote time, and resources into different roles. These studies aimed to understand the process of investment in work and family roles, and the motivations behind these investments (Lobel, 1991). Two key approaches were identified, referred to as the utilitarian approach and the social identity approach.

Utilitarian approach. The more traditional, utilitarian approach is based on exchange theory (Homans, 1976) and emphasizes the importance of role rewards and costs in decisions regarding the levels of investment in roles. For instance, a role reward for a parent may be the joy that she derives from spending time with the child teaching the child new skills, whereas a cost of a demanding career may be that the individual has lesser time to spend with family. Consequently, the utilitarian approach posits that greater and more frequent rewards result in the individual being more likely to engage in the activity while costs or sanctions associated with activities likely detract the person from

engaging in those activities. Empirical support for the utilitarian approach comes from studies (e.g., Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Amatea et al., 1986; Rothbard & Edwards, 2003) that report a positive relationship between work and family role rewards and the commitment to the specific roles. When applied to the work-family decision making context, the utilitarian approach posits that the work and family roles are inherently competitive in seeking investment since people invest in roles that yield more rewards than costs. Consequently, a lack of opportunity for rewards or lower rewards in one domain may cause the individual to withdraw resources from that domain and seek rewards in the other domain (Lobel, 1991).

Social identity approach. In contrast, the social identity approach contends that an individual's investment in a role is positively related to the individual's identification with the role (Lobel, 1991). Based on the social identity theory, this approach to role investment posits that the need to belong and maintain significant relationships with others influences participation in a particular role. This theory also holds that perceived rewards do not necessarily influence the person's identification or investment in the role. Similarly, perceived sanctions do not bring about reduced identification and investment in the role. Several empirical studies provide support for the social identity approach. For instance, commitment to an identity is related to self-reports of social activities such as church attendance (Santee & Jackson, 1979) and blood donation (Callero, 1985). Lobel (1991) drew a distinction between the two approaches by describing the utilitarian approach as having affording a conflict framing because it casts work and family domains as competing for the same finite resources while portraying the social identity approach as providing the potential for positive links between work and family roles

since resource investment is based on identification. However, this contrast is arguably less stark than theorized since it is possible that individuals find work and family roles offering different kinds of rewards that are both equally valued. Alternately, individuals may choose to invest in both work and family roles because they identify strongly with different aspects of each of these roles. Nevertheless, the two major theoretical approaches compare personal utilities and role rewards against values and identities as motivations behind decisions to invest in work or family related options (Lobel, 1991).

Research on work-family decision making (e.g., Amatea et al., 1986; Callero, 1985; Rothbard & Edwards, 2003) provides empirical support to suggest that individuals employ both approaches to decide whether or not to invest in a role. Specifically, this research finds that even when controlling for utilitarian motives, identity is positively related to the time invested in a role. Similarly, people invest in roles that provide rewards and even when controlling for identity motives, utilitarian motives are positively related to role investment (Rothbard & Edwards, 2003). Despite being apparently competing propositions, empirical support for both these approaches under different conditions underscores the possibility that an individual's values and identities may predict general tendencies for investment in work and family roles, but the perceived net rewards maybe more predictive of specific choices (Lobel, 1991). Support for both approaches led to calls (Lobel, 1991; Rothbard & Edwards, 2003) for frameworks that could integrate the two dominant perspectives on work-family decision making. Such a framework would better explain motivations to maximize both utility and affirmation of identity - outcomes that were insufficiently explained by either approach in isolation.

Work-Family Decision Making Frameworks

Decision process theory of work and family. Poelmans and colleagues'

Decision Process Theory (Poelmans, 2005; Poelmans et al., 2013) is an attempt to combine the utility and social identity motives as explanations for people's decisions to invest time and effort in different domains. Poelmans et al., (2013) notes that this theory is based in March & Simon's (1958) theory of decision making. An important precondition of this theory is that individuals have a reasonable degree of control over the situation and can make decisions based on not just values and preferences, but also their previous experiences.

Decision process theory conceptualizes decision making process as a series of ongoing interactions between individuals and their environments and posits that work-family conflict is an intermediate step in such a decision making process. With such a conceptualization, this framework moves attention away from the consequences of work-family conflict to critical actions of "deliberation, decision making, and learning that *precede* and *follow* a work-family dilemma" (Poelmans, 2005, p 264). This conceptualization is in contrast to the two main approaches (utilitarian & social identity based), which regard decision making as an intermediate step in the work-family conflict process. In essence, Decision Process Theory focuses on decision making and learning to distinguish separate contexts that dictate different decision rules for prioritizing one domain over the other (Poelmans et al., 2013). In so doing, individuals may employ the logic of consequences and attempt to evaluate the potential consequences of each course of action with regard to the well-being of family (Greenhaus & Powell, 2016). Alternately, they may adopt the logic of appropriateness and pursue courses of action that

is consistent with how they perceive themselves. Poelmans (2005) further notes that distinct contexts (social and economic) dictate different decision making rules with social contexts being associated with logic of appropriateness and economic contexts/considerations leading to the use of logic of consequences.

Despite the important theoretical contributions this framework makes in advancing work-family decision making, a key limitation of this framework is that many of the propositions are too complex to be easily falsifiable (Poelmans, 2005). Although the theory has been presented as a series of propositions to enable testing it in parts, it sacrifices parsimony for a complexity that purportedly reflects reality, in an attempt to answer all relevant questions. For instance, proposition # 4, which discusses how individuals compute inputs, costs, and rewards to make work and family-related decisions, states:

“In determining his or her input, the actor will take into account the demands of the situation (needed or expected effort), available resources, and possible positive rewards and negative (cost) outcomes, striving for an equitable (input/[rewards- costs]) ratio (equitable compared with the ratio of alternatives). Given the fact that decision concerning inputs affects other and that rewards are often granted by others, the decision makers while computing inputs, costs, and rewards will also take into account possible reactions of others, dyad per dyad, in terms of rewarding (rewards), nonreciprocating or even punishing behavior (costs).”

The type of research necessary, decision criteria, dyads, and the appreciation of alternatives explicit in order to make predictions of decisions and predictions of work-family conflict is more qualitative than quantitative. Specifically, the principles does not lend themselves to easy quantification and the suggested methodologies for testing the theory are case studies and possibly vignette studies (Poelmans, 2005).

Rational theory of decision making. According to this framework by Powell and Greenhaus, (2006), decision making follows a rational, multistep framework to arrive at the decision to prioritize one domain over the other. Such decisions are informed by considerations and priorities in either domain (work or family). The goal of such decisions is to enhance work-family balance while meeting work goals and improving family well-being (Greenhaus & Powell, 2016). This framework shares some similarities with Poelmans' (2005) decision process theory. First, similar to the decision process theory (Poelmans, 2005) this framework also draws on the theory of decision making by March (1994). Next, Greenhaus and Powell (2016) argue, in a similar fashion as Poelmans (2005), that decisions can be made either by reasoning or by intuition and adopt either the logic of consequences or the logic of appropriateness in arriving at the decision. The authors go further to suggest that individuals may even use a combination of logics to arrive at the decision. However, decisions can vary since a) they are subject to decision making biases (such as satisficing and maximizing) that can limit the quality of decision making and b) individuals vary in the extent to which they consider the other domain while making decisions that affect both domains. Specifically, although individuals making work-family decisions should ideally take into consideration implications of decisions for both domains, there is arguably considerable variability in the extent to which they do so. Hence, the rational theory of decision making aims to explicate both contextual and person-related factors (which influence the extent to which considerations for both domains figure as part of decision making) and the logic that is adopted to arrive at the decision.

Understanding Work-Family Conflict Decision-Making

Research on decision making has historically adopted a levels approach to conceptualizing and measuring work-family conflict. Although the use of the levels approach has helped highlight the different strategies individuals adopt to resolve work-family conflict, it has, in conjunction with other factors such as the interchangeable use of conflict and interference constructs, and use of incorrect response anchors (discussed later), obscured the field's understanding of the work-family conflict process. Examining episodes of decision making affords an understanding of the underlying process, the phenomenology of work-family conflict decision making, and the resulting experience of interference. Studying within-person processes as they unfold is imperative to understanding the meaning of work-family conflict as is currently measured using between-person measures and the actual experience of work-family conflict (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008).

Directionality of conflict. In their original formulation of work-family conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell explicitly stated that conflict itself is non-directional and the direction becomes apparent only when a decision is made to resolve the incompatible demands. The decision helps establish the causal attribution of conflict. In contrast to this conceptualization, the dominant view in this area assumes that there is always a discernable direction in work-family conflict and that this directionality is not dependent on having reaching a resolution of the conflict. Accordingly, predominant measures in the field (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Frone, Yardley & Merkel, 1997; Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrin, 1998) assume through item wording that the individual is able to assign directionality to the conflict or interference and report it on demand (Maertz &

Boyar 2011). However, these assumptions have not been empirically validated. In fact, research presents contradictory evidence for what domain is attributed as the cause of interference. Some studies indicate that it is the domain that the individual is in when a trigger event occurs (Butler, Grzywacz, Bass, & Linney, 2005), the domain they are not in (Judge et al., 2006), and even the domain that is least central to the individual's role salience (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006).

Interchangeable use of conflict and interference constructs. A related issue that further obscures understanding of the process is that most traditional measures of work-family conflict actually measure work-family interference while purporting to measure conflict (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). For example, the meaning of an association between high job demand and high work-family conflict (as measured by scales that purportedly measure conflict, but actually measure interference) is therefore equivocal. It could reflect that high job demands increase the risk of experiencing mutually incompatible pressures (i.e., conflict) or it could reflect the tendency for high job demands to lead to behavioral responses aimed at resolving the incompatible pressure by favoring work (i.e., interference). In so doing, these instruments confound experiences of work-family conflict (where work and family exert mutually incompatible pressures) and differences in how individuals respond to such incompatible pressures (Bellavia & Frone, 2005; Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; MacDermid, 2005). Such confounded measures undermine interpretation of the observed associations. Thus, understanding the differences in these two interpretations can have different implications for interventions (as discussed subsequently). Although recent research distinguishes between interference (WIF and

FIW) and conflict (WFC and FWC), they still measure WIF/FIW with response anchors that query agreement instead of frequency of occurrence.

Response anchors in work-family conflict items. To measure work-family conflict, items need to tap into the frequency of individual experiences of work-family conflict, with response anchors that reflect frequency rather than agreement (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008; Maertz & Boyar, 2011; Shockley & Allen, 2015). In contrast, many current measures use agreement response anchors based on the assumption that greater agreement with a statement about work interfering with family is an indication of higher level of conflict. However, stronger agreement is not necessarily a validation of higher frequency of occurrence. Thus, there is ambiguity on whether the participant has a high degree of certainty that work interferes with work or if such interferences occur with high frequency (Shockley & Allen, 2015). In summary, issues relating to the attribution of interference, interchangeable use of interference and conflict constructs, and choice of response anchors for WFC items (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2008) contribute to the lack of clarity about the process of work-family conflict. Examining episodes of conflict along with the cues and the underlying processes can help understand which domain is attributed as interfering under different circumstances.

Use of cross-sectional measures in assessing work-family conflict. A key issue with most traditional measures of work-family conflict (Carlson et al., 2000; Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996) is that they are cross-sectional in nature. Use of cross-sectional measures is based on the assumption that not only has causal attribution of conflict occurred, but that the individual respondent is able to quickly assess, consolidate and accurately report levels of WFC and FWC on demand— a position that has been

debated in recent research (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). In contrast, an episodic approach to work-family decision making relies on specific episodes of work-family decision making reported by individuals. The episodic approach has been suggested as recourse to persistent issues (discussed subsequently) involved with the use of the levels approach to study work-family conflict (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). An episodic approach is within-persons, longitudinal, and treats work-family conflict as incidents or occurrences, as opposed to the levels approach, which is between-persons and cross-sectional focusing on the 'level' of work-family conflict experienced by individuals and the relationships between such conflict and other relevant variables.

Problems associated with assessing conflict with levels measures. Research (e.g., MacDermid, 2005; Maertz & Boyar, 2011) provides some insight into why the use of levels measures may be associated with significant drawbacks. To illustrate the drawbacks let us consider the example of time use by employees. When asked to estimate their number of work hours, respondents in the American Time Use Survey tended to overestimate their overall work hours by 5-10 percent in relation to the work hours they reported in their time diaries (Robinson, Martin, Glorieux & Minnen, 2011). This example serves to illustrate the errors associated with reporting aggregate levels of variables, with the specific case of time use among adults. Indeed, time use is a tangible variable that is tracked regularly in most workplaces. By comparison, levels measures associated with a construct such as work-family conflict suffer from issues that are more complex. Levels measures have significant drawbacks since they involve complicated calculations. Phenomenologically, conflict levels are imprecise psychological consolidations of past conflict episodes from memory (Williams & Alliger, 1994).

Asking someone “how much conflict they perceived between work and family?” assumes that each respondent interprets “conflict” similarly, is able to quickly assess and report accurately the level of conflict they are facing. In contrast, current research (e.g., Siedlecki, 2007) suggests that individuals are not always able to view and store conflicts as levels; rather conflict is usually stored as discrete episodes in memory. Hence, such a levels measure would require that the respondent search his or her memory for all episodes of conflict over an extended period and correctly aggregate these episodes over days or weeks. In reporting work-family conflict, this issue may be further complicated by the fact that individuals may be unable to recognize the direction of interference despite experiencing the conflict and such conflict may be attributed to different sources (as discussed previously). Finally, the potential for confounding in-process conflicts with memories of critical incidents of past conflict is high. Thus, what seems at first to be a simple estimation involves several steps that are not just difficult to recall accurately, but to aggregate and report correctly.

Apart from researchers in work-family relations calling for greater use of episodic data, researchers in personality and organizational psychology (Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009; Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch & Hulin, 2009; Maertz & Boyar, 2011; Weiss & Rupp, 2011) have called for within-person approaches to understand intra-individual variability in personality and behaviors. This is because many variables have been found to have both between-person and within-person sources of variance (e.g., Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006). The within-persons approach finds that differences between individuals notwithstanding, a large percentage of variance in behaviors is due to within person variance (Dalal et al.,

2009; Ilies & Judge, 2005). If between-person and within-person sources of variance are not decomposed, it is impossible to determine if the relationship between the variables is due to between-person effects, within-person effects, or both (e.g., Hofmann & Gavin, 1998; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The magnitude and direction of relationships between two variables cannot be assumed identical or even similar across levels of analysis (Chen, Bleise & Mathieu, 2005). Thus, it is important to analyze the between and within person relationships separately.

This study aims to fill the gap and contribute to the nascent literature on work-family decision making by examining episodes of work-family conflict to evaluate decision making logics as mediating mechanisms of work-family decisions empirically evaluate if decision logic act as mediating mechanisms of work-family decision making processes. In reviewing empirical studies of episodic decision making, I will start by highlighting the contributions from qualitative studies, followed by those of quantitative studies. I will conclude with a discussion of issues that need further examination.

Episodic Work-Family Decision Making Research

Contributions from qualitative studies. Qualitative studies of episodic decision making (Medved, 2000; Radcliffe & Cassell, 2013) help gain a holistic picture of the process of decision making by taking into consideration the larger context in which decisions occur. They also provide a nuanced understanding by incorporating decision variables such as, learning from previous experience, impact of beliefs, and values on decision making, and fairness and equity among the couple, that do not lend themselves to efficient quantization but nevertheless impact the decision making process.

Radcliffe and Cassell's (2013) qualitative study of episodic decision making among dual-career couples found that couples make a variety of decisions with different temporal and structuring implications. The researchers examined episodic decision making among dual-career couples and found that couples made medium to longer-term 'anchor' decisions in addition to 'episodic' decisions made on a day-to-day basis. Anchor decisions are major decisions about the overall approach to work-life conflict taken by the couple and are generally be made at key points in the couples' lives, such as for instance, when they first have children. In comparison, daily decisions focus on the more immediate concerns, which are made to handle issues such as who would stay home with the child when he/she was sick and could not go to school on a particular day. Further, anchor and daily decisions are linked – daily decisions are in some ways embedded in anchor decisions which, provide the framework within which work and family commitments are made and consequently day-to-day (episodic) decisions to handle are conflict made. Additionally, as much as anchoring decisions are important in the resolution of daily work-family conflicts, they could also be the cause of daily conflict by either increasing the occurrence of daily conflicts or by limiting options available for resolution. In turn, experiencing recurrent daily conflict led couples to make anchor decisions aimed at reducing them. In summary, anchoring and daily decisions are linked in important ways. Radcliffe & Cassell (2013) also found that daily decisions are focused more on the immediate, practical issues and necessities – especially such as those concerning financial cues and availability or lack of support. In contrast, preferences and values (that couples hold regarding what it meant to be a good 'parent' or preferences for

life satisfaction) had a weaker direct effect on daily decisions. These preferences and values are discussed as being more important in reference to anchoring decisions.

In essence, qualitative studies highlight the complexity of the decision making process and underscore the idea that episodic instances of conflict decisions making do not occur in vacuum. They take place in overarching frames of longer-term decisions and arrangements that impact and structure these daily decisions, and are in turn affected by them. Further, different sets of factors influence daily and longer-term decisions. Specifically, immediate considerations regarding finances and availability of support have a stronger impact on daily decisions but are less important in the case of longer-term decisions. Finally, these studies emphasize the idea that a diminished understanding of these longer-term arrangements can lead to an incomplete understanding of significant contextual factors that influence episodic decision making.

Key predictors of episodic work-family decision making process. In general, the research interest on episodic work-family decision making is recent and few studies have investigated the factors implicated in episodic decision making. Despite the limited number of empirical studies on the topic, these studies (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015) have identified some key antecedents. In general, contextual variables were found to be important predictors of episodic decisions to invest time in a particular domain. Among these antecedents, role sender pressure was identified as the most important predictor of decisions in episodic decision making with work and family pressure accounting for the largest percentages of overall R^2 of 20.62% and 17.45%, respectively (Shockley & Allen, 2015). Role sender support, on the other hand was consistently found to be associated with a greater

likelihood of investing time in the other domain. Similarly, activity importance was another important predictor of decisions with studies finding that activities that were considered important (associated with strong positive consequences for participation or negative consequences for non-participation) motivated engagement.

These studies took slightly different approaches to understanding episodic decision making. Greenhaus & Powell (2003) adopted an interactionist approach to examining antecedents to episodic decision making and focused on understanding the influence of situational variables namely role sender pressure and role sender support and individual characteristics namely role salience and self esteem. In contrast, to the interactionist approach adopted by Greenhaus & Powell (2003), research by Shockley & Allen (2015) focused on situational cues influencing work-family decision-making. Apart from role sender pressure, Greenhaus & Powell (2003) found support for the main effects of role sender pressure and role salience. Their findings suggest that an individual's self-identity can influence role related behaviors. However, no interaction effects were found for self-esteem and role pressures thereby highlighting the effect of external role pressures on episodic behavior. In contrast to this study, which highlighted the influence of role salience, Powell and Greenhaus (2006) found that the salience of the role notwithstanding, the decision to participate solely in a role activity also depends on the activity importance, another contextual cue referring to the impact, which emerged as a more powerful cue than role salience.

Role salience as a predictor of episodic decision making. Although research from the levels based, between-persons perspective has frequently found role salience to be an important predictor of work-family decision making, few studies have examined its

role in episodic decision making. Moreover, what research exists from the episodic perspective has been inconsistent regarding role salience's associations with work-family decision making. For example, Whereas Greenhaus and Powell (2003) found a positive relationship between work-role salience and decision to prioritize work over family in an experimental vignette study, Powell & Greenhaus (2006) found only partial support for this relationship in a study that employed a critical incident method. Apart from the differences in methodologies (and specific limitations associated with each method), it must be noted that the theoretical bases around these studies were somewhat different. Greenhaus & Powell (2003) used social identity theory to hypothesize and evaluate the influence of role support, role pressure, role salience, and moderating influence of self-esteem on decision making. They hypothesized and found that role salience was positively associated with the decision to participate in an activity. On the other hand, Powell & Greenhaus (2006) used a rational decision making perspective to hypothesize the process of decision making individuals adopt when faced with time-based work-family conflict decisions. Using the critical incident method, this study examined the relationship between situational factors, and role salience, and the decision to prioritize one role over another. They found that participants' decision to participate in some combination of activities was not predicted by the salience of the roles but by the importance of the activities. In contrast, the decision to participate solely in one or the other activity was associated with the salience of the role and the importance of the activity.

A majority of the work-family decision making literature is focused on longer-term decision making and the shift in emphasis to episodic decision making is a relatively

recent trend. A perusal of the literature reveals that despite the apparent similarity in the processes and underlying motivations in either kind of decision making process, there are several points at which episodic decision making diverges from decision making in the longer-term. Specifically, episodes of work-family conflict include and enhance the influence of contextual variables, such as role pressure, that may serve to constrain identity-consistent behavior while potentially forcing an immediate focus aimed at complying with role pressures. For instance, despite an employee's high family role salience and preference for spending more time with family, pressure from a supervisor may compel the employee to work longer hours. Additionally, when non-compliance with situational demands is associated with negative consequences, individuals are more likely to behave in ways that are inconsistent with their perceived role saliences (Ng & Feldman, 2008). Thus, in this instance, if non-compliance with the supervisor's request is associated with either a poor performance rating or missed opportunity for being part of the next big project for the employee, it is more likely that the employee's actual work hours will be different from his/her preferred work hours. Consequently, individuals are more likely to prioritize activity importance over role salience when negative repercussions for non-participation in an activity is high, while role salience may cue participation when there are no or low repercussions of non-participation.

Whereas the research from a between-person, levels approach has consistently established a positive relationship between role salience and an individual's investment (and engagement) in a particular role, results concerning the relationships of role salience in episodic decision making have been more equivocal. Greenhaus and Powell (2003) found that, despite greater numbers of participants claiming higher salience for family

roles than work roles, similar proportions of participants prioritized work activities over family activities in episodic decision making. That is, their episodic decision making often ran counter to the overall levels of role salience that were reported and in choosing family over work, the empirical finding at the episodic level contradicts the findings at the between person level where work is more often chosen over family. Further, *activity importance*—that is, the import of a particular activity that is currently in need of one’s time or attention in the moment—is a more powerful cue than role salience (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). For example, despite being high on work-role salience, an employee may choose to attend his child’s recital over participating in an office meeting, owing to a spouse’s insistence or the meaning signified by his attendance of this specific activity. This suggests that although individuals discern differences in the priorities they attach to roles, short-term decision making may bring more focus to specific activities within roles. It also emphasizes the fact that activity importance as a cue can be a) internally generated, by being a part of a salient role or because the activity independently holds some important value/meaning for the individual, or b) externally generated, by being derived from contextual sources with consequences that may be desirable or detrimental to the individual. In essence, importance of a particular activity may trump the salience attached to a role in which the activity is embedded (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). Specifically, although individuals discern differences in role priorities in the longer term, short-term decision making, such as those in episodes of work-family conflict, may bring specific activities within roles into sharper focus. More importantly, although most of the current research and theoretical frameworks for decision making rely on empirically tested approaches related to longer-term decision making perspective, findings relating to

role salience provide a clear example of how variables that are important from longer term decision making may be less important at the episodic level. Conversely, predictors such as activity importance that have meaningful relationship with decision making at the episodic level may have no meaningful analog at the between person level.

To summarize, theoretical frameworks explicating episodic work-family decision making draw from the same frameworks that explain longer-term decision making. Further, these frameworks, particularly with regard to the indirect effects that explain the process by which contextual variables predict decision making, are yet to be empirically investigated at the within-person level, making it the study's primary aim. Additionally, predictors that have been found to have meaningful relationship with decision making at a between-persons level may have no meaningful relationship with the same variables at the within person level. Hence, a second aim of this study is to examine the interactive influence of activity importance and role salience on the decision to participate in an activity.

Practical Implications of Research on Episodic Decision Making

Increased use of flexible working arrangements that enable employees to work from any place and/or anytime and have led to activities becoming less bounded in space and time. Essentially, "the spheres of work and family, separated during the Industrial revolution, are reconverging in the Information age" (MacDermid, 2005, p 22). In an environment that already places much of the responsibility of balancing career and family priorities on employees, flexible working arrangements (FWA) have ostensibly increased flexibility for the employee. However, by blurring the boundaries between work and family domains, FWA have made the issue less about one of boundaries and more about

the experience of conflicting demands, irrespective of the source – whether work or family. With work-family boundaries becoming blurred, the onus of balancing multiple roles and managing work and family demands to reduce conflict now lies mostly with employees. This has in turn increased the frequency of decision making, be it for longer-term concerns regarding work and family or short-term daily decisions to decide which activity to participate in or which task to complete on priority. Despite the prevalence of episodic decision making in our daily lives, research has yet to explicate the episodic work-family decision making process. Better understanding of the episodic decision making process has implications for four audiences: researchers, employers, employees, and their families. It would help shed light on issues that have received limited research attention, namely the work-family conflict process, the phenomenology of episodic decision making, and factors that influence these decisions.

Direction matters. Work-family conflict (WIF)¹ and family-work conflict (FIW) are differentially related to outcome variables, such as stress, turnover intentions and job satisfaction (Byron, 2005; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Kelloway, Gottlieb & Barham, 1999), with work domain variables more strongly related to work-to-family conflict and family domain variables being more strongly related to family-to-work conflict. A better understanding of the factors that determine direction of role conflict and interference is important since they should be taken into account in implementing flexible interventions meant to reduce conflict. A recent study by Allen and colleagues (2013) found that understanding the direction of work-family conflict is particularly important since

¹ As discussed before, literature has used conflict and interference interchangeably; much of the literature treats FIW as synonymous with family-work conflict or family-to-work conflict and WIF as work-family or work-to-family conflict.

flexible work arrangements (FWA), which refer to interventions such as flextime and flexplace that allow the employee to work from any time and any place, have different patterns of association with FIW and WIF. Whereas greater use of FWA was associated with reduced WIF, no such effects were observed with respect to FIW. As an illustration, this study emphasizes the criticality of understanding the direction of conflict in designing effective interventions. Despite popular attention to work-family conflict and a vast increase in the number of FWA offered by organizations, recent research on work-family interventions and practices (Kelly et al., 2008; Shockley & Allen, 2007), finds that these initiatives are associated with weak effects. A recent review of FWA (Kossek & Michel, 2011) found mixed effects for FWA initiatives. Specifically, they found that effectiveness of interventions was difficult to predict since effects depended on a variety of individual and contextual factors including the type of flexibility offered and the source and nature of support available in the organization. This difficulty in predicting effectiveness of interventions underscores the need for a more nuanced understanding of specific employee needs, antecedents, organizational support sources, and other contextual factors that affect work-family conflict.

In summary, a within-person, episodic approach affords the opportunity to understand the process of work-family decision making with the aim of helping individuals better manage work-family conflict. This study seeks to empirically examine processes by which various contextual and individual variables influence work-family decision. Although theoretical decision making frameworks have been proposed, these treatments have only been evaluated at the between-person level of analysis and empirical examination at the within-person level has yet to be done. This study aims to

advance work-family decision making research by examining the mediating role of decision-logics in decisions to resolve work-family conflict. Such an understanding of contextual and individual variables would help implement interventions that are better poised to help employees in reducing work-family conflict.

Proposed Model and Hypotheses

Extant research on episodic work-family decision making (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015) has identified several antecedents. They include role sender pressure, role sender support, role salience, and activity importance. Although theoretical frameworks (e.g., Poelmans et al., 2013; Greenhaus & Powell, 2016) have been proposed to explicate the process by which contextual variables influence such decisions, these propositions have been empirically evaluated only in the context of longer-term work-family decision making and at the between-persons level of analysis. Consequently, we have some understanding of *what* variables motivate or compel people to comply with role expectations, but ambiguity about *why* this may be. Thus, the ability of these frameworks to explain episodic decision making at a within-person level of analysis remains unclear. Drawing on the tenets of the rational decision framework (Greenhaus & Powell, 2016), this study examines two potential paths based on the dominant approaches to decision making, namely utility and social identity. Although these logics have been found to be important at the between person level, to assume that they would be similarly relevant at the within-person level would be an ecological fallacy. Thus, it is imperative that they be investigated at the episodic, within-person level.

Extant research on episodic decision making suggests that such situations bring near-term activities into sharper focus and as a result, important between-person level variables such as role salience may share a weaker relationship with the final decision compared to (within-person) variables such as activity importance. Consequently, this study will examine the moderating effect of activity importance on the relationship of role salience with the decision to prioritize the domain (in which the activity is embedded).

The utility related path follows the logic of consequences, which focuses on highlighting the cost/benefits of a particular option to the individual, resulting in a decision on whether or not to participate/invest in the activity. For example, contextual cues may be used to convey the benefits (or sanctions) associated with participation (or non-participation) in a role activity leading to a decision to invest time in that role. An instance of such a situation is when co-workers emphasize the importance of working longer hours by sharing with the employee that investing greater time and effort on projects with a particular manager leads to better recognition and rewards, leading the employee to perceive benefits of devoting time in that role. Thus, the logic of consequences emphasizes to the individual, the (within-domain) outcomes associated with participation or non-participation in an activity.

This is in contrast to the logic of appropriateness, which is based on following appropriate rules to arrive at the decision. It is based on the concept of social identity and emphasizes the key aspects namely the importance of relationship with the individual, and adherence to standards of role appropriate behavior. For instance, a supervisor can emphasize 'desired' characteristics of employees by sharing with the new employee that

the company is known for its creativity and that an important characteristic of creativity is persisting with the problem without regard to other distractions such as family. In such a situation, the supervisor is drawing attention to expectations of role-appropriate behavior, which influence the employee's subsequent decisions.

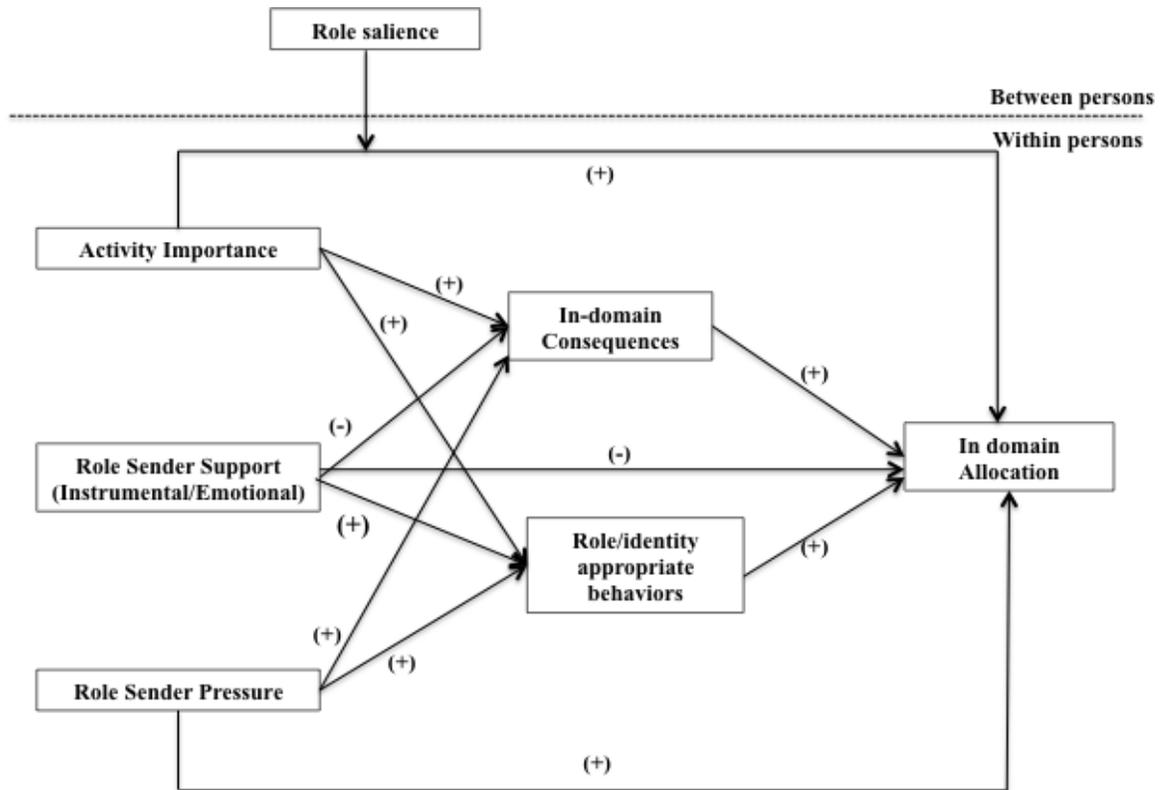


Figure 1 Proposed model of episodic work-family decision making

Alternately, in another instance, an employee may decide to take the afternoon off from work to spend time with her child on the child's birthday. In this situation, a focus on the relationship with the role sender (child) leads to prioritizing the family role over the work-role. Thus, episodic decision making involves various situational and individual cues and underlying processes that lead to decisions prioritizing one role/domain over the other. In describing the model (see Figure 1), I begin by detailing the mediating mechanisms and follow with a discussion of the different antecedents and related

hypotheses. For consistency and ease of interpretation, I have framed the hypotheses in terms of the domains that are impacted and grouped them by antecedents. With a view to brevity, I have numbered and presented only those hypotheses relating to indirect effects and have included the details of direct effects (as detailed in figure 2) in the arguments leading up to the hypothesizing of indirect effects.

Logic of consequences - benefits (sanctions) of role participation (non-participation)

March (1994) argued that rational theories of choice assume decision processes that are consequential (meaning that actions are based on anticipated future effects of current actions), and preference based (meaning that alternatives are interpreted in terms of their expected consequences and evaluated based on personal preferences). Essentially, the logic of consequences states that when faced with a choice among alternatives, decisions are based on evaluating alternatives in terms of their consequences for preferred outcomes. This rational procedure results in a choice conditional on few vital issues including different alternatives (options) available, expectations, or future consequences of each option, and value/importance of consequences associated with each alternative (March, 1994).

In episodic work-family conflict situations, both work and family activities maybe scheduled to occur at the same time making it difficult or impossible for individuals to participate completely in both activities. The options, then, may often be between choosing either to participate in some combination of the activities or to participate solely in either activity, forsaking the other. The logic of consequences is relevant in such situations when individuals base their decision on the analyses of likely family and work outcomes associated with alternative courses of action and the

preference they hold for these outcomes. An (longer-term decision making) example would be the case of an individual considering whether to take up a new job (or that of quitting a current job). Such a decision would involve comparing the impact of a potential course of action (taking up a new job) with that of the current course of action (staying in the current job). Options are compared on personally relevant outcomes in the work and family domains. Relevant outcomes in the work domain may be salary, growth, and job security, while those in the family domains may be disposable income, time, and energy available for family. After comparing options, the alternative that is most likely to lead to the preferred outcome is chosen. The logic of consequences has generally been associated with medium to longer-term work-family decisions such as in role entry or exit decisions. Such decisions are usually marked by greater deliberation of the different alternatives and consideration to the preferences individuals have for the consequences associated with these alternatives.

In contrast to longer-term decision making, episodic decision making is necessarily shorter term and compared to longer-term decision making, may likely provide individuals with limited time to generate or deliberate various alternative options. Nevertheless, the law of consequences would still apply when individuals attempt to understand their preferences for outcomes associated with participation (or non-participation) in work/family activities to arrive at a decision. On one hand, individuals may be motivated to participate in a domain by a desire to avoid sanctions or displeasure that may result as a consequence of non-participation. For instance, missing a child's soccer match may result in dejection for the child – a consequence that the parent would want to avoid. On the other, this would be evaluated against missing the critical team

meeting scheduled for that afternoon. Individuals may be motivated by potential gains or rewards that may accrue from role participation. In summary, the logic of consequences is characterized by evaluation of options with regard to their likely consequences for the family and work domains.

Logic of Appropriateness

Broadly, the logic of appropriateness can be conceptualized as based on following rules (March, 1994). It involves recognition of the kind of situation the individual finds himself/herself in, identifying the identities that are/maybe activated in those situations and then following the rules that are pertinent to that identity. In a work-family decision making context, the logic of appropriateness is relevant when individuals base their decisions on consistency of their identities, relating to both family and work, which may be activated in the course of making a decision. Unlike the logic of consequences, this is not based on explicit calculation of desired outcomes and the related expectancies presented by different options, giving it the impression of simplicity. Nevertheless, the logic of appropriateness is complicated while still being systematic (March, 1994), since it is a process of recognizing identities that are activated in different situations and matching appropriate rules to situations. Identity theory (Stryker, 1968) finds that expectations of the most salient roles dictate behavioral choices made in a given situation. Consequently, individuals choose to spend more time in the more important roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) with the purpose of fulfilling expectations and responsibilities associated with roles that are more salient.

Conforming to role (identity) appropriate behaviors. Similar to role sender pressure (exerted by role members) that compels the individual to participate in a role,

social identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) has been theorized to leads to activities that are congruent with the identity. Social identification, which is the process by which an individual identifies with an in-group and whose norms he/she perceives as being worthy of emulation, has been associated with greater support for and commitment to the role. Such commitment may be evidenced as time spent in roles reported as salient and deriving satisfaction from it (Stryker & Serpe, 1982). Consequently, in the presence of various situational cues that activate these identities, individuals invest time and effort in the activity in a manner that complies with the behavioral norms for that identity. Research evidence for social identification finds that it is related to activities such as frequency of blood donation (Callero, 1985) and donation to institution by alumni who identified with their alma mater (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Further, greater social identification was also associated with alumni recruiting their own children and others to their alma mater (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Identification has also been theorized to engender internalization of and adherence to values and norms associated with the role (Oyserman, Elmore & Smith 2012).

Valuing relationships based on role identities. Individuals may choose to participate in a role or comply with role sender pressure for reasons that are not always ‘material or pragmatic’ (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) and are therefore not associated with the cost or benefits resulting from role compliance. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) postulates that role identities reflect membership in particular roles (such as parent, student, professional etc.) that require another person to play a complementary role. Relationship maintenance, an important human need to establish and maintain significant interpersonal relationships (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), is expected to be

stronger for salient role identities (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). Thus, it is expected that individuals may participate in a role/activity in order to preserve their relationship with the role sender as part of complying with identity appropriate behaviors. In essence, the logic of appropriateness is about recognizing situations, matching them with identities and complying with rules that are applicable to these identities.

What logic accounts for greater number of episodic work-family decisions?

Lobel (1991) suggested that near-term decisions in a work-family decision context might be more based on the concern for consequences than based on identity. This is arguably because a short-term focus likely makes (individuals erroneously assume that) probabilities of desired outcomes easier to estimate. However, Lobel (1991) did not offer any rationale for this proposition. In contrast, March (1994), argues that all decisions essentially follow the logic of appropriateness. According to this argument, the logic of consequences is just one version of the logic of appropriateness (rule following) that is associated with the identity of the decision-maker. Logic of consequences (rational decision making) is a rule that requires decisions to be made consequentially and in following this path, the individual is following the rule that is associated with the identity of being rational. In sum, rule following is fundamental while rationality is derivative. March (1994) further argued that neither logic is inherently superior than the other -- the paths are just different ways of going about making decisions. Both can encourage thought, discussion and personal judgment about preferences and expectations, but are distinguished by the demands they make on abilities of individuals. The logic of consequences demand that individuals anticipate the future and form useful preferences for desired outcomes, in contrast to appropriateness, which demands that individuals

learn from the past and form identities that can help navigate situations. Thus, differences in the demands placed by different logics point to potential differences in the reliance on either type of logic for episodic decision making.

Greenhaus and Powell (2016) take a different view on this point noting that many work-family decisions are likely to involve a combination of logics. For instance, in considering the opportunity to take up a job overseas, an individual would think about the consequences for his own career, that of his spouse, and consequences for family. Equally importantly, he may, also think about how appropriate such a move would be at that particular life-stage based on the identity rules he considers salient, such as not traveling when children are young. One of the auxiliary objectives of this study is to understand the extent to which individuals rely on either type of logic in making episodic work-family decisions.

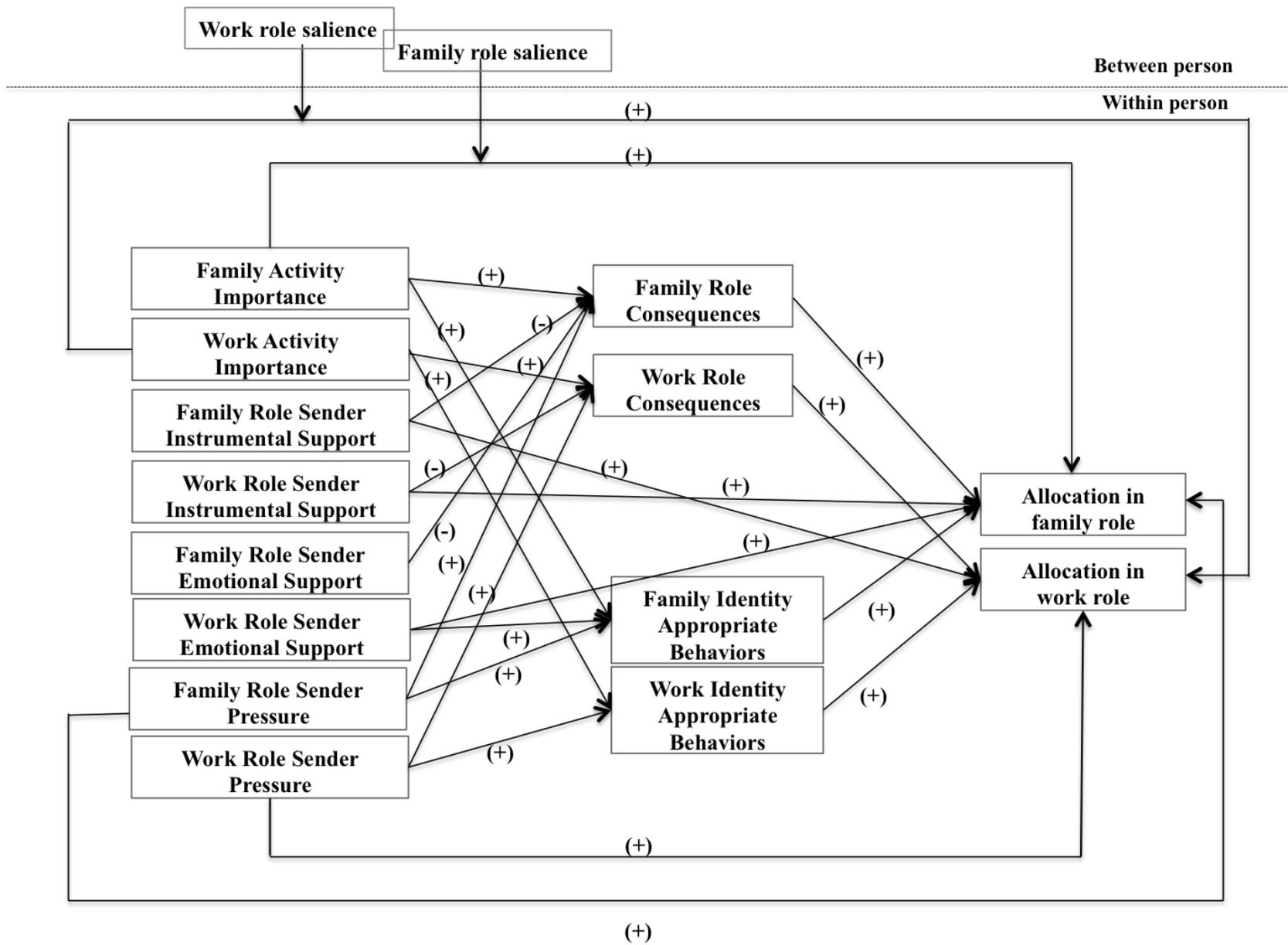


Figure 2 Proposed model of episodic work-family decision making

Role Sender Pressure

Extant literature on episodic decision making identifies role sender pressure as a key predictor of decisions to prioritize work or family. Poelmans (2005) described individuals as active decision-makers who interact with others in multiple dyads and make decisions that may reduce or amplify work-family conflict. Further, each member may hold different and conflicting role expectations of the focal individual. In order to compel the individual to comply with expectations, these members 'send' (communicate) or reinforce role related expectations (Kahn et al., 1964). Indeed, work-family conflict was originally conceptualized by Kahn and colleagues (1964) as "incompatible demands placed by different roles that makes compliance with both difficult." In line with this original conceptualization, role sender pressure is defined as the expectation that represents a role pressure designed to induce the individual to conform to expectations (Poelmans, 2005). Role pressure has been found to induce the individual to participate in domain related activity (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015). Further, traditionally role sender pressure has been thought of strong or weak depending on the severity of the sanctions involved (Kahn, 1965; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003).

In summary, communicating the consequences of participation (non-participation) in role related activity is an important means of gaining compliance. For example, a role sender (supervisor) can communicate pressure differently in different situations either by emphasizing the consequences of participation in a role activity by focusing on potential rewards or by stressing the consequences of non-participating by focusing on the resulting penalties. Each of these ways can

be equally effective in leading to desired behaviors. Benefits of role participation may be communicated in ways that does not involve always compulsion or pressure. Rather, different role members may employ persuasion, assurance, and influence to highlight the positive (rewards) or the negative (lack of rewards) consequences. Thus, it is hypothesized that *perceived role sender pressure is positively associated with choosing domain activity and negatively associated with choosing other-domain activity*. Hence, it follows that perceived work-role sender pressure will be positively associated with choosing work-role activity and perceived family role sender pressure will be negatively associated with choosing work-role activity (See figure 2 for details).

How is role pressure exerted, either to ensure compliance or to prevent non-compliance? An instance may be that of a supervisor communicating to the employee that a particular presentation needs to be completed within the next couple of days so that the supervisor will be able to make necessary edits before presenting it at the department meeting. While this is an instance of explicit communication, consequences of compliance or non-compliance may not be explicitly communicated, but implied. Decision process theory (Poelmans, 2005; Poelmans et al., 2013) argues that communication of consequences need not always be explicitly done, but that individuals learn through various experiences and these prior experiences clarify consequences. Whether the consequences are explicitly communicated or not, role sender pressure can ensure compliance with role sender expectations by underscoring the consequences of participation/non-participation. Hence, it is hypothesized that *perceived role sender pressure is positively associated with perceived consequences of*

participation/nonparticipation in domain activity and negatively associated with perceived consequences of participating in other-domain activity. Accordingly, perceived work-role sender pressure is positively associated with perceived benefits (costs) of participating (non-participation) in work-role activity while perceived work role sender pressure is negatively associated with perceived benefits (cost) of participating (non-participation) in family-role activity.

The logic of consequences posits that individuals tend to maximize gains or benefits and avoid losses or sanctions. Accordingly, role sender pressure associated with benefits (costs) for participation (non-participation) will lead to domain related participation (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015). For example, a manager may impress upon his subordinate the importance of working longer hours by pointing out that the particular task is a significant part of the employee's responsibilities and thus has important consequences for the employee's annual appraisal. Thus, perceived role sender pressure will have an indirect effect in the decision to invest time in the domain activity via perceived consequences of work-role participation. In the work domain, the indirect effect combines a positive effect from perceived work-role pressure to perceived benefits (sanctions) of participation along with a positive effect from perceived work benefits (sanctions) to decision to invest time in the work-role activity. Similarly, in the family domain, the indirect effect combines a positive effect from perceived family role pressure to perceived benefits (sanctions) of participating in family-activity along with a positive effect from perceived benefits (sanctions) to decision to invest time in family-role activity. Accordingly, we have:

H1a: Perceived work-role sender pressure will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the work role via perceived benefits and costs of work-role participation.

H1b: Perceived family role pressure will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the family role activity via perceived benefits and costs of family-role participation.

The logic of appropriateness postulates that role sender pressure may induce role participation by highlighting what would be proper role behaviors for that situation. For example, a team member may underscore the team leader's expectations that all team members need to submit daily reports at the end of the day irrespective of competing priorities. In such a situation, no consequences would be emphasized (for action/non-action), but expected role behaviors may be highlighted. Another mechanism could be that the individual recognizes the value of relationship with the role sender and consequently makes a decision based on his/her desire to preserve this valued relationship. This desire to maintain a relationship, with no immediate concern for outcomes, can also lead to role participation in that domain. For example, an employee may decide to delay completing a few office tasks in order to take time to have a birthday lunch with a close friend. In this situation, the relationship with the focal individual has more influence on the decision to prioritize non-work over work. Therefore, it is hypothesized that, *perceived role sender pressure will be positively associated with perceived importance of complying with in-domain identity behaviors and negatively associated with perceived importance of complying with other-domain identity behaviors.* Accordingly, perceived work role sender pressure will be positively associated with perceived importance of complying with work-identity behaviors while perceived work

role sender pressure will be negatively associated with perceived importance of complying with family-identity behaviors.

Further, using the logic of appropriateness, I propose that perceived role sender pressure would have an indirect effect in the decision to invest time in the domain activity via a perceived importance of (need to) comply with appropriate role behaviors. Specifically, the indirect effect combines a positive effect from perceived work-role pressure to perceived importance of complying with appropriate work-role behaviors with a positive effect from perceived importance of work-role behaviors to decision to invest time in the work-role activity. Similarly in the family domain, we note that the indirect effect combines a positive effect from perceived family-role pressure to perceived importance of complying with appropriate family-role behaviors with a positive effect from perceived importance of family-role behaviors to decision to invest time in the family-role activity.

H1c: Perceived work-role pressure will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the work role via perceived need to comply with appropriate work role behaviors.

H1d: Perceived family-role pressure will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the family role via perceived need to comply with appropriate family role behaviors.

Role Sender Support

Role senders may be supportive of the individual's participation in the other domain and these supportive behaviors on the role sender's part allow the individual to choose activities in the other domain. In fact, role sender support refers to those behaviors by a role member that allow the focal individuals to participate in the other role/domain with reduced concern for consequences of non-participation in the same domain. For

example, a spouse may be supportive of individual's career aspirations and be willing to handle family and home-related concerns without burdening the individual.

Consequently, the employee can devote more of his time into the work-role without the concern that his reduced involvement adversely influences the family domain. Such role sender support would enhance identification and commitment with the work-role given the individual's ability to expend more resources on it. Powell and Greenhaus (2003 & 2006) examined general social support in relation to WFC decision making and found that role sender support was positively associated with investing time in the other domain. In general, the individual perceives role sender support as permission to participate in activities in the other domain. It is hypothesized that *perceived domain role sender support will be positively associated with choosing other domain activity and negatively associated with choosing same domain activity*. Therefore, it follows that perceived work-role sender support will be positively associated with choosing family-activity and perceived work-role sender support will be negatively associated with choosing work-activity.

Emotional support. Emotional and instrumental supports have been found to be among the key dimensions of family supportive supervisor behaviors (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner & Hanson, 2009). In contrast to instrumental support, which is characterized by supervisors providing active support by responding to an employee's work and family needs in the form of day-to-day management transactions, emotional support refers to supervisors providing support by listening and showing care for employees' work-family demands. Thus, unlike instrumental support, emotional support does not influence perception of consequences of reduced/non-participation in the

domain activity. Consequently, emotional role sender support signifies the role sender's perception of appropriateness of individual's intended/planned behaviors in the other domain. For instance, a manager who communicates caring or empathy for the employee's family role may be perceived to be more willing to provide emotional support for the employee's family-roles. Thus, it is hypothesized that *perceived domain role sender emotional support will be positively associated with perceived appropriateness of role (identity) behaviors in other domain*. Applying this idea separately to either domain, leads to the following hypotheses. Perceived work-role sender emotional support will be positively associated with perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors and perceived family-role sender emotional support will be positively associated with perceived appropriateness of work- role behaviors.

Further, I propose that the signaling of role sender's perception of appropriateness of behaviors in the other domain will be positively associated with the individual allocating time in the other domain activity. Therefore, the indirect effect of emotional role sender support combines a positive effect from perceived work-role sender emotional support to perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors with a positive effect from perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors to decision to invest time in the family-role activity. In an analogous manner, the indirect effect combines a positive effect from perceived family-role sender emotional support to perceived appropriateness of work-role behaviors with a positive effect from perceived appropriateness of work-role behaviors to decision to invest time in the work-role activity. Therefore,

H2a: Perceived work role sender emotional support will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the family role via perceived need to comply with appropriate family role behaviors.

H2b: Perceived family role sender emotional support will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the work role via perceived need to comply with appropriate work role behaviors.

Instrumental support. Shockley & Allen (2015) found that higher role sender emotional and instrumental support in one domain would lead to greater likelihood of choosing the other-domain activity. Further, in both domains, instrumental support was a more dominant predictor of WFC decisions than was emotional support. This study hypothesizes that signaling of instrumental support in the domain will be perceived as reducing any sanctions or costs associated with non-participation in that domain – at least temporarily. For instance, an employee having to finish a report by the end-of-day deadline would perceive fewer costs of not completing the activity when her supervisor is supportive of her family needs and who offers to put the final touches to the report in an effort to accommodate her leaving early for the day. Hence, it follows that *perceived domain role sender (instrumental) support would be negatively associated with perceived sanctions in same domain*. Accordingly, perceived work-role sender instrumental support will be negatively associated with perceived work-role consequences while perceived family-role sender instrumental support will be negatively associated with family-role consequences. In this manner, instrumental role sender support in the domain assures of priorities within the domain not falling by the wayside and consequently attracting penalties or other sanctions.² Further, in contrast, to role sender pressure and activity importance, which compel investment and behaviors in the *same* domain, role sender support serves as signal for investment and behavior in the *other* domain. The indirect effect combines a negative effect from perceived work-role sender instrumental support

² For sake of simplicity and ease of interpretation, all hypothesized relationships for role sender support are not explicitly shown in the figure.

to perceived work-role consequences with a negative effect from perceived work-role consequences of decision to invest time in the family-role activity. In a similar fashion, we find that in the family domain, the indirect effect combines a negative effect from perceived family-role sender instrumental support to perceived family-role consequences with a negative effect from family-role consequences of decision to invest time in the work-role activity. Therefore, it follows that

H2c: Perceived work role sender instrumental support will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the family role via perceived work role consequences of family role behaviors.

H2d: Perceived family role sender instrumental support will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the work role via perceived family role consequences of work role behaviors.

Task or Activity Importance

The importance of a particular activity has been linked to the associated consequences, which determine the choices made to resolve conflicts (Poelmans, 2005). This assessment of importance, based on the characteristics of the activity, is a contextual cue apart from other cues sent by various role senders. Activities that are perceived as being more critical by the individual are likely to attract time and effort investment (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015). Thus, it is proposed that *perceived importance of in-domain activity will be positively associated with choosing same domain activity and negatively associated with choosing other domain activity.* Consequently we have, perceived work task importance will be positively associated with choosing work-role activity and perceived work task importance will be negatively associated with choosing family-role activity.

There is broad agreement among researchers (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015) that activity importance in an episodic context, refers to the import of a particular activity that is currently in need of one's time or attention in the moment. However, researchers differ in their conceptualization of why individuals may consider certain activities important. Further, despite an apparent similarity in the definitions of activity importance, the studies differ in how they operationalized and measured the variable. For instance, Powell and Greenhaus (2006) defined activity salience as an 'internal' cue defining activity importance as importance attached by the individuals to an activity that is part of a salient role. This essentially means that activities associated with salient roles would be considered important compared to activities that are part of less salient roles. The researchers measured activity importance using a single item³ that assessed the importance that individual attached to the particular task based on the role in which such an activity was embedded. For example, an individual who is high on family role salience may consider the activities of dropping off and picking up his child from school an important activity by virtue of the fact that it is part of the family role. Powell and Greenhaus (2006) used an abbreviated two-item⁴ measure adapted from Lodahl & Kejner's (1965) job involvement measure to capture the individual's (trait) salience for work and family roles.

In contrast, Shockley & Allen (2015) based their conceptualization on Poelmans' (2005) decision process theory, focusing specifically on the consequences of participation

³ How important was the work (family) activity to you?' (measured on a 5 point scale ranging from 1 = not at all important, 5 = very important)

⁴ Two items from Lodahl & Kejner's (1965) measure of job involvement

- The major satisfaction in my life comes from my work, and
- The most important things that happen to me involve my work.

or non-participation in assessing importance of the activity. They assessed activity importance using the single item from Powell & Greenhaus (2006) to measure the individual's assessment of activity importance. They also measured the importance of activity from the role sender's perspective tying in role sender pressure into the assessment of activity importance. In sum, although both studies found activity importance was positively related to choosing to participate in a particular activity the likely reasons for such an assessment was different in both studies. Whereas Greenhaus and Powell (2006) took an identity perspective to understand what activities the individual may consider important, thereby deeming task importance an *individual (internal)* cue, Shockley and Allen (2015) applied a utilitarian approach that focuses on the potential costs and benefits of participation in the activity and classified task importance as a *contextual cue*. Despite these differences in the conceptualization and measurement of the variable, the consistent positive association of activity importance with decision to allocate time to the activity bolsters the idea that assessment of importance can be as much a function of potential consequence as it is of identity-appropriate behaviors. Hence, it is hypothesized that, *perceived importance of in-domain activity will be positively associated with perceived consequences of participating in same domain activity and negatively associated with perceived consequences of participating in other domain activity*. Accordingly, perceived work task importance will be positively associated with perceived consequences of participating in the work-role activity and perceived work task importance will be negatively associated with perceived consequences of participating in the family-role activity. Therefore, the indirect effect for work-activity importance combines a positive effect from perceived work task

importance to perceived work-related consequences along with a positive effect from work related consequences to decision to invest in work-role activity. The indirect effect for family-activity importance combines a positive effect from perceived family task importance to perceived family related consequences along with a positive effect from related consequences to decision to invest in family-role activity. Thus, we have

H3a: Perceived work-activity importance will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the work role via perceived benefits and costs of work role participation.

H3b: Perceived family-activity importance will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the family role via perceived benefits and costs of family role participation.

Thus, consequences associated with an activity is directly linked to the importance of the activity (Shockley & Allen, 2015). In making this association, Shockley and Allen (2015) assume that the assessment of consequences (of participation or non-participation) is provided by the situation, is explicit and to that extent consistent to any individual in that position. Further, it is assumed that based on these cues, any individual in that situation will accord the task the same importance. For example, if a supervisor tells his employee that non-attendance at the team party reflects the employee's lack of camaraderie, not all employees may rate such a task as equally important. Such a task may take on higher importance for an employee who believes that being a team player is an important part of his/her identity. This would be in contrast to another employee for whom attendance either does not hold the same significance or for someone who does not believe that being a team player is a significant part of his role as an employee. Thus, it may be argued that task importance is an assessment that the individual makes based on situational factors, but is ultimately still an individual

(internal) cue. As a subjective, identity-based assessment of task importance, this cue would be associated with the logic of appropriateness and hence it is hypothesized that *perceived activity importance is positively associated with (same domain) identity behaviors associated with the activity*. Accordingly, perceived work task importance will be positively associated with work-identity behaviors involved in the activity and perceived family task importance will be positively associated with family-identity behaviors involved in the activity. Consequently, the indirect effect combines a positive effect from perceived work task importance to perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors involved in the activity along with a positive effect from appropriateness of work role behaviors to decision to invest time in work-activity. For the family domain, the indirect effect combines a positive effect from perceived family task importance to perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors involved in the activity along with a positive effect from perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors decision to invest time in family-activity. Therefore,

H3c: Work-activity importance will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the work role via perceived appropriateness of work-role behavior.

H3d: Family-activity importance will have an indirect effect on the decision to invest time in the family role via perceived appropriateness of family-role behavior.

Activity Importance, Role Salience, And Episodic Decision Making

It was previously observed that research at present does not explain why, in episodic work-family decision making, activity importance overrides role salience in its impact on decision making. This raises important questions about the variability of role salience. Identity theory notes that multiple role identities are organized in a hierarchical

structure of importance and such a structure changes over time (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Research in career-related decision making has found that role saliences shift in order to accommodate to an individual's particular life phase (Super, 1980) emphasizing within-person variability in role salience. However, although salient roles shift throughout an individual's life cycle, the underlying values are thought to be more stable than salience hierarchies themselves.

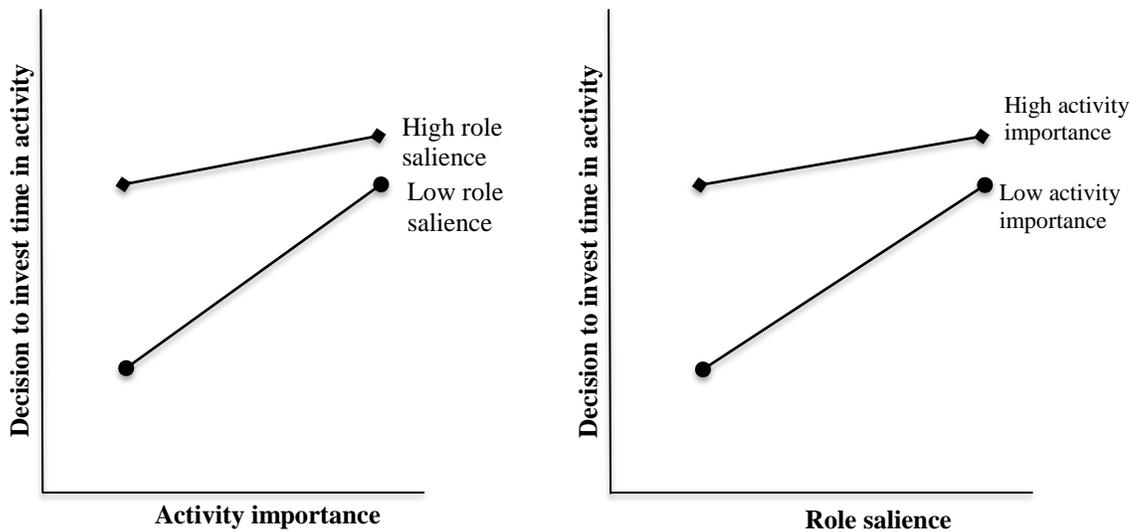


Figure 3 Proposed interaction effect of role salience and activity importance in decision to invest time in activity

Interactive effects of role salience and activity importance in episodic decision making. Although emergent theory (e.g., Oyserman, 2009; Eitam & Higgins, 2010) suggests that role saliences can be situationally influenced, research is yet to empirically support this argument. In an episodic decision making context, Steel and König's (2006) temporal motivation theory (TMT) provides a framework to understand why activity importance may supersede role salience under conditions of situation pressure that lead to time-based conflict. According to TMT, the expected utility of an action is calculated as the product of the expectancy and value of all gains associated

with the action, minus the product of the expectancy and value of all losses associated with the action. Further, gains and losses occurring in the near future are weighted more heavily than gains and losses occurring in the distant future. The value of outcomes associated with role salience is relatively high since individuals perceive (and likely realize) benefits by investing in domains/roles that are salient to them. However, this needs to be balanced by the pressure to participate in the other domain activity, which, although less salient, may have immediate rewards or costs associated with it. Thus, when choosing from among different options, individuals have a tendency to undervalue future, more valuable events in favor of more proximal, immediate options, despite being associated with lower rewards. This can result in favoring lower value but more immediate options over more high valued but less immediate options. Consequently, utility of outcomes (activities associated with salient role) that are somewhat farther in the future may be discounted in favor of activities that have more immediate consequences. Therefore, when choosing between activities that are part of roles considered salient and other activities (which are part of less salient roles) that may have near-term consequences, activities from the less salient role may be chosen. Thus, importance of a particular activity may override the salience attached to the role in which the activity is embedded (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). In essence, activity importance and role salience will interact to influence time allocated to role related activity (see figure 3). The moderating effects may be conceptualized from either perspective such that there will be a stronger positive effect of role salience on decision to invest time in the activity when the activity importance is low than high. Alternately, there will be a

stronger positive effect of activity importance on decision to invest time in the activity, when the role salience is low than high.

H4: Activity importance and role salience will interact to influence time allocated to role related activity such that there will be a stronger positive relationship between role salience and decision to allocate time to activity when activity importance is low than high.

To summarize, this study aims to examine the process by which various contextual variables lead to the decision to prioritize one domain over the other in an episodic context. Although researchers (Poelmans et al., 2013; Greenhaus & Powell, 2011) have proposed theoretical frameworks to explicate the process by which contextual variables induce participation, these propositions have yet to be empirically examined at an episodic level. The study will examine two decision making logics namely, logic of consequences, and logic of appropriateness that mediate decision making. Although these logics have been found to be relevant at the between-person level, this study will examine the use of these logics at the episodic, within-person level. Another aim of this study is to explicate the relationship between role salience, activity importance, and decision making in order to clarify the influence of role salience in episodic decision making contexts.

Method

The study employed a daily diary method (interval contingent experience sampling methodology) to collect daily participant reports of work-family conflict episodes over 10 days (rationale for duration is detailed under data collection procedures subsection). Interval-contingent sampling requires participants to respond/report events at prescribed times, which do not change from day-to-day. In this study, participants reported work-family conflict events (they had experienced) at the end of the day.

Participants

The study was publicized as a work-family conflict study and recruitment was done through a variety of methods, including a) Psychology department staff list-serv at the university of Minnesota, b) parent list-serv at a local school, c) postings at a local community center, d) postings at two day care centers, e) Psychology Research Experience Program (REP) pool, f) graduate student parent support group, g) departmental notice board posting at various departments throughout the university, and h) Amazon's Mechanical Turk. Individuals expressing interest in the study were initially asked to complete a short survey (described below) that screened them based on study criteria. Participants were thus recruited through two main sources: a) Amazon Mechanical Turk, and b) other sources. In subsequent discussions, MTurk workers/participants are referred to as the MTurk sample, whereas participants from all other sources are collectively referred to as the general sample. The advertising for the study was done over a period of 5 months starting October 2016 and the actual recruitment was done from mid-November 2016.

Participants recruited through Mechanical Turk and those recruited through other

sources were compensated at different rates. Compensation (detailed subsequently) offered to participants was in line with previous work-family research employing daily diary method (Shockley & Allen, 2015) and Amazon payment guidelines. In both cases, basic compensation structures were similar, although the absolute compensation amounts were different. In all cases, compensation was based on the number of surveys completed over the two-week period during which the daily surveys were conducted. The specifics of the compensation plan were as follows. Participants recruited through sources other than Mechanical Turk (will be referred to in subsequent discussion as ‘general’ sample) were able to earn a maximum of \$32 in the form of an Amazon.com e-gift card for completing all the surveys in the study. Individuals earned \$5 for completing the baseline survey. For the daily surveys, the payment was as follows: \$2 for each of the first five surveys completed; \$3 for each of the sixth through tenth survey completed. Participants who completed all (1 baseline and 10 daily) surveys received a \$2 bonus. Thus, an individual could earn a maximum payment of \$32 by completing all surveys including the baseline survey and be compensated after the individual participant’s 10-day data collection period was complete. This rule was also applicable for all participants including those who chose to discontinue participation before completion of the 10-day period. The rationale behind this was to avoid the logistical challenges associated with making compensation payments intermittently.

While the overall compensation structure for participants recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk was similar to the structure described above, the amounts were changed based on a) Amazon’s suggested compensation guidelines and b) pilot data collection done for this study (detailed later). While my initial proposal employed the

afore-mentioned pay structure (with different payouts for baseline and daily surveys) such that an individual MTurker could earn up to a maximum of \$14.25 for completing the baseline and all daily surveys, the revised structure increased the amount to up to \$20 for completing the entire study. Full details of the compensation structure for Mechanical Turk and other participants is provided in Appendix C. Participants recruited through Mechanical Turk were compensated at the end of each daily surveys in accordance with Amazon Mechanical Turk policies.

Volunteer rate is defined as the number individuals who are eligible to participate and the actual number of individuals who eventually participate in the study (Hektner, Schmidt & Csikzentmihalyi, 2007). In the general sample, 104 people initially expressed an interest in participation. 18 people among those who initially expressed interest did not respond to subsequent requests to participate in the study. After completing the screening survey, 14 participants were found to be ineligible on various study criteria (e.g., employment status, duration of partnership/marriage or marital status). It is unclear how many of those (18 participants) who expressed initial interest (but did not respond) would have been eligible to participate. Thus, the volunteer rate in the non-MTurk sample is 84% (based on the assumption that none of them would have qualified to participate). 40 of the 155 MTurk workers who took the screening survey met the eligibility criteria to participate in the survey. Of these 40 participants, 32 participants chose to continue participation in the study after completion of the baseline study. Thus, volunteer rate for the MTurk sample was 80%. The seemingly high participation rate belies the difficulty involved in recruiting participants, which was compounded by prospective participant concerns about effort and time commitment to daily surveys.

Inclusion criteria. An individual's characteristics and circumstances (role pressure, role support, values), and those of his/her partner together influence work-family experiences and outcomes for the couple (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Hence, studying members of dual career couple, where both partners pursue active careers and family lives and whose work and family lives are interdependent, is a good way of measuring how important situational cues (especially those of pressure and support) would influence work-family decision making. To be eligible to participate in the study, participants had to be married or living with a partner for at least 12 months.

Another requirement was that the individual needed to be employed for at least 30 hours/week. Generally, 30 hours/week or less is considered part time employment, while anything more than 30 hours/week is generally considered full time employment. Employees who are working full-time are likely to experience different amounts and patterns of WFC compared to those who work part-time. It is also expected that different interaction patterns may occur across day and night shift workers. Individuals/ spouses who work these shifts may have more unique (idiosyncratic) arrangements and might experience different WFC concerns than the rest of the population. Hence, another screening parameter was shift-working and the study excluded individuals who work or whose spouses work a 12 a.m.- 6 a.m. shift. Therefore, in order to be eligible participants had to meet the following criteria: a) employed at least 30 hours/week, b) married or living with a partner (for at least 1 year) who was also employed at least 20 hours/week, and c) not working a night shift through the hours of 12 a.m. to 6 a.m.

Pilot Study

Previous research using daily diary studies (Hektner et al., 2007; Iida et al., 2012)

find that carrying out carefully planned pilot studies with participants from the same population as the intended target sample helps researchers to understand the feasibility of study with the specific population, in addition to refining and improving the protocol and procedures involved. A small pilot study ($N = 10$) was conducted using participants from Amazon Mechanical Turk to examine the feasibility of conducting daily surveys. Over a daily data collection period lasting a week (for $10 \times 7 = 70$ potential observations), 45 responses were obtained with only 12 usable daily incidents of work-family conflict resulting in an incident reporting rate of less than 20%. Further, some participants took the baseline study but chose not to continue with the daily incident reporting, highlighting potential concerns regarding compensation for daily surveys. A few participants provided feedback on issues of reporting daily data in terms of the process and content of reporting. A closer analysis of this data provided the basis for some key modifications to the study. The following changes were made to the study.

- Increased MTurk participant compensation for baseline and daily surveys, which increased the total amount from \$14.25 to \$20.00. Please refer to appendix C for details of compensation structures for pilot and main study.
- Inclusion of a 3-minute video containing detailed instructions on responding to daily survey questionnaires as part of the baseline study. The video, which was featured at the end of the baseline study, provided participants the following details on the daily surveys:
 - The rationale behind daily work-family conflict surveys
 - Time requirements of daily surveys- when they would be sent, average time taken to complete the survey, and daily deadline for submission.

- Examples of potential work-family conflicts that could be reported and level of detail to be provided in responding to open ended questions
- The daily surveys were modified to be of comparable length whether or not participants reported incidents of work-family conflict and designed to be completed within 6-7 minutes
- Participants from general population were provided the option of either receiving compensation in the form of an e-gift card or the option of donating their compensation to the charitable cause, Second Harvest Heartland, based out of St. Paul, Minnesota.

Procedure

Pre-Study Informed Consent And Survey Response Training. Participants who met the screening criteria and consented to participate were invited to take the baseline survey. The baseline survey included the informed consent process and one-time measures and took about 20-25 minutes to complete. After completion of the baseline survey items, participants went through an on-line training video where the daily survey procedures were described. This video was approximately 3-minute duration and provided details on data collection procedures and how to respond to survey questions. Training is an important part of diary studies and it is vital that participants understand the meaning of questions, when to respond, and be aware of whom to contact in the case of any issues (Fisher & To, 2012). This short video (of approximately 3 minutes duration) reiterated the aims of the study and provided instructions on how to complete the daily surveys, and the level of detail that participants needed to provide in their responses to open-ended questions.

Data Collection

All daily surveys commenced on Monday or Wednesday, concluded on Wednesday or Friday of the following week, and included the weekend days for a total of 10 days of data collection per participant. While the decision regarding duration of data collection is dependent on the aims of the study (Hektner et al., 2007), previous studies employing daily diary methods (Butler et al., 2005; Judge et al., 2006) have collected data over a 2-week period. The current study was in line with the only published study of decision making using daily diary method (Shockley & Allen, 2015), where data were collected over a 10-day period, including the weekend days.

Many individuals (particularly those with young children) face work-family conflicts in the mornings and late afternoons, coinciding with times that children need to be dropped off to school/day care and again when they are to be picked up in the evenings. Even in the case of respondents without parenting responsibilities, it was ideal to collect data on an event-contingent basis since data collected once a day, in the evenings hold the potential of tapping into the event shortly after it has occurred. Further, completing the diary at the end of the day represented a lesser burden for many participants and improved reporting rate. Hence, I collected data just once a day, which balanced pragmatic reasons concerning response rates with concerns regarding the meaningfulness of the responses.

For each of the 10 days, participants were sent a daily survey link between 5 and 6 pm, to record information about their work-family decision making experiences. Each evening before bed, they completed the survey to record their responses to various questions including, the work-family conflict experienced, the decision making that

followed, and other details that were pertinent to the experience. Thus, each participant completed the same survey for 10 days. Participants were instructed to complete and submit the surveys before midnight of the same day, thus providing them a window of 6 to 7 hours to submit the survey. Most participants completed the daily surveys between 7:00 and 9:00 p.m.

Measures – One-Time (Baseline survey)

Demographic variables. Demographic and baseline variables were collected once at the start of the study (Please refer to Appendix A and B for the consent form, instructions and survey instruments that were used in the study). Participants who were screened via the initial survey took the baseline survey, which gathered information on several demographic, psychological and study related variables. The following demographic variables were captured as part of this survey: a) race, b) gender, c) age, d) marital status, e) number of children, f) ages of children, g) employment status, h) number of hours/week, i) spouse/partner employment status, j) number of hours/week for spouse, k) working hours, l) annual income, m) total household income, n) job title, o) education level, and p) organizational tenure. Demographic variables that were found to have significant associations with work-family conflict, namely, age, gender, number of children, weekly work hours, and organizational tenure, were included as control variables, and are discussed in this section. As part of the results section, these variables will be discussed where their inclusion in the analysis changed the findings in meaningful ways.

Age. Past research findings on the effects of *age* on the individual's experience of work-family conflict has been rather mixed with positive (Burke & Greenglass, 1999),

negative (Grzywacz, Almeida, & McDonald, 2002), and no relationships (Allen, 2001) being reported between age and work-family conflict (Matthews et al., 2010).

Gender. Previous meta-analyses (Byron, 2005; Mesmer-Magnus & Visweswaran, 2006) report a lack of association between gender and the experience of work-family conflict. However, the traditional gender role perspective (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991) prescribes the primacy of the family (communal) role for women and the work (agentic) role for men. Although the experience of WFC does not differ by gender, it is possible that gender role attributions influence individuals' responses to conflict arising from the family domain on the work domain and hence gender was used as a control variable.

Number of children. Past research has also produced mixed results on the relationship between the *number of children* and work-family conflict that individuals experience and their identification with the family-role (Casper, Martin, Buffardi, & Erdwins, 2002). Specifically, research shows that FIW is highest for individuals with preschool children and low among groups, as children grow older. Number of children was measured by asking participants to indicate the number of children living with them at least 50% of the time.

Work hours. This was measured as the average number of weekly hours worked. Work hours are included as a control variable due to its association with chronic WIF and FIW in previous research (Byron, 2005).

Tenure. Tenure is particularly important since the longer an individual is affiliated with the organization, the more likely that he/she not only has more equitable relationship with key role senders in the work domain, they are also more likely to be aware of expected standards of behavior for specific roles. Conversely, newer employees

may be more susceptible to work role pressures and perhaps may have not developed the work social support systems or other coping mechanisms necessary to deal with those work pressures.

Work-family conflict. Work-family conflict was assessed using the time, strain, and behavior-based WIF and FIW dimensions from Carlson et al., (2000) multidimensional WFC scale. A global measure of FWC and WFC as part of the baseline measure allows an understanding of individual's perceived levels of bidirectional work-family conflict. An example item is "*My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.*" These items assessed WIF on a five-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. While Carlson et al (2000) reported alphas of .74 for WFC and .73 for FWC scales, this study found that alpha for the WFC measure was .86 and that for the FWC measure was .73. Carlson et al reported alphas ranging from .73 - .75 for the subscales relating to time, strain and behavior based interference dimensions. In this study, the alphas for the time based subscales were .84 (WFC) and .75 (FWC), while those for strain based subscales were .85 (WFC) and .90 (FWC), and for .89 (WFC) and .92 (FWC) for behavior based subscales.

Work and Family centrality. Work and family centrality was assessed using 12 items from Hirschfeld and Field (2000), who reported an alpha of .78. A sample item is, "*Work should only be a small part of one's life*" (reverse scored). The current study found an alpha of .81. The same scale was used to measure *family centrality*, except that the word 'work' was replaced with 'family'. However, two of the items from the work centrality scale cannot be applied in the family domain since they are as follows "*I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money,*" and "*If the unemployment*

benefit was really high, I would still prefer to work.” They are therefore excluded from the measure in line with the study by Bagger & Li (2012), who employed a similar strategy reporting $\alpha = .84$. Thus, family centrality was measured with 10 items, which in this study had an alpha of .78

Trait work and family-role salience. Work and family role salience was measured with 10 items (five for each type of role salience) adapted from The Life Role Salience Scales developed by Amatea et al. (1986, $\alpha = .81 - .94$). Respondents will use a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1= *totally disagree* to 5= *totally agree*. Sample items are: “*Having work/a career that is interesting and exciting to me is my most important life goal*” (work-role salience), and “*I expect my family/ personal life to give me more real personal satisfaction than anything else in which I am involved*” (home role salience). The current study found alphas for the four subscales ranging from .60 to .78 and were lower than the values reported by the authors of the measure.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was assessed with a three-item measure (Camman, Fichman, Jenkins, & Flesch, 1983). Camman et al., (1983) reported an alpha of .87, while this study found an alpha of .85. A sample item of the measure is “*All in all, I am satisfied with my job.*” Respondents indicate agreement using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1= *totally disagree* to 5= *totally agree*.

Family satisfaction. Family satisfaction was measured with three items from Camman and colleagues (1983), who originally reported an alpha of .76) using a five-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. A sample item of the measure is “*Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my family.*” This study found an alpha of .77.

Supervisor, Team, and Organizational Support. Three items from co-worker support measure from Dolcos & Daley (2009), who reported an alpha of .76, were adapted to assess the co-worker support available to the individual. A sample item is, “*My coworkers provide me the support that I need to do a good job.*” Respondents indicated agreement using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1= *totally disagree* to 5= *totally agree*, and the study found an alpha of .79 for the measure.

Supervisor support was assessed using the 4-item abbreviated measure of Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors (FSSB) by Hammer et al., (2013 with a reported $\alpha = .83$) that uses a five-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Sample items are: “*My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him/her about my conflicts between work and non-work*” and “*My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues.*” The current study found that the measure had an alpha of .84.

Organizational culture for family supportiveness was measured using 14 items from the Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions (FSOP) scale by Allen (2001) who reported an alpha of .91. This measure uses a 5-point Likert scale with agreement anchors ranging between *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. A sample item is, “*It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life.*” The current study found an alpha of .85 for the FSOP.

Family Support. Family support was measured using two seven-item scale adapted from Boyar et al., (2014), with reported alphas ranging between .76 and .93, to assess support received from family members with regard to work and family issues. Sample items are “*My family is willing to listen to me when I talk about work*” and “*My*

family members do their fair share of household chores.” The current study found an alpha of .91 for all items.

Family demands. Family demand was measured using the 4 item Boyar et al., (2007, $\alpha = .74$) Perceived Family Demand scale, which had an alpha of .79. Sample items are, *“I have to work hard on family-related activities’,”* and *“My family requires all of my attention.”*

Work demands. Work pressure was measured using the 5-item Perceived Work Demands scale by Boyar et al., (2007, $\alpha = .83$). The measure used a 5-point Likert scale with agreement anchors ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree and had an alpha of .88. Sample item is, *“My job requires that I work very hard.”*

Exploratory variables Individual difference measures relating to decision making preference (consequences and appropriateness based), personality and regulatory focus were included as exploratory variables. They were used in exploratory analysis, which will be detailed subsequently.

Decision Making Preferences. To understand the extent to which participants generally make decisions based on a concern for consequences, an 8-item measure adapted from Allen & Ng (1999, $\alpha = .78$) was used. The measure used a 7-point Likert scale with agreement anchors ranging from 1- strongly disagrees to 7- strongly agree and had an alpha of .76. These items have been adapted to reflect the utility of decision making involved in resolving conflicts to participate either in a work/family-activity. Sample item is *“When deciding on whether or not to participate in any activity (work or family related) I think about how useful it was”* and *“When I make an important work or family decision, for me, it is essential to determine whether the decision respects social*

rules.” Four new items have been created in order to assess decision making based on concern for appropriateness/rule following when experiencing conflict and had an alpha of .69.

Regulatory focus. Regulatory focus was measured using the 12-item measure by Wallace, Johnson, & Frazier (2009), who reported alphas of .84 for the promotion and prevention focus items. The items in the original measure were contextualized to refer to work activities/tasks as part of the Wallace et al., (2009) study. However, in this study, the items were decontextualized to be generic and instructions indicated that participants were to think of these questions to apply to a broad set of contexts – both work and family related. A sample item was “*I focus on getting a lot of activities finished in a short amount of time.*” The general instructions preceding the items also directed participants to think about both work and family related activities when responding to the questions.

Personality. Personality was measured using 50 items selected from the Big Five Aspect Scale (BFAS) by De Young and colleagues (2008). The original 100 item measure comprised 10 items per aspect and reported alphas for the aspects ranging from .78 to .89. This study randomly selected 5 items per aspect to measure the 10 aspects and combined the aspects to form the factors. The alphas for the different aspects in this study ranged from .65 to .81.

Repeated measures - Daily Surveys

The 10 daily surveys included the following measures. Most of the measures used as part of repeated measures are single item measures. The considerable time investment involved in completing the daily surveys that also included some open ended items, demanded being selective about which items to include. Previous research (Hektner et al., 2007; Iida et al., 2012) has found that the length of diary entry is a key aspect of burden

apart from frequency of responses and length of diary period. These sources of burden can lead to subject non-compliance, burden, and attrition. While most of these measures have been used in previous studies (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015), a few items (relating to the mediating logics) were created for this study.

Multidimensional measure of episodic WFC. Participants were first asked to respond to 6-item measure adapted from Matthews et al., (2010) to obtain an objective assessment of work to family or family to work conflict. Responses were on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagrees to strongly agree. An example of WIF is *'Today, I had to miss family activities due to the amount of time I had to spend on work responsibilities.'* Similarly, an example of FIW is *'Today, I had to miss work activities due to the amount of time I had to spend on family responsibilities.'* This abbreviated set measures all the dimensions of time, strain and behavior based WIF and FIW with alphas of .75 and .71 respectively (Matthews et al., 2010). Further, they were contextualized to specify interference experienced on the particular day rather than being generic as intended in the original measure. The alphas for the different days ranged between .51 and .77 for WFC, and .61 and .82 for FWC. Please refer to Table 5 for details.

Affect. Positive and negative affect was measured using 10 item PANAS scale (Watson, Tellegen & Clark (1988). Role juggling or the simultaneous management of both work and family goals is associated with increased negative affect and reduced task enjoyment (Williams, Suls, Alliger, Learner & Wan, 1991). Further, WIF and FIW are associated with guilt and hostility with family and at work respectively (Judge et al., 2006). Apart from affect's relevance to work-family conflict, research (e.g., Schwartz and Clore, 1983) has found that affective states may serve both informative and directive

functions. By providing information to make various judgments affect serves the information function and by directing attention to specific kinds of information, presumably in an attempt to find the cause for such feelings, affect also serves a directive function. The alphas for the different days ranged between .81 and .90 for positive affect and .83 and .90 for negative affect.

Qualitative details of WFC episodes. Participants were first asked if he/she experienced any episodes in which work and family produced competing demands on that particular day. These items were adopted from previous studies on work-family conflict decision-making (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015). Participants responding in the affirmative were then guided through a set of open-ended questions that gathered details of the incident. *“Work–family conflict occurs when work and family produce competing demands. Did you experience any instance of work–family conflict today?”* Those responding “yes” to the previous question were instructed to describe the WFC incident *“Please describe the work–family conflict situation that you experienced today. What was the nature of the conflict,”* This was followed by questions aimed at obtaining information about how the conflict was resolved and the impact of its resolution: a) *“What did you decide to do? Please describe the decision that you arrived at regarding the two competing/conflicting activities”*; b) *“How did you arrive at the decision?”*; c) *“What cues (factors) did you take into consideration in arriving at the decision?”*; d) *“In resolving the conflict, did you choose the work-activity, the family-activity, or were you able to do both?”*; and e) *“Please explain how you felt about the decision after it was made and anything that occurred as a result.”*

Time allocation to work and family activities. Participants were also asked how

much time they had allocated to the work and family activities in the process of resolving the conflict. Participants indicated time allocation to work and family activities based on a zero sum scheme, using a slider ranging from 0 to 100. One end of the slider was labeled time allocated to work and the other, time allocated to family. If participants did not spend any time on the work-activity, they were instructed to keep the slider to the zero position, indicating they spent no time on the work-activity and all their time on the family-activity. If participants spent some percentage of time on both activities, they moved the slider along to the right till the number displayed on the slider indicated the % of time you have spent on the work-activity. On the other hand, if participants did not spend any time on the family-activity, they kept the slider at 100, indicating that they spent all time on the work-activity and none on the family-activity. Another question also asked participants what proportion of each of the activities they were able to complete in the process of resolving the conflict, when it occurred. In response, participants entered a number between 1 and 100 against each activity.

Role sender pressure. Role sender pressure in each domain was measured with items adapted from Powell and Greenhaus (2006): “*How much pressure did you feel from the people at work (e.g., supervisors, subordinates, coworkers, suppliers, customers) to choose work over family?*” and “*How much pressure did you feel from people at home (e.g., spouse/partner, children, parents, etc.) to choose family over work?*” Response options were set on a five-point scale that ranged from *no pressure* to *a lot of pressure*.

Consequences (benefits and costs) associated with participation. The cost (benefits) associated with participating in the specific activity was assessed using two items that were developed specifically for the study. These items will assess potential

benefits and sanctions associated on a five-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Participants are provided the following instructions, *“Decision to participate in various activities may be based on whether participation could result in positive or negative outcomes for oneself/team/family etc. Potential positive/desired outcomes are termed benefits while negative/undesired outcomes are termed sanctions.”* Items used are *“Participating in the work-activity had important benefits for me at the workplace”* and *“Not participating in the work-activity could have resulted in sanctions for me in the workplace.”* Similarly, the perceived cost/benefit implications of participation in family-activity were assessed using the following items. *“Participating in the family-activity was associated with important positive family outcomes”* and *“Not participating in the family-activity could have resulted in negative outcomes at home.”*

Appropriate standards of role behavior. The importance of holding oneself to the expected standards of role appropriate behavior was measured using the following items on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Since the items are referring to specific activities that individuals would have participated in, on that day, the framing of the item is in the past tense. *“Participating in the work-activity was an important part of my role as an employee”* and similarly for the family role *“Participating in the family-activity was an important part my family-role.”*

Maintaining relationships with role senders. Sometimes individuals may choose to participate in an activity for non-pragmatic reasons such as the need to preserve the relationship with the role sender. This social need to maintain favorable relationships was assessed using two items on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Since the items are referring to specific activities that individuals would

have participated in that day, the framing of the item is in the past tense. The items are: “*Today, I was thinking about my relationship with my coworker when deciding to participate in the work-activity,*” and “*Today, I was thinking about my relationship with my family member when deciding to participate in the family-activity.*”

Role sender support. Emotional and instrumental support constructs used in daily survey instruments followed the same labels as used in extant research (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Shockley & Allen, 2015) because these are easier for participants to understand (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). Thus, emotional support was called Social support and instrumental was called tangible support. Response options for both sets of items range on a five-point scale from *hardly any support* to *considerable support*.

Emotional Support. Items adapted from Powell and Greenhaus (2006) were used to assess work and family-role sender emotional support. “*Social support is emotional or psychological support, such as listening to problems, providing advice, and being understanding; it is support that helps one deal with the emotional effects of work–family conflict but does not modify the situation to resolve the conflict. How much social support did you receive from people at work (supervisor and coworkers) that helped you to meet your family responsibilities?*” and “*How much social support did you receive from people at home that helped you to meet your work responsibilities?*” Items pertaining to coworker support for work demands and family support for family demands were captured as part of baseline measures and not included here in order to keep the participant burden low.

Instrumental support. Instrumental support in each domain was measured with an item adapted from Shockley & Allen (2015). Responses were based on a five-point

Likert scale that ranges from *no support* to *a lot of support*. *Tangible support* is an action, such as *rescheduling an event or assuming responsibility for the task, that helps one solve a work–family problem or eliminate the conflict*. “*How much tangible support did you receive from people at work that helped you to meet your family responsibilities?*” and “*How much tangible support did you receive from people at home that helped you to meet your work responsibilities?*”

Activity importance. Work and family-activity importance was measured with items from Powell and Greenhaus (2006) that used a five point Likert scale ranging from *not at all important* to *very important*. “*How important is the work-activity to you?*” and “*How important is the family-activity to you?*” Similarly, two items assessed the objective import of the activity to the role senders on a five-point Likert scale (*not at all important* to *very important*) “*Objectively, how important is the work-activity to people at work?*” and “*Objectively, how important is the family-activity to people in the family?*”

The survey also asked participants about the number of distinct WFC episodes they experienced that day. In cases where participants experienced more than one conflict on a particular day, they were requested to report details of each incident separately. Four participants noted that they had experienced 3 conflicts on a particular day over the data collection period. 31 participants noted that they had experienced 2 conflicts on at least 1 day during the data collection period. To avoid issues relating to data dependence leading to smaller standard errors and higher type I errors, on occasions that more than one conflict was reported, only the first reported conflict was used. A pilot for the study, which included the screening, baseline, and 5 daily surveys, was conducted 3-4 weeks before the primary study. The pilot drew participants (sample size of 10) from Amazon’s

Mechanical Turk. The pilot was aimed at shedding light on various issues that may be faced with the primary study including concerns regarding participation, compensation, daily response rate etc.

Results

Data screening and cleaning

As part of data screening, I removed responses received too long after the daily deadline. Although I initially set 12:00 midnight of the same day as the deadline, about 10 participants reached out requesting an extension on the deadline, since evenings were generally a busy time for them in caring for children and the home or about having forgotten about the survey. In pragmatically weighing concern for retrospective recall against the loss of data from an important section of my sample, I decided to extend the deadline to 9:00 a.m. of the next day. Accordingly, responses received after the 9:00 a.m. deadlines were rejected during data screening (McCabe, Mack, & Fleeson, 2011). Two types of non-response have generally been noted among ESM and daily diary studies: failure to respond altogether and responding at a different time than intended (Fisher & To, 2012). In the case of the former, there is no clear way of knowing why non-response occurred and in such cases, I treated such data as missing at random.

A brief anonymous feedback survey (with average completion time of 1.5 minutes) conducted at the end of data collection elicited participant response on a few key aspects of daily surveys including the frequency of and reasons behind missing daily responses. In essence, 85% of participants agreed or strongly agreed that the daily surveys effectively captured the kind of conflicts that they face on a daily basis. Further, 87% agreed that the 10 day data collection period represented a typical period in their

work-family lives. The rest of the sample noted a) sudden illness, b) unexpected caregiving responsibilities, relocation of residence, c) spouse's travel, and d) holiday season, as reasons for why the data collection period was non-typical. Finally, participants noted the following reasons for having missed daily surveys: a) busy with other activities, b) forgot about survey/did not check email/ c) fell asleep/feeling unwell, and d) technical/other issues in completing survey.

As a precaution against late responding, participants were informed (through informed consent provided at the beginning of the screening and baseline surveys, and also as part of daily instructions) about the importance of submitting the responses on time for responses to be considered valid. Further, any responses that were received after the daily reporting window had passed were excluded from the data analysis based on time stamp (from the survey tool) on the responses. Forty out of 881 daily survey reports were received with a time stamp beyond 9:00 a.m. and were excluded from the analysis.

In total, 104 participants responded to the baseline and daily surveys providing 881 daily responses. Excluding the 40 that had time stamps beyond the daily deadline reduced the number of responses to 841. Only days on which work-family conflict incidents were reported were used for analysis. Consequently, I found 288 work-family conflict episodes reported by 85 participants. Previous work-family research using daily diary methodology shows various response/reporting rates by participants. Response rate refers to the percentage of sample that reports at least one incident of work-family conflict decision-making (Hektner et al., 2007). As part of their study on job characteristics, work-family conflict and enrichment, Butler et al., (2005) reported a response rate of 64 percent. However, the Butler et al., (2005) study had participants

respond to daily diary items, but did not require them to report daily incidents. The 34 percent response rate ($mean=3.35$ responses per participant, $SD= 2.26$) for reported episodes, in this study is in line with that of Shockley and Allen (2015) who reported 35.1 percent response rate ($mean=3.51$, $SD=2.66$).

In the current study, T-tests between groups of participants who reported at least one incident⁵ and those who did not report any incidents found no significant demographic differences between them except for income and age. Non-reporters had lower individual incomes ($mean= \$40,000- 50,000$ vs. $\$50,000- 75,000$, $t (102) = 2.24$, $p = .04$, $d= .59$). Further, non-reporters were younger than reporters in age ($mean =35.24$ years vs. 39.2 , $t (102) =1.88$, $p = .06$, $d=. 48$) and gender ($t (102) = 1.03$, $p = .31$, $d=. 27$). However, they were comparable in terms of education (college graduate - some post graduate college work vs. college graduate - some post graduate college work, $t (102) =1.04$, $p = .30$, $d=. 27$), number of children living with them ($mean = 1.57$ vs. 1.39 , $t (102) = .96$, $p = .34$, $d=. 25$), and number of hours worked ($mean = 41.5$ vs. 39.71 , $t (102) = .80$, $p = .42$, $d=. 21$).

This study captured the prioritized work/family-activity in two ways. First, through qualitative descriptions of work-family episodes and their resolution, including which activity was prioritized in order to resolve the conflict, and second by noting the allocation of time to work and family activities that were part of the conflict, measured as continuous variables. Since work-family conflict episodes (diary days with incidents, level 1 variables) are nested within-individual participants (level 2 variables) multi-level

⁵ For the purpose of these t-tests, participants who reported at least one work-family conflict incident during the 10 days of data collection were referred to as reporters and those reporting none were called non-reporters.

modeling was implemented.

Since I intended to conduct structural equations modeling, univariate and multivariate outliers were sought among all cases at once (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Plotting residuals at both levels 1 and 2 assessed multivariate normality of data. Data points with a Variable Inflation Factor (VIF) of 10 or higher were marked for deletion since VIF is an indicator of multi-collinearity problems (Field, 2009). Residuals were also used to assess normality and to look for outliers using Cook's Distances to examine influence. Influence is a diagnostic index, which combines leverage and outlyingness, provides an estimate of the extent to which parameter estimates change when a particular data point is removed from the data. Mahalanobis distance, an index of how far a data point is from the mean of all cases in multivariate space, was used to identify, transform variables, where feasible,⁶ and remove outliers that did not change even after transformation⁷. Many of these were outliers on the outcome variable of time allocation to activity, apart from daily contextual variables and family related variables at level 2. I started with 288 data points at level 1 and 85 at level 2. Data cleaning resulted in a total 275 data points at level 1 and 85 data points at level 2. Despite these cleaning efforts, the response variables – time allocation to work and family activities and prioritized domain did not have a normal distribution. In all of multilevel analyses, because the interest is in interpreting the within-individual effects of contextual variables on WFC decision making, all L1 variables were centered relative to each individual's average score on the respective variable in order to separate the between-individual variance from the within-

⁶ I transformed variables relating work salience, family salience, family centrality, and decision making by consequences and appropriateness, based on guidelines by Tabachnick & Fidell (2013).

⁷ This is associated with concerns that standard errors would be incorrect with the possibility of inaccurate significance tests and confidence intervals.

individual variance (Snijders & Bosker, 1993).

Descriptive Statistics

Sample Characteristics. The average age of the sample was 39.53 years. Seventy-six percent of the sample identified as female and 22.5% as male, with the balance not indicating their gender. Eighty one percent of participants identified as white/Caucasian with approximately 3.5% identifying as African-American, Asian-American, and others each. About 4% of participants choose not to identify their race. Seventy nine percent of the sample was married with 13% being in partnered relationships and 7% was single (divorced/ widowed with childcare responsibilities). Eighty four percent of participants had at least a bachelor's degree (38% of participants were college graduates, 32% possessed either a Master's degree or an MBA, and about 7% were PhDs). Participants reported average weekly working hours of 41.31 hours for themselves and 35.3 hours for spouses/partners. The average individual income was between \$50,000 and \$75,000 and the reported average household income was between \$75,000 and \$100,000. Participants were employed in mostly white collar occupations such as Clinical Nurse Specialist, Researcher, Associate Director, Child Support Officer, Lead Project Engineer, School Psychologist, Sr. Regulatory Manager, Web Programmer, Professor, and Product Specialist etc.

Comparison between participants from MTurk sample and non-MTurk sample. In the recent past, MTurk has helped accelerate research by facilitating access to a heterogeneous research-participant pool and has provided scientists with a platform to conduct research that is otherwise hard to conduct for varied reasons such as locational constraints or ability to observe real-time dynamics of large group working (Paolucci &

Chandler, 2015). In general, MTurk has been found to be more diverse than college samples and combined with the low cost of MTurk data facilitates the collection of well-powered samples that, *ceteris paribus*, better reflects the available workforce. Further, MTurk provides tools to recruit desired workers (e.g., those who are attentive and produce quality work) and avoid undesired workers (e.g., those who are known to have participated in similar studies in the past), allowing further control over the final sample. By being transparent with the materials used as part of the study and the methods used to recruit and exclude participants, MTurk allows researchers to minimize the problems of arbitrary design choices influencing sample composition.

T-tests found there were significant differences between the sample of Amazon MTurkers and non-MTurk participants on some demographic variables namely age, income, education, and number of children. The MTurkers had lower individual incomes (mean \$40,000- 50,000) compared to participants from the general sample (mean \$50,000 - 75,000, $t(102) = 3.668, p < .05, d = .78$), were slightly less educated (some college education vs. some post graduate education, $t(102) = 5.45, p < .05, d = 1.16$), and had fewer children than non-MTurkers (mean 1.24 vs. 1.85, $t(102) = 1.93, p = .06, d = .41$). However, MTurk participants were comparable to non-MTurk participants in terms of age (mean 36.56 vs. 39.34, $t(102) = 1.64, p = .11, d = .35$), number of weekly work hours (mean 41.59 vs. 41.04, $t(102) = .31, p = .76, d = .06$), and organizational tenure, in months (mean 75.04 vs. 79.04, $t(102) = 1.2, p = .24, d = .23$).

Descriptive statistics of sample. Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients and intraclass correlations, were calculated for all study variables/measures. Please refer Table 2 for correlation between level 2 variables and Table 3 for ICCs.

Analysis of variance components allowed estimation of where the majority of variance in the variables occurs – whether at the within-individual level of analysis or at the between-individual level. Most study variables have considerable within-individual variability warranting the use of multilevel modeling. Prior research using episodic measures has been equivocal on this issue with some studies reporting considerable within-individual variability (e.g., Butler et al (2005) while others have not found this to be the case (e.g., Shockley & Allen, 2015). Majority of variance in the variables occurred at the within-individual level of analysis. Within-individual correlations are based on a sample size of 275 - although the significance of bivariate correlations have been indicated, it is important to note that these are not necessarily accurate due to the non-independence of data and should be interpreted with caution.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

It is critical to understand whether the Likert type, multi-item measures used in the study captured distinctive constructs and whether they perform as expected. To understand whether multi-item, between-individual measures of role centrality, role salience, rational and appropriateness decision making, work support, family social support, work pressure and family pressure capture distinct constructs, I conducted confirmatory factor analyses based on individual mean-centered scores (Bolger, Davis & Rafaeli, 2003). Model fit was assessed using the following fit statistics, following guidelines by Tabachnick & Fidell, (2012): χ^2 , Comparative Fit Index & Tucker Lewis Fit Index (CFI & TLI, > .95), Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR, < .05), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA, < .05). Confirmatory factor analysis requires a ratio of 1:10 factors to data points (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Given

theses considerations, I initially conducted the analysis in a piece-meal fashion for each measure and subsequently combined analysis for measures of related/overlapping constructs. Please refer to Table 6 for details of the model fit indices for measures used in the study.

I also conducted Multi-level Confirmatory Factor Analysis (MCFA) for within-individual measures that were used as part of daily surveys. Some of the measures used as part of the daily surveys, such as work-family conflict (Matthews, Kath & Barnes-Farrell, 2010) and PANAS (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988), have validation research evidence supporting them. In contrast, measures of role sender pressure, role sender support and activity importance (based on Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006) are essentially single item measures and the psychometric evidence supporting them is limited to the alphas reported in the aforementioned studies. Finally, I created scales to measure consequences of role activity participation and appropriateness of role behaviors for this study. Although the correlations of the items with other constructs are in expected directions, the evidence for confirmatory factor analysis was poor for the appropriateness measure. For instance, correlations of appropriateness of work behaviors with work pressure were .31, with work-activity, importance was .31, and with instrumental family support was .17. However, the multi-level confirmatory factor analysis (MCFA) suggested model convergence issues, due to negative residual variances, that could not be corrected over various iterations of constraining latent factors to zero (Byrne, 2012). In summary, the appropriateness measures did not have acceptable fit parameters to support their use in the intended manner in the study.

Most measures used in the study were existing measures and largely performed in expected ways and had good fit indices, although a few measures did perform poorly. Table 6 provides details of CFA for all study measures. Among the between individual measures (at level 2), Role Salience measures for Work role salience and Family role salience, which was adapted from Amatea et al., (1986) measures of role salience, showed poor fit indices as part of confirmatory factor analysis and did not perform as an acceptable measure of role salience. The alphas for the different scales were low (work salience value - .66, work salience commitment- .78, family salience value- .60 and family salience commitment - .67) and the fit statistics were poor. A 4-factor structure with fit values of $\chi^2 = 312.18$, $df = 164$ $CFI/TLI = .77/.74$, $RMSEA = .09$, $SRMR = .10$ fit better than a two factor with $\chi^2 = 720.14$, $df = 179$, $CFI/TLI = .18/.13$, $RMSEA = .17$, $SRMR = .21$, χ^2 (difference) = 407.96, $p < .01$. Deleting an item from the family salience measures (specifically, item 1 pertaining to family salience value) that exhibited limited variance helped improve fit further. For a 4-factor structure, the fit statistics were $\chi^2 = 281.37$, $df = 146$, $CFI/TLI = .79/.76$, $RMSEA = .10$, $SRMR = .10$. Consequently, this measure was not used in analysis of hypothesis on the interaction between role salience and activity importance. In its stead, work centrality (Hirschfield & Feld, 2000) and family role centrality measures (adapted from Bagger & Li, 2012) was used as a measure of role salience. Work centrality scale had an alpha of .81 and the family centrality scale had an alpha of .78. In conducting a CFA, I found that a two-factor structure (Chi square = 352.45, $df = 208$, $CFI = .77$, $TLI = .74$ $RMSEA = .08$) provided a significantly better fit to the data than the one-factor structure ($\chi^2 = 496.88$, $df = 209$, $CFI = .54$, $NFI = .49$, $RMSEA = .12$, with a χ^2 (difference) = 144.43, $p < .01$). At the within-individual level

(level 1), the role salience measure (2 items adapted from Amatea et al., 1986) did not converge when a multilevel CFA was conducted. Issues with negative residual variances that could not be corrected meant that I could not be sure about the constructs that were being assessed through the use of the measure. Consequently, I did not to use the measure in the analysis and in testing hypothesis 4 (interaction of role salience and activity importance) used the Role Centrality measure.

Tests of Mediation Hypotheses

In researching multilevel phenomena, it is important to understand the nature of constructs at each level and examine whether processes and relationships among variables at one level - within-individual level in this study, are consistent with analogous processes and relationships at a higher level- between-individual level (Chen, Bliese & Mathieu, 2005). Equivalence of construct meanings in a psychometric sense is called *isomorphism* (Muthén, 1994) and equivalence of nomological relations across levels is referred to as *homology* (Chen et al., 2005, Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). It is important to consider whether constructs measured at lower levels have similar conceptual interpretation to their aggregated counterpart constructs structural relations among variables and the linkages among the different levels of measurement (Guenole, 2016). Hence, examination of these relationships and delineation of their substantive meaning at each level is essential for two key reasons. First, similarity of meaning and relationship permit model parsimony and generalizability, which are important goals in statistical modeling (Forster, 2000). Second, isomorphism allows generalizing theories developed at one level of analysis for explanation at another level. In summary, casting these hypotheses as multi-level models is important to obtain a clear view of the mediation

mechanisms at both levels of analysis.

I tested mediation hypotheses using Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2010), following the multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM) approach suggested by Preacher, Zyphur, and Zhang (2010). Because repeatedly measured variables can contain both between- and within-person variation (e.g., individuals can differ from one another in their work-family conflict experiences, and any given individual's work-family conflict experiences can vary from one day to the next), it is useful to disentangle the between- and within-person relationships to determine if and how relationships differ across levels of analysis. A failure to disentangle between- and within-person relationships can yield potentially misleading results. Although this issue has been well recognized within MLM in general, more recent work has helped elucidate the problem in the more specific case of multi-level mediation, and offers analytical remedial approaches that can be taken in such situations (e.g., Preacher et al., 2010; Zhang, Preacher & Zyphur, 2009).

Of the three typical multi-level mediation models in research, the one that is most applicable in this study is what is called the 1-1-1 model (Mathieu & Taylor, 2007), so named since all three variables – antecedent, mediator and outcome are at level 1 (incidents) and are nested in level 2 units (individuals)⁸. Such a causal chain is considered a multilevel phenomenon and the relationships at level 2 are examined to understand whether they are different from relationships at level 1 (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Zhang et al., 2009). Such differentiation provides a clearer view of the mediation mechanism at each level of analysis by allowing them to be modeled and evaluated distinctly, instead of

⁸ In two-level designs, variance of variables can be partitioned into two orthogonal latent components, the between cluster (group) component and the within cluster component (Preacher, Zyphur & Zhang (2010). Whereas variables assessed at level 2 only contain between-level variance, variables assessed at level 1 can have *both* between *and* within variance components.

assuming that the between and within cluster relationships and effects are necessarily equivalent across both levels.

Figure 2 summarizes the path model (in its entirety) that was tested in the study. I tested the proposed multilevel mediation hypotheses using Multilevel Structural Equations Modeling (MSEM) using Mplus 7.0 (Muthen & Asparouhov, 2011). The outcome variable, i.e., proportional time allocation to work and family-activity was measured as continuous variables (on a scale of 1 to 100), such that time allocated to work and time allocated to family are merely the inverse of one another. For instance, if a participant allocated 30% of time to work and 70% of time to family-activity, then time allocations to work and family were 30 and 70 respectively. Essentially, time allocation to family was '100 – time allocation to work'. This was the operational choice made about how to capture the decision to invest time. However, in testing the entire model (with all predictors, mediators and time allocation to work-activity), the model fit indices such as χ^2 , CFI and RMSEA values were not generated due to model identification issues.

Consequently, I used two different outcome variables that were measured as part of the daily surveys, in my attempts to test the model. Accordingly, the first set of proposed hypotheses tests use time allocation to work and family activities as continuous outcome variables, as articulated in the formal hypothesis statements. The results of these tests are presented in the main results section. The second set of tests is presented as auxiliary analyses and employs domain/activity prioritization as a dichotomous variable with two categories namely, prioritization of work and prioritization of family⁹.

⁹ I also conducted an additional set of analysis by employing an ordinal outcome variable with three categories (activity prioritized: work, work & family, and family) and found results very similar to the set

Additionally, as part of the auxiliary analysis, I used a Bayesian estimator with non-informative priors to evaluate model convergence and fit. However, I experienced the same issues with model fit in both cases, leading me to choose a bottom-up approach to model building. That is, I tested the proposed hypotheses individually (as discrete models with fewer variables), the results of which are presented below. Indirect effects were computed as the product of two path coefficients and were computed at both the between- and within-individual levels of analysis. All models had acceptable fit statistics in terms of χ^2 (with p values $>.05$), CFI/ TLI ($>.95$), *RMSEA* ($<.05$), and *SRMR* ($<.05$) values.

Using time allocation as (continuous) outcome variable. Mediation was tested by examining a) the relationship between the independent variable and the proposed mediator, b) the relationship between the proposed mediator and the dependent variable, controlling for the independent variable, c) examining the indirect relationship between the independent and dependent variable via the proposed mediator (i.e., the product of the a and b relationships), and d) the direct relationship of the independent and dependent variable, incremental of any indirect effect. Unless explicitly mentioned, random slopes were found to be non-significant and, thus, the analysis was done with fixed slopes being specified.

Role sender pressure as predictors. H1a: Perceived work role pressure → perceived consequences of participation in work-activity → work-activity time allocation. Two categories of perceived consequences were examined as mediators of the

where a binary variable was used. However, the probit coefficient, is less intuitive to understand compared to the logit coefficient. Further, coding as a binary variable allowed results (decision to prioritize activity) to be presented as odds ratios. Such recoding also allows comparison with previous work by Shockley & Allen (2015), who examined decision making by examining the direction of interference reported by participants as a dichotomous choice between WIF and FIW.

relationship between work role pressure and work-activity time allocation: perceived benefits for participation, and perceived sanctions for *non*-participation. These are examined in turn below.

Perceived benefits for participation - Not supported¹⁰. At the within-individual level, as expected, work pressure was positively related to perceived benefits of participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .28, SE = .08, p < .001$). However, perceived benefit of participation in work-activity was not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 1.32, SE = 2.76, p = .63$). There was no direct effect of perceived work pressure on time allocated to the work-activity ($\gamma_c = -1.11, SE = 3.53, p = .65$), controlling for the effects of the mediator. More importantly, there was no indirect effect of perceived work pressure on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .37, SE = .81, p = .65$), counter to Hypothesis 1a.

Although no specific hypotheses were forwarded regarding these relationships at the between-person level, this effect was observed at the between-individual level. That is, individuals experiencing higher levels of work pressure did allocate higher amounts of time to the work-activity, as compared to individuals experiencing lower work pressure. At the between-individual level, work pressure was positively related (marginally significant) to perceived benefits of participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .20, SE = .11, p = .07$). Further, perceived benefit of participation in work-activity was positively related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 12.26, SE = 5.33, p = .02$). However, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work pressure on the work-activity time allocation

¹⁰ Since the hypothesized mediation relationships were at the within individual level, the subtitles indicates support or lack of it at the within individual level. No specific hypotheses were proposed for the between individual level and examination of relationships at that level (both in the main and in auxiliary analyses) is exploratory in nature.

($\gamma_{c'}$ = -6.37, SE = 3.93, p = .11) after controlling for the effects of the mediator and no indirect effect of perceived work role sender pressure on work-activity time allocation (γ_c = 2.47, SE = 1.62, p = .13)

Perceived sanctions for non-participation- Supported. At the within-individual level, as expected, work pressure was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity (γ_a = .45, SE = .089, p < .001). Further, perceived sanctions for non-participation were related to work-activity time allocation (γ_b = 4.36, SE = 2.12, p = .04). There was no direct effect of perceived work pressure on time allocated to the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'}$ = -1.38, SE = 2.76, p = .62) after controlling for the effects of the mediator. There was an indirect effect of perceived work pressure on work-activity time allocation (γ_c = 1.96, SE = 1.02, p = .05)

At the between-individual level, although work pressure was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity (γ_a = .43, SE = .09, p < .001), perceived sanction for non-participation was not related to work-activity time allocation (γ_b = 1.77, SE = 2.71, p = .51). There was a marginally significant direct effect of perceived work pressure on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'}$ = -5.24, SE = 2.84, p = .06) after controlling for the effects of the mediator. However, there was no indirect effect of work pressure on work-activity time allocation (γ_c = .76, SE = 1.14, p = .51)

H1b: Perceived family role pressure → perceived consequences of participation in family-activity → family-activity time allocation.

Perceived benefits for participation- Supported. Hypothesis 1b predicted that perceived benefits of participation in family-activity would mediate the effect of perceived family-role sender pressure on time allocated to the family-activity. At the

within-individual level, as expected, family pressure was positively related to perceived benefits of participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .20$, $SE = .08$, $p = .01$). Perceived benefit of participation in family-activity was related (marginally significant) to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = 4.47$, $SE = 2.55$, $p = .08$). There was no direct effect of perceived family pressure on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 1.76$, $SE = 3.07$, $p = .57$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator, but a marginally significant indirect effect of family pressure on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .90$, $SE = .53$, $p = .09$).

However, this pattern was not observed at the between individual level. At the between individual level, family pressure was not positively related to perceived benefits of participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .17$, $SE = .13$, $p = .21$). Further, perceived benefit of participation in family-activity was not related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -2.73$, $SE = 6.52$, $p = .68$). Further, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family pressure on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 5.31$, $SE = 3.49$, $p = .13$) or indirect effect of family pressure on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -.46$, $SE = 1.24$, $p = .71$).

Perceived sanctions for non-participation- Not supported. Hypothesis 1b also predicted that perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity would mediate the effect of perceived family-role sender pressure on time allocated to the family-activity. At the within-individual level, as expected, family pressure was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .27$, $SE = .09$, $p = .001$). However, perceived sanctions of non-participation were not related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = 3.18$, $SE = 2.28$, $p = .16$). There was no direct effect

of perceived family pressure on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 1.80$, $SE = 3.01$, $p = .55$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator nor indirect effect of family pressure on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .87$, $SE = .63$, $p = .17$)

Additionally, this pattern was not observed at the between individual level. At the between individual level, family pressure was not positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .26$, $SE = .16$, $p = .11$). Perceived sanctions of non-participation were not positively related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -6.10$, $SE = 6.55$, $p = .35$). However, there was a marginally significant direct effect of perceived family pressure on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 6.41$, $SE = 3.94$, $p = .10$) but no indirect effect of family pressure on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -1.59$, $SE = 2.09$, $p = .45$)

H1c: Perceived work role pressure → perceived appropriateness of participation in work-activity → work-activity time allocation. Two categories of perceived appropriateness were examined as mediators of the relationship between work role pressure and work-activity time allocation: perceived appropriateness of role behaviors, and perceived importance of relationship coworker involved in the activity. These are examined in turn below.

Perceived appropriateness of role behaviors - Not supported. Hypothesis 1c predicted that perceived appropriateness of work-role behaviors would mediate the effect of perceived work-role sender pressure on time allocated to the work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work pressure was positively related to concern for importance of relationship with worker ($\gamma_a = .16$, $SE = .07$, $p = .02$). However, contrary to expectations concern for relationship with coworker was not related to work-

activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 1.88, SE = 3.20, p = .56$). There was no direct effect of perceived work pressure on time allocated to the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -1.02, SE = 2.54, p = .69$) after controlling for the effect of the mediator or indirect effect of work pressure on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .31, SE = .57, p = .59$)

At the between individual level, work pressure was positively related to concern for importance of relationship with worker ($\gamma_a = .18, SE = .09, p = .04$). However, concern for relationship with coworker was not positively related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 6.31, SE = 5.85, p = .28$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work pressure on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = -5.14, SE = 4.11, p = .21$), controlling for the effect of the mediator or indirect effect of work pressure on time allocation to work-activity ($\gamma_c = 1.17, SE = 1.22, p = .34$).

Perceived importance of relationship with co-worker- Supported. Hypothesis 1c also predicted that perceived importance of relationship with co-worker would mediate the effect of perceived work pressure on work-activity time allocation. As expected, at the within-individual level, work pressure was positively related to concern for importance of relationship with worker ($\gamma_a = .42, SE = .08, p < .001$). Further, as expected concern for relationship with coworker was positively related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 4.02, SE = 1.62, p = .01$). There was no direct effect of perceived work pressure on time allocated to the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -2.37, SE = 2.53, p = .35$) but an indirect effect of work pressure on time activity allocation ($\gamma_c = 1.67, SE = .67, p = .01$).

However, this pattern was not observed at the between individual level. I.e., individuals normally experiencing higher levels of work pressure did not necessarily allocate higher amounts of time to the work-activity. At the between individual level,

work pressure was not positively related to concern for importance of relationship with worker ($\gamma_a = .18, SE = .18, p = .31$). Further, concern for relationship with coworker was not positively related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = .01, SE = 4.52, p = .99$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work pressure on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = -3.88, SE = 4.08, p = .34$) after controlling for the effects of mediating variable or indirect effect of work pressure on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .01, SE = .82, p = .99$).

H1d: Perceived family role pressure → perceived appropriateness of participation in family-activity → family-activity time allocation. Two categories of perceived appropriateness were examined as mediators of the relationship between family role pressure and family-activity time allocation: perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors, and perceived importance of relationship with family member. These are examined in turn below

Perceived appropriateness of role behaviors – Not supported. Hypothesis 1d predicted that perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors would mediate the effect of perceived family-role sender pressure on time allocated to the family-activity. Contrary to expectation, at the within-individual level, family pressure was not related to perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors ($\gamma_a = .13, SE = .08, p = .12$). Further, perceived need to comply with family-role behaviors was not related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = .94, SE = 3.31, p = .78$). Additionally, there was no direct effect of perceived family pressure on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 2.52, SE = 3.02, p = .40$) after controlling for the effect of the mediating variable. There was no

indirect effect of family pressure on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .12, SE = .42, p = .77$).

At the between individual level, family pressure was not positively related to perceived need to comply with family-role behaviors ($\gamma_a = .08, SE = .11, p = .48$). Further, perceived need to comply with family-role behaviors was not positively related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -4.24, SE = 6.35, p = .51$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family pressure on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 5.29, SE = 3.51, p = .13$), controlling for the effect of the mediator or indirect effect of family pressure on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -.34, SE = .72, p = .64$).

Perceived importance of relationship with family member- Supported.

Hypothesis 1d also predicted that perceived importance of relationship with family member mediates the effect of perceived family pressure on time allocated to family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family pressure was (marginally significantly) related to concern for importance of relationship with family member ($\gamma_a = .13, SE = .08, p = .08$). Further, as expected, concern for relationship with family member was positively related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = 7.43, SE = 3.11, p = .02$). There was no direct effect of perceived family pressure on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 1.65, SE = 2.87, p = .56$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator but a marginally significant indirect effect of family pressure on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .97, SE = .52, p = .06$).

At the between individual level, family pressure was not positively related to concern for importance of relationship with family member ($\gamma_a = .03, SE = .13, p = .85$).

Further, concern for relationship with family member was (marginally significantly) related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -10.33$, $SE = 5.52$, $p = .06$). Finally, there was no direct effect of perceived family pressure on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 5.36$, $SE = 3.65$, $p = .14$) after controlling for the effects of mediating variable and no indirect effect of family pressure on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -.26$, $SE = 1.36$, $p = .85$).

Work and family support as predictors. The tests of mediation hypotheses relating to work and family support as predictors are described below.

H2a: Perceived social support at work → perceived appropriateness of family behaviors → family-activity time allocation - Not supported. Hypothesis 2a predicted that perceived appropriateness of family behaviors would mediate the effect of perceived social support at work on time allocated to the family-activity. At the within-individual level, contrary to expected, perceived social support was not positively related to perceived appropriateness of family behaviors ($\gamma_a = .09$, $SE = .06$, $p = .15$). Further, perceived appropriateness of family behaviors was not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = .98$, $SE = 3.17$, $p = .76$). There was no direct effect of perceived social support at work on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 3.17$, $SE = 2.43$, $p = .19$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator or indirect effect of social support at work on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .09$, $SE = .31$, $p = .77$).

This effect was not observed at the between individual level either. At the between individual level, social support at work was not related to perceived appropriateness of family behaviors ($\gamma_a = .12$, $SE = .09$, $p = .19$). Further, perceived benefit of participation in work-activity was not related to work-activity time allocation

($\gamma_b = -.89$, $SE = 7.28$, $p = .90$). There was no significant direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = -3.20$, $SE = 3.15$, $p = .31$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator or indirect effect of perceived work social support on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -.11$, $SE = .88$, $p = .90$).

H2b: Perceived social support from family → perceived appropriateness of work behaviors → work-activity time allocation- Not supported. Hypothesis 2b predicted that perceived appropriateness of work behaviors would mediate the effect of perceived social support from family on time allocated to the work-activity. At the within-individual level, contrary to expected, perceived social support was not related to perceived appropriateness of work behaviors ($\gamma_a = .09$, $SE = .08$, $p = .18$). Further, perceived appropriateness of work behaviors was not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = .87$, $SE = 3.31$, $p = .79$). There was no direct effect of perceived family social support at on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 2.85$, $SE = 2.61$, $p = .27$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator or indirect effect of family social support on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .09$, $SE = .34$, $p = .80$).

At the between individual level, social support from family was not positively related to perceived appropriateness of family behaviors ($\gamma_a = .06$, $SE = .08$, $p = .44$). Perceived benefit of participation in work-activity was not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 3.28$, $SE = 5.6$, $p = .56$). Further, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family social support on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = .66$, $SE = 2.11$, $p = .75$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator or indirect effect of family social support on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .21$, $SE = .43$, $p = .63$).

H2c: Perceived instrumental support at work → perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity → family-activity time allocation - Not supported.

Hypothesis 2c predicted that perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity would mediate the effect of perceived instrumental support at work on time allocated to the family-activity. At the within-individual level, contrary to expectation, instrumental support at work was not related to perceived sanctions for non-participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .09, SE = .10, p = .35$) and perceived sanctions for non-participation in family-activity was not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 3.19, SE = 2.19, p = .15$). However, there was a direct effect of perceived instrumental support at work on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 5.06, SE = 2.22, p = .02$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator. There was no indirect effect of work instrumental support on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .29, SE = .37, p = .43$).

At the between individual level, instrumental support at work was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .20, SE = .10, p = .05$) but perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity were not positively related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.27, SE = 6.6, p = .97$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work instrumental support on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = -4.42, SE = 3.24, p = .17$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator. In addition, there was no indirect effect of work instrumental support on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -.05, SE = 1.29, p = .97$).

H2d: Perceived instrumental support from family → perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity → work-activity time allocation - Not supported.

Hypothesis 2d predicted that perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity

would mediate the effect of perceived instrumental support from family on time allocated to the work-activity. At the within-individual level, contrary to expectation, instrumental support from family was not related to perceived sanctions for non-participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .15, SE = .10, p = .11$) and perceived sanctions for non-participation in work-activity were not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 2.69, SE = 1.85, p = .15$). Further, there was no direct effect of perceived instrumental support from on time allocated to the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 2.39, SE = 1.76, p = .18$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator and there was no indirect effect of perceived family instrumental support on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .39, SE = .36, p = .28$).

This effect was not observed at the between individual level, i.e., individuals normally experiencing higher levels of work instrumental support did not allocate higher amounts of time to the work-activity. At the between individual level, family instrumental support was not related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .01, SE = .13, p = .98$) and perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity were not positively related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = -.58, SE = 4.56, p = .90$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work instrumental support on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 3.9, SE = 2.44, p = .12$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator and there was no indirect effect of work instrumental support on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -.01, SE = .07, p = .98$).

Activity importance as predictor. Similar to hypotheses 1a through 1d, two categories of perceived consequences were examined as mediators of the relationship between activity importance and activity time allocation: perceived benefits for participation, and perceived sanctions for *non*-participation. Further, two categories of

perceived appropriateness were also examined as mediators: perceived appropriateness of role behaviors and perceived importance of relationship with individual involved in activity.

H3a: Perceived work-activity importance → perceived consequences of participation → work-activity time allocation. The two mediators or relationship between work-activity importance and work-activity time allocation are examined in turn below.

Perceived benefits of participation – Not supported. Hypothesis 3a predicted that perceived benefit of participation in work-activity would mediate the effect of perceived work-activity importance on time allocated to the work-activity. At the within-individual level, as expected, work-activity importance was positively related to perceived benefits of participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .68, SE = .10, p < .001$). However, perceived benefit of participation in work-activity was not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = -.13, SE = 3.09, p = .97$). There was no direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on time allocated to the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 2.89, SE = 3.47, p = .40$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator and no indirect effect of activity importance on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -.09, SE = 2.10, p = .97$).

At the between individual level, work-activity importance was positively related (marginally significant) to perceived benefits of participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .74, SE = .16, p < .001$). Further, perceived benefit of participation in work-activity was positively related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 8.87, SE = 7.63, p = .25$). However, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = -1.50, SE = 8.67, p = .86$), after controlling for the

effects of the mediator and no indirect effect of activity importance on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = 6.52, SE = 5.46, p = .23$).

Perceived sanctions of non-participation- Not supported. Hypothesis 3a also predicted that perceived sanctions for non-participation in work-activity would mediate the effect of perceived work-activity importance on time allocated to the work-activity. At the within-individual level, as expected, work-activity importance was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .87, SE = .13, p < .001$). However, perceived sanctions for non-participation was not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 3.05, SE = 2.34, p = .19$). There was no direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on time allocated to the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .07, SE = 4.35, p = .99$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator and no indirect effect of activity importance on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = 2.68, SE = 2.07, p = .20$).

At the between individual level, work-activity importance was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .69, SE = .24, p = .005$). Perceived sanctions of non-participation were not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = -3.18, SE = 5.65, p = .57$). There was no significant direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 7.48, SE = 7.54, p = .32$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator and no indirect effect of work-activity importance on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -2.19, SE = 4.12, p = .60$).

H3b: Perceived family-activity importance → perceived consequences of participation → family-activity time allocation.

Perceived benefits of participation- Not supported. Hypothesis 3b predicted that perceived benefits of participation in family-activity would mediate the effect of

perceived family-role sender pressure on time allocated to the family-activity. At the within-individual level, as expected, family-activity importance was positively related to perceived benefits of participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .76, SE = .09, p < .001$). Perceived benefit of participation in family-activity was related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = 2.09, SE = 2.68, p = .44$). There was no direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 5.35, SE = 4.96, p = .28$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator and no indirect effect of perceived family-activity importance on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_c = 1.59, SE = 2.09, p = .45$).

At the between individual level, family-activity importance was related to perceived benefits of participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .81, SE = .15, p < .001$). However, perceived benefit of participation in family-activity was not related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = 17.21, SE = 15.16, p = .29$). Further, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = -19.21, SE = 15.38, p = .21$) after controlling for effects of mediator and no indirect effect of perceived family-activity importance on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = 13.12, SE = 13.12, p = .32$).

Perceived sanctions of non-participation- Not supported. Hypothesis 3b also predicted that perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity would mediate the effect of perceived family-role sender pressure on time allocated to the family-activity. At the within-individual level, as expected, family-activity importance was positively related to perceived sanctions for non-participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .70, SE = .10, p < .001$). However, perceived sanctions for non-participation was not related to

the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = 1.69, SE = 2.06, p = .41$). There was no direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 5.53, SE = 4.34, p = .20$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator or indirect effect of family-activity importance on activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = 1.19, SE = 1.46, p = .41$).

At the between individual level, family-activity importance was related to perceived sanctions for non-participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .62, SE = .23, p = .004$). However, perceived sanctions of non-participation were not related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = .77, SE = 7.59, p = .92$). Further, there was no direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = -5.49, SE = 8.56, p = .52$) controlling for the effects of the mediator or indirect effect of family-activity importance on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .48, SE = 4.80, p = .92$).

H3c: Work-activity importance → perceived appropriateness of participation → work-activity time allocation. Two categories of perceived appropriateness were examined as mediators of the relationship between work role pressure and work-activity time allocation: perceived appropriateness of role behaviors, and perceived importance of relationship with co-worker involved in the activity. These are examined in turn below.

Perceived appropriateness of role behaviors – Not supported. Hypothesis 3c predicted that perceived importance of relationship with co-worker would mediate the effect of perceived work pressure on time allocated to the work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work-activity importance was positively related to concern for importance of relationship with worker ($\gamma_a = .52, SE = .09, p < .001$). Further, as

expected, concern for relationship with coworker was positively related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = .42, SE = 3.65, p = .91$). There was no direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on time allocated to the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -2.37, SE = 3.88, p = .54$) and no indirect effect of perceived appropriateness of behaviors on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -.22, SE = 1.91, p = .91$).

At the between individual level, work-activity importance was not positively related to concern for importance of relationship with worker ($\gamma_a = .74, SE = .16, p < .001$). Further, concern for relationship with coworker was not positively related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = -.74, SE = 8.29, p = .93$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 6.17, SE = 9.93, p = .53$) after controlling for the effects of mediating variable and no indirect effect of perceived appropriateness of behaviors on time allocation to activity ($\gamma_c = -.54, SE = 6.11, p = .93$).

Perceived importance of relationship with coworker- Supported. Hypothesis 3c also predicted that perceived need to comply with work-role behaviors would mediate the effect of perceived work-role sender pressure on time allocated to the work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work-activity importance was positively related to concern for importance of relationship with worker ($\gamma_a = .58, SE = .14, p < .001$). However, as expected, concern for relationship with coworker was (marginally significantly) related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = 3.16, SE = 1.71, p = .07$). There was no direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on time allocated to the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -1.07, SE = 3.59, p = .76$) after controlling for the effect of the

mediator and a marginally significant indirect effect of work-activity importance on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = 1.82, SE = .96, p = .06$).

However, this pattern was not observed at the between individual level. At the between individual level, work-activity importance was not related to concern for importance of relationship with worker ($\gamma_a = -.12, SE = .32, p = .72$). Further, concern for relationship with coworker was not related to work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_b = -.81, SE = 4.67, p = .86$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = 4.63, SE = 6.77, p = .50$) and no indirect effect of activity importance on work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = .09, SE = .56, p = .87$).

H3d: Perceived family-activity importance → perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → family-activity time allocation.

Perceived appropriateness of role behaviors- Partially supported. Hypothesis 3d also predicted that perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors would mediate the effect of perceived family-role sender pressure on time allocated to the family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family-activity importance was related to perceived need to comply with family-role behaviors ($\gamma_a = .58, SE = .11, p < .001$). However, perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors was not related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -2.57, SE = 2.18, p = .36$). There was a direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 8.27, SE = 4.11, p = .04$) after controlling for the effect of the mediating variable and indirect effect of perceived family-activity importance on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -1.48, SE = 1.58, p = .35$).

At the between individual level, family-activity importance was related to perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors ($\gamma_a = 50, SE = .17, p = .004$). However, perceived need to comply with family-role behaviors was not positively related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = 2.91, SE = 8.17, p = .72$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_{c'} = -6.83, SE = 8.43, p = .42$) controlling for the effect of the mediating variable and no indirect effect of perceived family-activity importance on the work-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = 1.47, SE = 4.19, p = .73$).

Perceived importance of relationship with family member – Partially supported.

Hypothesis 3d predicted that perceived importance of relationship with family member would mediate the effect of perceived family role sender pressure on time allocated to the family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family-activity importance was positively related to perceived importance of relationship with family member ($\gamma_a = .55, SE = .10, p < .001$). Further, as expected, concern for relationship with family member was marginally significantly related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = 5.99, SE = 3.74, p = .10$). There was no direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = 13.37, SE = 5.11, p = .51$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator or indirect effect of activity importance on family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = 3.31, SE = 2.19, p = .13$).

At the between individual level, family-activity importance was related to perceived importance of relationship with family member ($\gamma_a = .54, SE = .22, p = .01$). However, perceived importance of relationship with family member was not related to the time allocated to the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -9.13, SE = 6.39, p = .14$). Finally, there

was no significant direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c' = .27, SE = 7.31, p = .97$) after controlling for the effects of mediating variable and no indirect effect of perceived family-activity importance on the family-activity time allocation ($\gamma_c = -4.89, SE = 3.29, p = .14$).

Test of moderation hypotheses: Activity Importance X Role Centrality →

Time allocated to work/family activity – Partially supported. Hypotheses 4 stated that activity importance and role salience interact to influence time allocated to activity. In testing the interactive effect of work activity importance and family centrality on time allocated to work activity, I found that importance of the work activities was negatively related to participants' time allocation to the work activity ($\gamma_{10} = -377.75, SE = 1.40, p < .001$). Further, family centrality was related to time allocated on the work activity ($\gamma_{01} = 19.72, SE = 3.96, p < .001$). However, family centrality and work activity importance did not interact to influence time allocation to work activity ($\gamma_{11} = -.47, SE = .97, p = .63$).

In testing the interactive effect of family activity importance and work centrality on time allocated to the family activity, I found that participants' time allocation to family activities was related to the importance of family activities ($\gamma_{10} = 49.18, SE = 17.50, p < .001$). However, time allocated to family activity was not related to work centrality ($\gamma_{01} = .52, SE = 3.14, p = .87$). Further, family centrality and importance of work activities did not interact to influence the time allocated to family activity ($\gamma_{11} = -2.89, SE = 4.96, p = .56$). Thus, although some main effects are significant, there is no evidence to suggest that interaction between activity importance and centrality/ role salience influences the time allocated to the activity, which is perceived to be important and may be associated with significant near-term consequences.

In summary, some of the mediation hypotheses were supported and the moderation hypotheses were partially supported. Further, where mediating relationships were found, they were supported at the within-individual level. However, few of the exploratory relationships were supported, highlighting the possibility that relationships between variables differ across levels. Consequently, the relationships that were proposed and examined at the within individual level may not necessarily be the same as relationships among variables at the between-individual level. Additionally, perceived consequences of participation or non-participation served as an intervening variable between role pressure and time allocated to activity in a few cases, while there was no evidence to support perceived appropriateness as a mediator between the various predictors and domain activity time allocation.

Auxiliary analysis

Traditionally, measures of work-family conflict have measured work-family conflict by measuring interference that is experienced as a result of prioritizing one domain (work or family) over the other in order to resolve conflicts from competing demands. The issues that plague such instruments such as retrospective recall and levels responses have been discussed in a previous chapter. To overcome the problem inherent in having participants retrospectively report the directionality and magnitude of conflict experiences, I posed two questions to participants. The first question asked participants to report which activity they prioritized when faced with a conflict between work and family activities. The response choices were a) work b) family c) both work and family, and d) neither. The other item asked participants to note the amount of time they spent of each of the activities in resolving the conflict, based on the rationale that an activity that

is prioritized will receive greater allocation of time in resolving the conflict.

In the process of cleaning data, I noted that participants were inconsistent in reporting the amount of time they indicated as having allocated to the activity they prioritized. There was some evidence to suggest that not all participants were taking the same timeframe (i.e., the time associated with resolving the conflict) into consideration, when reporting time allocation. For instance, one participant indicated that they prioritized work when faced with a conflict of having to take care of the child and rushing off to work in order to attend a prescheduled meeting. However, they also indicated that they spent 60% of time on family-activity. Of the 121 incidents that indicated prioritizing work in order to resolve the conflict, I noted that 39 incidents had time allocation for family exceeding the time allocated to work (*mean*=13.15, *sd*= 13.27, *median* =11, *range*=40). I noted discrepancies of this nature even in instances where participants indicated prioritizing work and family (38 of 73 incidents indicated prioritizing family, wherein 39 allocated more time to work than to family with average time allocation to work being 80.38¹¹) and family. Many other such instances even in the set of incidents where family was prioritized led me to question the time-frame participants were taking into consideration when responding to the second question on how much time they had allocated to each activity when resolving the conflict.

Although participants experience a conflict and resolve it in a particular manner, they may end up spending more time on the activity that was de-prioritized at the time the conflict was experienced, in order to compensate for what may be experienced as falling short of expectations (their own, and/or those of the role sender). In responding to the

¹¹ Among those who prioritized family, but reported discrepant time allocation, the time allocation statistics were as follows: *mean*=80.38, *sd*=17.15, *median*=80, *range*=49.

question of time allocation, it appears that many participants interpreted the timeframe somewhat ambiguously and considered the entire day when reporting the time they allocated to work and family activities. Consequently, a participant who reported prioritizing work at the time of conflict could still have ended up spending more time on family compared to work and thus, as an outcome variable, the time allocated was less reliable and less valid leading me to consider using the other outcome variable – domain prioritized to resolve work-family conflict situation.

As noted earlier, the prioritized domain has generally been treated as a dichotomous variable in work-family research. However, I provided participants four options in response to this question: a) work, b) family, c) both work and family, and d) neither work nor family. About 42% of incidents were resolved by prioritizing the work-activity, 26% prioritized family, and 31% prioritized both work and family. About 2% incidents noted prioritizing neither work nor family. The fact that more than 30% of incidents reported prioritized both family and work simultaneously led me to think of prioritization as an ordinal variable where the prioritization of work or family domains increase from one end to the other while prioritization of the other domain decreases at the same rate. There may be various situational conditions that facilitate such simultaneous prioritizations. For example, option for remote or flexible working would allow individuals to balance demands of family and work. The categories within this variable are work, both work and family, and family. These categories can be ordered as high work, medium and low work prioritization or conversely as low family, medium, and high family prioritization categories. Despite such ordering being possible, the spacing between the values is not necessarily the same across the levels of the variables,

allowing the conceptualization of prioritized activity as an ordinal variable.

I tested the proposed model using Bayesian estimation methods, first with prioritized activity as a dichotomous outcome variable consisting of the choice of work *or* family prioritization¹², and subsequently with prioritized activity as a three-level ordinal outcome variable consisting of the choice between work, work *and* family, or family (not included in the discussion). The choice of Bayesian methods was driven by considerations of the non-normality of outcome variable and small sample size, either of which on their own can pose challenges for more traditional frequentist analyses, much less in combination. Bayesian estimation methods can provide numerous advantages in dealing with such issues, as elaborated in the following section. Given the relative novelty of Bayesian methods in IO/OB research (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015), I will provide a brief primer on Bayesian methods. The primer will focus on a) contrasting Bayesian and frequentist estimation methods, b) elaborating key elements of Bayesian analysis, and c) reviewing two important ways of evaluating Bayesian models. This will be followed by a discussion of the hypotheses tests using prioritized activity as dichotomous outcome variable. I conclude the results section with a brief comparison of results obtained from analysis using time allocation and activity prioritization as outcome variables.

Robust methods in multilevel modeling. Robust methods refer to statistical procedures for estimating and establishing confidence intervals that are not very sensitive to violation of assumptions of the underlying statistical methodology (Tabachnick &

¹² In coding the prioritized activity as dichotomous (and ordinal) variable, I discarded data points where participants indicated that neither work nor family was prioritized. Work was coded as 1 while family was coded as 0. Joint prioritization of work and family was coded 1 based on the rationale that such prioritization encompassed a prioritization of the work-activity.

Fidell, 2012). In general, violations of assumptions threaten validity of statistical conclusions that may be drawn from the analysis. Research suggests three key approaches when assumptions underlying multi-level structural equation models have been violated. They are: a) robust standard errors, b) bootstrapping, and c) Bayesian estimation (Hox & de Schoot, 2013). Multilevel modeling shares most assumptions of linear structural equations modeling such as adequate sample size, linear relationships, absence of multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Apart from this, multilevel modeling (and multilevel structural equations modeling- MSEM) includes specific forms of dependence.

Hox and de Schoot (2013) observe that the topic of diagnosing violations of assumptions in MSEM has hitherto received relatively little research attention. Apart from assumptions of multivariate normality that is inherent in multilevel models, the complexity of multilevel structural equation models (MSEM) makes for additional complications. While non-normality is a challenge in structural equation modeling due to cumbersome diagnostic procedures for assessing the effect of non-normality of outliers, the situation is made particularly complex in the case of MSEM since violations of assumptions or misspecifications of the model at one level may propagate into the other level

Maximum likelihood vs. Bayesian methods. In general, multilevel modeling requires that the sample size is adequate – and this requirement is critical at the highest level, where the sample size is the smallest (Hox & de Schoot, 2013). Although the use of robust standard errors can lead to more accurate significance tests, small sample sizes can reduce their effectiveness in correcting for non-normality of data. Accurate variance

estimates and standard errors, especially with maximum likelihood estimation, necessitates sample sizes of at least 100 groups at the highest level, for greater accuracy of variance estimates and less sensitivity to violations of assumptions of normality (Hox et al., 2012; Mass & Hox, 2004). When the sample sizes are smaller, Bayesian estimation is likely to perform better (Hox & de Schoot, 2013; Timmerman et al., 2009).

An additional assumption that applies in the case of multilevel modeling is model specification. Accurate estimation of parameter variances depends on correct model specification. Violations of these assumptions are especially consequential since model misspecification could lead to parameter estimates that are biased and incorrectly estimated variability (Hox & De Schoot, 2013). Research on comparison of Bayesian and maximum likelihood estimation (e.g., Stegmueller, 2011; Hox, de Schoot, & Matthijesse, 2012) indicates that Bayesian estimation works better with smaller samples than does maximum likelihood estimation. Bayesian estimation can produce parameter estimates that are permissible and can work better with small samples than asymptotic maximum likelihood estimation. Given the complexity of the proposed model and number of parameters involved, adopting a Bayesian estimation approach provides some leeway in working with relatively smaller sample sizes and potential model misspecifications (Hox & de Schoot, 2013; Zyphur & Oswald, 2015).

Bootstrapping vs. Bayesian methods. Unlike with the case of maximum likelihood estimation and robust standard errors, the bootstrap method (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993) estimates model parameters without referencing a theoretical sampling distribution, but the estimates of expected values are drawn from the empirical sampling distribution (Hox & de Schoot, 2013). In general, increasing the number of bootstrap

samples reduces the amount of random error generated by the boot strap procedure, although it does not increase the information that is available in the original sample. However, using boot strap estimation requires that certain assumptions are satisfied, chief among which is that the resampling scheme used in the bootstrap reflects the actual sampling (multi-level) mechanism used to collect the data. In the case of multilevel modeling, this assumption means that the hierarchical sampling mechanism should be simulated correctly in the bootstrapping procedure. Since cluster sizes are not equal in this sample, boot strapping changes the incident level (level 1) sample size. Bootstrapping incidents is problematic because it leads to varying number of incidents and changes the within-individual correlation structures (Timmerman et al., 2009). In MSEM, with a complex model and multiple dependent variables, this option becomes unwieldy. Additionally, since residuals are generated from their theoretical distributions rather than resampled, parametric bootstrapping cannot address the issue of non-normal distributions. Finally, a potential case for use of boot strapping method in this study is hindered by the smaller sample size. Since boot strapping uses observed data as the sole source of information about the population, a sample size of more than 150 is recommended (Nevitt & Hancock, 2001). Given the logistical, time and budgetary issues experienced with data collection in daily-diary methodology used in the present research, including the considerable efforts undertaken to maximize sample size, further increasing the sample size was not feasible and hence Bayesian methods were employed.

These challenges associated with bootstrapping makes Bayesian estimation a preferable option when the models become more complex and other complications such as non-normality exist. To sum up, relative to the methods discussed, Bayesian

estimation offers the following advantages: a) the ability to use with smaller sample sizes, b) ability to use prior information, c) allowing estimation of individual- specific parameters while accounting for the uncertainty, d) non-reliance on asymptotic inference, and e) use of Monte Carlo Markov Chains which bypass the need for more complex computation to implement maximum likelihood methods on multilevel data (Hox & de Schoot, 2013; Zyphur & Oswald, 2015).

A brief primer on Bayesian estimation methods. Although Bayesian methods have had a long tradition in other disciplines such as physics, biomedicine, and economics, their use in organizational research is relatively new and infrequent (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). As such, this section provides a brief overview of Bayesian methods, and therefore a foundation for the analyses that follow. In an organizational researcher's guide to Bayesian methods, Zyphur and Oswald (2013) contrast Bayesian and more commonly employed frequentist methods. Bayesian methods allow researchers to directly answer questions about "*research relevant parameters* and models by focusing on the probability, "associated with degrees of belief or degrees of knowledge,"(Zyphur & Oswald, 2015, p392) of a set of parameters, hypotheses, or statistical models, *given the observed data*". In contrast, frequentist estimation and inference use null hypothesis significance testing (NHST) to answer the "inverse" type of question: "What is the probability of the data *given* what are often *research-irrelevant parameters* specified by the null hypothesis?" (Berger & Selke, 1987 as cited in Zyphur & Oswald, 2013, p6). Bayesian probability refers directly to the parameter β and observed data in y are treated as fixed. In contrast, frequentists treat the data (in the form of a sampling distribution) as uncertain, while treating parameters as having fixed population values (Zyphur &

Oswald, 2013). Further, Bayesian techniques focus on whether or not parameters and models are sensible for a set of data, in contrast to frequentist approaches, which focus on whether a correct model has been specified, or whether a null model has been rejected (Howson & Urbach, 2006).

Bayesian methods offer several benefits, key among which are: a) capability to work with smaller samples, given the ability to use prior information in estimation, b) combining old information with new data leading to automatic meta-analyses, and c) ability to handle model complexity (with multilevel, multisource, and longitudinal data) in estimating models (Zyphur & Oswald, 2013).

Bayesian analysis. Bayes' rule can be stated as $P(\theta|z) \propto P(z|\theta)P(\theta)$. It estimates $P(\theta|z)$, the probability of parameters in θ , given observed data in z (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). Bayes' rule offers a way to update initial hypotheses with data by combining initial information about parameters prior to a study being conducted, with the probability of observed data given the parameters (Howson & Urbach, 1993). Results of Bayesian analysis are called posterior probabilities of parameters given the data, $P(\theta|z)$, and are proportional to the probability of the data as informed by the parameters (Howson & Urbach, 1993). This is the likelihood, $P(z|\theta)$, multiplied (i.e., weighted) by the prior probability of the parameters, $P(\theta)$, where prior probabilities are the probability of parameters before any data are collected. Posterior probabilities indicate how probable all parameter values are in θ , given the data (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). These posterior probabilities are proportional to two pieces of information: (a) the prior probability distribution $P(\theta)$, which is the probability of all parameters before any data being collected, and (b) the probability of data given the range of possible parameters $P(z|\theta)$, or

the likelihood, the information that observed data contribute during estimation (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015).

Prior distributions can be of different types. In general, they may be (a) informative priors based on previous research findings and/or theoretical predictions, (b) empirical priors, where prior distributions are estimated from the data set itself, or (c) diffuse, non-informative, or uninformative priors based on no prior knowledge or belief, or a desire (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). Diffuse priors may be used to eliminate the influence of a prior distribution during estimation (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). Although the potential to utilize informative priors represents one of the more salient benefits of Bayesian methods, there are several situations that may prompt the use of uninformative priors (Zyphur & Oswald, 2013). First, when a study is exploratory, there may be little to no prior knowledge that can be used for estimation. Second, prior knowledge may be diffuse because of contradictory findings or competing theories, leading to prior distributions that are also diffuse. Third, researchers may decide to eliminate the importance of priors in the estimation process to rely as much as possible on the likelihood (i.e., rely primarily on the data). In this study, given limited prior knowledge on antecedents of and mediating mechanisms in episodic decision making, I wanted to rely as much as possible on the data and eliminate importance to priors.

The most common method for Bayesian estimation involves Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) estimation (Gelman et al., 2004). MCMC is an iterative process, where a prior distribution is specified, and posterior values for each parameter are estimated over many iterations (Gelman et al., 2004). These parameter estimates are thought to form a “chain” (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). Posterior values are estimated to build up and define

the posterior distribution. MCMC is carried out from at least two starting points (i.e., at least two “chains”) to ensure the convergence of the iteration process on a stable estimate of posteriors. Convergence can be evaluated by calculating the potential scale reduction (PSR; Asparouhov & Muthén, 2010). *PSR* can be defined as the ratio of total variance across chains to the pooled variance within chain (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). Once PSR values are < 1.05 , it means that there is very little variance between chains when compared to within-chain variance (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). At such a point, different iterative processes yield comparable results and consequently estimation is stopped (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015).

Evaluating Bayesian models. Bayesian methods utilize what are called credible or credibility interval (Gelman et al., 2004) to make inferences about parameter estimates. In contrast to traditional confidence intervals, credibility intervals specify the range of parameter estimates that capture 95% or 99% of the posterior probability distribution (Gelman et al., 2004, Zyphur & Zhang, 2015). Credibility intervals are based on the idea of an infinite number of study replications without directly referencing the probability of the null (B. Muthén, 2010). A Bayesian p value is reported by considering the peak of the posterior distribution as the Bayesian estimate of a parameter and reporting the proportion of the distribution that exists on the other side of a null value (B. Muthén, 2010).

Another method of making Bayesian inferences involves posterior predictive checking (B. Muthén, 2010; B. Muthén & Asparouhov, 2012), which answers the question, “Do the estimated parameters in the model produce data that look like the observed data?” This is done by evaluating an entire model or by comparing different

models. Posterior predictive checking is based on that idea that there should be little discrepancy between the data generated by the model and the actual data (B. Muthén & Asparouhov, 2012). In this manner, posterior predictive checking assesses fit by checking the “specification quality of the model from the view point of predictive accuracy” (Kaplan & Depaoli, 2013, p654).

Deviation between model generated data and the actual data are generally due to potential model misspecification. Bayesian ‘ p ’ values quantify model fit in the context of posterior predictive checking (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015). In essence, the ‘ p ’ value measures the proportion of the test statistics in the replicated data that exceed that of the actual data (Kaplan & Depaoli, 2013). Posterior predictive values of $< .05$ are unacceptable, as this indicates that the observed data fit better than the generated data less than 5% of the time and, thus, calls for model re-specification (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015).

Mediation involving categorical variables. Analysis of mediation comprises two parts and represents relationships between three variables. The first part (represented by the coefficient a), is the relation between the independent variable and mediator, and the second part represents the relation of the mediator with the outcome variable (represented by coefficient b). The indirect/mediation effect is represented by ab , the product of a and b . c' represents the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Mediation analysis is straightforward in the case of continuous measures since both the paths are in the same metric and procedure uses maximum likelihood estimation or ordinary least squares regression (MacKinnon & Cox, 2012). This means that the coefficient measures change in a dependent variable for unit change in the independent variable. For example, a represents change in the mediator for unit change in the

independent variable. Consequently, the mediated effect, i.e., represented by ab , and the difference of c and c' are algebraically equivalent (MacKinnon, Warsi, and Dwyer, 1995).

In the case of categorical models, however, such as with logistic regression, although it is conceptually simpler to understand the outcome as ordinal, the computational treatment of ordinal outcomes in mediation has not really been addressed in the literature (Muthen & Muthen, n.d.; MacKinnon, 2005). Importantly, the equivalency between ab and $c-c'$ does not hold due to an essential scaling issue. For instance, in the case of logistic regression, the error variance is fixed at $\pi^2/3$ for any logistic regression equation. MacKinnon and Dwyer (1993) noted that due to such fixing of the error term, the regression coefficients across equations, such as c and c' , cannot be directly compared. This is because the c' coefficient measures not just the change in the relation of x and y after adjustment for x , it includes an adjustment to keep the error variance fixed to $\pi^2/3$ (MacKinnon & Cox, 2012).

Two methods have been suggested for handling mediation involving categorical and continuous variables (as either mediators or outcome variables). Of these, the current method of choice involves the use of structural equation modeling wherein the categorical variable is modeled as an indicator of the underlying continuous variable y^* (MacKinnon & Cox, 2012; MacKinnon et al., 2007). The categorical variable is modeled by dichotomization of the values at a threshold on the y^* latent variable and a model relates the observed categorical measure to the latent measure and relations between the two are estimated by the Mplus program (MacKinnon & Cox, 2012).

Testing mediation hypotheses with dichotomous outcome variable. I tested indirect effects of perceived role pressure, support and activity importance on prioritized activity at the within and between individual levels. However, in testing the whole model, fit parameters in terms of posterior predictive p-value (ppp) remained $< .001$. Posterior predictive values of $< .05$ are unacceptable, as this indicates that the observed data fit better than the generated data less than 5% of the time and, means that model re-specification is required. Consequently, I adopted a similar approach as in the case of continuous outcome variable and tested the hypotheses individually.

Mplus uses probit regression when Bayesian estimation is employed and models with the underlying continuous variable rather than the observed categorical variable (Muthen, 2012). However, probit regression coefficients are less intuitive to understand and interpret compared to logit coefficients (MacKinnon, 2005)¹³. To ease interpretation with a binary outcome, I converted the unstandardized probit coefficients (obtained in the Mplus output) to logit coefficients (using formula $\text{logit coefficient} \sim \text{probit coefficient} \times 1.81$; Muthen, 2009) and then converted the logit coefficients to odds ratios (using formula $\text{Odds Ratio} = e^{\text{logit}}$).

In the following section, I will discuss results of the Bayesian hypotheses tests. In all models, positive and negative affect were used as control variables at the within-individual level while gender, age, weekly working hours, and organizational tenure were controlled at the between individual level. Given the association with work-family

¹³ In conducting this set of auxiliary analysis, I tested the models using categorical variables with a) two levels (work and family) and b) three levels (prioritized activity: work, work and family, and family). The results were comparable in both sets of analysis. However, in this section I will discuss only the results from the analysis with binary categorical variable.
Reference for MacKinnon (2004) from Mplus user forum in responding to a post about interpreting coefficients

conflict, including control variables was theoretically motivated and intended to exclude alternative explanations when testing hypotheses with explanatory variables. When control variables were found to be statistically non-significant, the model was run without them to improve fit and achieve a more parsimonious model. Alternately, when any of the included control variables were significant, I ran the model without including them to understand the change in parameter estimates and model fit. When the difference was small, the more parsimonious model was chosen. These details, as appropriate, are included in the following section. All models tested had acceptable fit statistics with posterior predictive ‘ p ’ values exceeding .05 (95% confidence interval for the difference between the observed and replicated χ^2 values included zero).

Work and family role pressure as predictors. H1a: Perceived work role pressure → perceived consequences of participation in work-activity →

Prioritization of work-activity. Two categories of perceived consequences were examined as mediators of the relationship between work role pressure and work-activity prioritization: perceived benefits for participation, and perceived sanctions for *non*-participation. These are examined in turn below.

Perceived benefits for participation- Supported. Hypothesis 1a predicted that perceived benefits of participation in work-activity mediate the effect of perceived work-role sender pressure on prioritization of work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work pressure was positively related to perceived benefits of participation ($\gamma_a = .30$, $SD = .05$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .20$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .40$). Further, as expected, perceived benefits of participation were positively related to the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_b = .37$, $SD = .13$, $p = .002$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .12$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .63$,

$OR = 1.95$). There was a direct effect of perceived work pressure on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_c' = .38, SE = .13, p = .001, LB_{95\% CI} = .13, UB_{95\% CI} = .63, OR = 1.98$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator. There was an indirect effect of perceived benefits of participation on prioritization of work activity ($\gamma_c = .11, SE = .04, p = .002, LB_{95\% CI} = .04, UB_{95\% CI} = .21, OR = 1.22$).

This effect was not supported at the between individual level. At the between individual level, work pressure was positively related to perceived benefits of participation ($\gamma_a = .23, SE = .09, p < .01, LB_{95\% CI} = .05, UB_{95\% CI} = .40$). However, perceived benefits were not related to the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_b = .18, SE = .14, p = .10, LB_{95\% CI} = -.10, UB_{95\% CI} = .45$). Finally, there was a marginally significant direct effect of perceived work pressure on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_c' = .16, SE = .11, p = .06, LB_{95\% CI} = -.06, UB_{95\% CI} = .04, OR = 1.33$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator and there was no indirect effect of perceived benefits of participation on the likelihood of prioritizing the work activity ($\gamma_c = .04, SE = .04, p = .11, LB_{95\% CI} = -.02, UB_{95\% CI} = .13, OR = 1.07$).

Perceived sanctions for non-participation - Supported. Hypothesis 1a predicted that perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity mediate the effect of perceived work-role sender pressure on prioritization of work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work pressure was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation ($\gamma_a = .45, SE = .07, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = .31, UB_{95\% CI} = .59$). Further, as expected perceived sanctions of non-participation was related to the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_b = .21, SE = .09, p = .01, LB_{95\% CI} = .02, UB_{95\% CI} = .39$). There was a direct effect of perceived work pressure on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity

($\gamma_{c'} = .42$, $SE = .13$, $p = .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .17$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .69$, $OR = 2.14$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. There was an indirect effect of perceived work role pressure on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .09$, $SE = .05$, $p = .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .01$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .19$, $OR = 1.71$).

This effect was also supported at the between individual level, i.e., individuals normally experiencing higher levels of work pressure also allocated higher amounts of time to the work-activity. At the between individual level, work pressure was positively related to perceived importance of relationship with worker ($\gamma_a = .43$, $SE = .09$, $p < .001$). Further, perceived sanctions were related to the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_b = .34$, $SE = .12$, $p < .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .12$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .57$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work pressure on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .08$, $SE = .11$, $p = .24$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.13$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .29$, $OR = 1.14$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. There was an indirect effect of perceived work role pressure on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .14$, $SE = .06$, $p = .002$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .04$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .28$, $OR = 1.29$).

H1b: Perceived family role pressure → perceived consequences of participation in family-activity → Prioritization of family-activity.

Perceived benefits for participation- Supported. Hypothesis 1b predicted that perceived benefits of participation in family-activity mediate the effect of perceived family-role sender pressure on prioritization of family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family pressure was positively related to perceived benefits of participation ($\gamma_a = .20$, $SD = .06$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .09$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .31$). Further, as expected, perceived benefit of participation was positively related to the odds of

prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.78, SD = .17, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = -1.14, UB_{95\% CI} = -.47, OR = .24$). There was a direct effect of perceived family pressure on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -.25, SE = .12, p = .02, LB_{95\% CI} = -.48, UB_{95\% CI} = -.02, OR = .64$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived benefits of participation in family-activity served as an intervening variable between perceived family role pressure and prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.15, SE = .06, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = -.28, UB_{95\% CI} = -.06, OR = .75$).

This pattern was supported at the between-individual level. I.e., individuals normally experiencing higher levels of family pressure allocated higher amounts of time to the family-activity. At the between individual level, family pressure was positively related to perceived benefits of participation ($\gamma_a = .22, SE = .08, p = .003, LB_{95\% CI} = .07, UB_{95\% CI} = .38$). Further, perceived benefits were related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.50, SE = .18, p = .001, LB_{95\% CI} = -.87, UB_{95\% CI} = -.17, OR = .41$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family pressure on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .01, SE = .12, p = .47, LB_{95\% CI} = -.24, UB_{95\% CI} = .23, OR = 1.01$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived family role pressure had an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.11, SE = .06, p < .01, LB_{95\% CI} = -.25, UB_{95\% CI} = -.02, OR = .82$).

Perceived sanctions of non-participation - Supported. Hypothesis 1b predicted that perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity would mediate the effect of perceived family-role sender pressure on prioritization of family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family pressure was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation ($\gamma_a = .26, SE = .06, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = .14, UB_{95\% CI} =$

.38). Further, as expected, perceived sanctions of non-participation were positively related to the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.53$, $SE = .13$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.79$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.30$, $OR = .38$). There was a direct effect of perceived family pressure on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -.25$, $SE = .12$, $p = .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.79$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.30$, $OR = .63$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived family role pressure has an indirect effect on odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.14$, $SE = .05$, $p < .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.25$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.06$, $OR = .78$).

This pattern was also supported at the between individual level. I.e., individuals normally experiencing higher levels of family pressure also allocated higher amounts of time to the family-activity. At the between individual level, family pressure was positively related to perceived importance of relationship with family member ($\gamma_a = .30$, $SE = .09$, $p = .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .12$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .48$). Further, perceived sanctions were related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.29$, $SE = .14$, $p = .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .14$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .38$, $OR = .60$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family pressure on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -.20$, $SE = .12$, $p = .43$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.25$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .21$, $OR = .96$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived family role pressure has an indirect effect on odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = .08$, $SE = .05$, $p = .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.21$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.01$, $OR = .86$).

H1c: Perceived work role pressure → perceived appropriateness of participation in work-activity → prioritization of work-activity. Two categories of perceived appropriateness were examined as mediators of the relationship between work role pressure and work-activity time allocation: perceived appropriateness of role

behaviors, and perceived importance of relationship with the other person involved in the activity. These are examined in turn below.

Perceived appropriateness of work-role behaviors – partially supported.

Hypothesis 1c predicted that perceived appropriateness of complying with work-behaviors mediates the effect of perceived work-role sender pressure on prioritization of work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work pressure was positively related to perceived appropriateness of participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .19$, $SD = .04$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .11$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .27$). However, counter to expectations, perceived appropriateness of complying with work behaviors was not positively related to the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_b = .10$, $SD = .16$, $p = .26$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.20$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .41$, $OR = 1.20$). There was a direct effect of perceived work pressure on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .47$, $SE = .13$, $p = .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .23$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .72$, $OR = 2.32$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. There was no indirect effect of perceived work pressure on prioritization of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .02$, $SE = .03$, $p = .26$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.04$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.08$, $OR = 1.03$).

This effect was not supported at the between individual level, i.e., individuals normally experiencing higher levels of work pressure did not allocate higher amounts of time to the work-activity. At the between individual level, work pressure was positively related to perceived appropriateness of complying with work-behaviors ($\gamma_a = .18$, $SE = .07$, $p < .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .04$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .33$). However, perceived positively appropriateness of complying with work-behaviors was not related to the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_b = .18$, $SE = .16$, $p = .12$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.12$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .50$, $OR = 1.38$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work pressure on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} =$

.18, $SE = .11$, $p = .04$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.02$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .40$, $OR = 1.38$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. There was no indirect effect of perceived work pressure on prioritization of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .03$, $SE = .03$, $p = .12$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.02$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .11$, $OR = 1.05$)

Importance of relationship with coworker- Supported. Hypothesis 1c predicted that perceived importance of relationship with coworker mediates the effect of perceived work-role sender pressure on prioritization of work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work pressure was positively related to perceived importance of relationship with coworker ($\gamma_a = .42$, $SD = .07$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .28$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .55$). Further, as expected, importance of relationship with coworker was positively related to the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_b = .31$, $SD = .10$, $p = .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .12$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .50$, $OR = 1.75$). There was a direct effect of perceived work pressure on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .36$, $SE = .13$, $p = .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .11$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .62$, $OR = 1.92$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. There was also an indirect effect of perceived work pressure on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_c = .13$, $SE = .05$, $p < .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .05$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .23$, $OR = 1.25$).

At the between individual level, work pressure was not related to importance of relationship with coworker ($\gamma_a = .19$, $SE = .12$, $p < .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .04$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .33$). However, perceived importance of relationship with coworker was not related to the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_b = .06$, $SE = .11$, $p = .30$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.15$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .27$, $OR = 1.11$). Finally, there was a significant direct effect of perceived work pressure on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .21$, $SE = .11$, $p = .04$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .02$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .01$, $OR = 1.46$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived

work role pressure did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .01$, $SE = .02$, $p = .32$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.03$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .07$, $OR = 1.01$).

H1d: Perceived family role pressure → perceived appropriateness of participation in family-activity → Prioritization of family-activity.

Perceived appropriateness of family-role behaviors - Supported. Hypothesis 1d predicted that perceived appropriateness of complying with family-behaviors would mediate the effect of perceived family-role sender pressure on prioritization of family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family pressure was positively related to perceived appropriateness of participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .14$, $SD = .05$, $p = .003$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .04$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .23$). Further, as expected, perceived appropriateness of complying with family behaviors was positively related to the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.89$, $SD = .21$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -1.34$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.50$, $OR = .20$). There was a direct effect of perceived family pressure on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -.29$, $SE = .11$, $p = .004$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.52$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.07$, $OR = .59$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived family role pressure had an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.12$, $SE = .05$, $p = .003$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.24$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.03$, $OR = .81$)

This effect was not supported at the between individual level. At the between individual level, family pressure was not positively appropriateness of complying with family-behaviors ($\gamma_a = .06$, $SE = .08$, $p = .22$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.09$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .20$). However, perceived positively appropriateness of complying with family-behaviors was related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.50$, $SE = .19$, $p = .003$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.90$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.14$, $OR = .40$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived

family pressure on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.05$, $SE = .12$, $p = .32$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.28$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .18$, $OR = .40$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived family role pressure did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.03$, $SE = .04$, $p = .22$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.12$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .05$, $OR = .96$).

Importance of relationship with family member – Supported. Hypothesis 1d predicted that perceived importance of relationship with family member mediates the effect of perceived family-role sender pressure on prioritization of family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family pressure was positively related to perceived importance of relationship with family member ($\gamma_a = .14$, $SD = .05$, $p = .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .05$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .23$). Further, as expected, importance of relationship with family member was positively related to the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = .63$, $SD = .20$, $p = .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = 1.03$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .26$, $OR = .32$). There was a direct effect of perceived family pressure on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.26$, $SE = .11$, $p = .009$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.48$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.05$, $OR = .62$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived family role pressure had an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.09$, $SE = .04$, $p < .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.18$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.02$, $OR = .85$).

This pattern was not supported at the between individual level. At the between individual level, family pressure was not related to importance of relationship with family member ($\gamma_a = .04$, $SE = .09$, $p = .32$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.14$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .22$). However, perceived importance of relationship with family member was related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.43$, $SE = .18$, $p = .006$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.81$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.09$, $OR = .46$).

Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family pressure on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -.05$, $SE = .11$, $p = .33$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.26$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .18$, $OR = .92$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived family role pressure did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.01$, $SE = .04$, $p = .32$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.11$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .06$, $OR = .97$).

Work and family support as predictors. H2a: Perceived social support at work → perceived appropriateness of family behaviors → prioritization of family-activity - Not supported. Hypothesis 2a predicted that perceived appropriateness of family behaviors mediates the effect of work emotional support on prioritization of family-activity. Contrary to prediction, at the within-individual level, work emotional support was not related to perceived appropriateness of family behaviors ($\gamma_a = .09$, $SD = .05$, $p = .04$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.01$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .19$). However, perceived appropriateness of family behaviors was related to the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.91$, $SD = .21$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -1.34$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.53$, $OR = .19$). There was no direct effect of work emotional support on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .01$, $SE = .12$, $p = .46$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.22$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .24$, $OR = 1.02$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived work emotional support did not have an indirect effect on odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.08$, $SE = .05$, $p = .07$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.20$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .01$, $OR = .89$).

This pattern was not also not supported at the between individual level. I.e., individuals normally experiencing higher levels of work emotional support did not prioritize the work-activity. At the between individual level, work emotional support was not positively related to perceived appropriateness of family behaviors ($\gamma_a = .15$, $SE =$

.08, $p = .03$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.004$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .29$). Further, perceived appropriateness of family behaviors was not related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.51$, $SE = .19$, $p < .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.21$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .23$, $OR = .40$). Finally, there was no direct effect of work emotional support on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .01$, $SE = .11$, $p = .47$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.21$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .23$, $OR = 1.01$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived work emotional support did not have an indirect effect on odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.07$, $SE = .05$, $p = .08$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.19$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .003$, $OR = .90$).

H2b: Perceived social support from family → perceived appropriateness of work behaviors → prioritization of work-activity - Not supported. Hypothesis 2b predicted that perceived appropriateness of work behaviors mediates the effect of perceived family emotional support on prioritization of work-activity. Contrary to prediction, at the within-individual level, family emotional support was not positively related to perceived appropriateness of work behaviors ($\gamma_a = .08$, $SD = .04$, $p = .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.002$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .17$). Further, perceived appropriateness of work behaviors was not positively related to the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = .23$, $SD = .15$, $p = .06$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.06$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .53$, $OR = 1.52$). There was a direct effect of family emotional support on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .22$, $SE = .10$, $p = .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .02$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .42$, $OR = 1.48$, after controlling for the effect of the mediator). Perceived family emotional support did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .02$, $SE = .02$, $p = .08$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.01$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .06$, $OR = 1.03$).

This pattern was also not supported at the between individual level. I.e., individuals normally experiencing higher levels of family emotional support did not prioritize the work-activity. At the between individual level, family emotional support was not positively related to perceived appropriateness of work behaviors ($\gamma_a = .08$, $SE = .07$, $p = .12$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.05$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .21$). Further, perceived appropriateness of work behaviors was not related to the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_b = .25$, $SE = .15$, $p = .04$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.04$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .54$, $OR = 1.56$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of family emotional support on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .06$, $SE = .08$, $p = .24$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.10$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .22$, $OR = 1.11$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived family emotional support did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .02$, $SE = .02$, $p = .15$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.02$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .08$, $OR = 1.03$).

H2c: Perceived instrumental support at work → perceived sanctions of non-participation in family-activity → prioritization of family-activity - Partially supported. Hypothesis 2c predicted that perceived sanction of non-participation in family-activity mediates the effect of perceived instrumental support at work on prioritization of family-activity. Contrary to prediction, at the within-individual level, work instrumental support was not positively related to perceived sanction for non-participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .09$, $SD = .06$, $p < .07$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.03$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .21$). However, as expected, perceived sanction for non-participation in family-activity was positively related to the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.55$, $SD = .12$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.80$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.32$, $OR = .37$). There was a direct effect of work instrumental support on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -.23$, $SE =$

.11, $p = .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.45$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.02$, $OR = .66$), controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived work instrumental support did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.05$, $SE = .04$, $p = .07$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.13$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .02$, $OR = .92$).

This pattern was not supported at the between individual level. At the between individual level, work instrumental was not related to perceived sanction for non-participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .19$, $SE = .10$, $p = .03$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.01$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .38$). However, perceived sanction for non-participation in family-activity was related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.30$, $SE = .14$, $p = .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.57$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.04$, $OR = .58$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of instrumental work support on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .003$, $SE = .10$, $p = .49$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.20$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .20$, $OR = 1.00$) after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived instrumental support did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.05$, $SE = .04$, $p = .04$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.15$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .01$, $OR = .91$).

H2d: Perceived instrumental support from family → perceived sanctions of non-participation in work-activity → prioritization of work-activity - Supported.

Hypothesis 2d predicted that perceived sanction of non-participation in work-activity mediates the effect of perceived instrumental support from family on prioritization of work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family instrumental support was positively related to perceived sanction for non-participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .13$, $SD = .06$, $p < .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .01$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .25$). Further, as expected, perceived sanction for non-participation in work-activity was positively related to the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_b = .30$, $SD = .09$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .13$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .48$,

$OR = 1.71$). There was no direct effect of family instrumental support on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .13$, $SE = .09$, $p = .06$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.04$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .30$, $OR = 1.07$) controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived family instrumental support did have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .04$, $SE = .02$, $p = .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .01$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .09$, $OR = 1.27$).

This pattern was not supported at the between individual level. I.e., individuals normally experiencing higher levels of family instrumental support prioritized the work-activity. At the between individual level, family instrumental was not positively related to perceived sanction for non-participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .08$, $SE = .10$, $p = .21$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.11$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .27$). However, perceived sanction for non-participation in work-activity was related to the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_b = .34$, $SE = .10$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .15$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .54$, $OR = 1.83$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of instrumental family support on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .06$, $SE = .08$, $p = .23$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.10$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .22$, $OR = 1.11$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived instrumental support did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .02$, $SE = .04$, $p = .21$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.04$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .10$, $OR = 1.04$).

Perceived work and family-activity importance as predictors. H3a: Perceived work-activity importance → perceived benefits of participation → prioritization of work-activity. Two categories of perceived consequences were examined as mediators of the relationship between work-activity importance and work-activity prioritization: perceived benefits for participation, and perceived sanctions for *non*-participation. These are examined in turn below.

Perceived benefits of participation – Supported. Hypothesis 3a predicted that perceived benefits of participation mediate the effect of perceived work-activity importance on prioritization of work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work-activity importance was positively related to perceived benefits of participation ($\gamma_a = .70, SD = .07, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = .56, UB_{95\% CI} = .83$). Further, as expected, perceived benefits of participation were positively related to the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_b = .35, SD = .14, p = .005, LB_{95\% CI} = .08, UB_{95\% CI} = .63, OR = 1.88$). There was a direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .43, SE = .19, p = .01, LB_{95\% CI} = .06, UB_{95\% CI} = .80, OR = 2.18$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived work-activity importance had an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .24, SE = .10, p = .005, LB_{95\% CI} = .06, UB_{95\% CI} = .45, OR = 1.55$).

At the between individual level, perceived work-activity importance was related to perceived consequences of participation in the activity ($\gamma_a = .77, SE = .12, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = .53, UB_{95\% CI} = 1.02$). However, perceived consequences of participation were not related to the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_b = .13, SE = .17, p = .21, LB_{95\% CI} = -.20, UB_{95\% CI} = .45, OR = 1.26$). Further, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .23, SE = .21, p = .13, LB_{95\% CI} = -.18, UB_{95\% CI} = .64, OR = 1.60$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Finally, perceived work-activity importance did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_c = .10, SE = .13, p = .21, LB_{95\% CI} = -.15, UB_{95\% CI} = .37, OR = 1.19$).

Perceived sanctions for non-participation- Partially supported. Hypothesis 3a predicted that perceived sanctions of non-participation mediate the effect of perceived work-activity importance on prioritization of work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work-activity importance was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation ($\gamma_a = .90, SD = .09, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = .71, UB_{95\% CI} = 1.08$). However, contrary to expected, perceived sanctions of participation was positively related to the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_b = .18, SD = .10, p = .034, LB_{95\% CI} = -.01, UB_{95\% CI} = .38, OR = 1.38$). There was a direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .49, SE = .19, p = .005, LB_{95\% CI} = .13, UB_{95\% CI} = .86, OR = 2.41$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived family-activity importance did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = .16, SE = .09, p = .06, LB_{95\% CI} = -.01, UB_{95\% CI} = .35, OR = 1.34$).

At the between individual level, perceived family-activity importance was related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in the activity ($\gamma_a = .62, SE = .17, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = .30, UB_{95\% CI} = .94$). However, perceived consequences of non-participation were not related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = .32, SE = .12, p < .01, LB_{95\% CI} = .11, UB_{95\% CI} = .55, OR = 1.80$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .09, SE = .18, p = .31, LB_{95\% CI} = -.26, UB_{95\% CI} = .44, OR = 1.17$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived family-activity importance had an indirect effect on odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = .19, SE = .09, p = .002, LB_{95\% CI} = .05, UB_{95\% CI} = .40, OR = 1.41$).

H3b: Perceived family-activity importance → perceived benefits of participation → prioritization of family-activity. Two categories of perceived consequences were examined as mediators of the relationship between family-activity importance and family-activity prioritization: perceived benefits for participation, and perceived sanctions for *non*-participation. These are examined in turn below.

Perceived benefits for participation - Supported. Hypothesis 3b predicted that perceived benefits of participation mediate the effect of perceived family-activity importance on prioritization of family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family-activity importance was positively related to perceived benefits of participation ($\gamma_a = .78, SD = .06, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = .654, UB_{95\% CI} = .90$). Further, as expected, a perceived benefit of participation was positively related to the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = .47, SD = .19, p = .004, LB_{95\% CI} = .26, UB_{95\% CI} = .68, OR = 1.42$). There was a direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -.91, SE = .26, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = -1.44, UB_{95\% CI} = -.43, OR = .19$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived family-activity importance had an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.37, SE = .15, p = .004, LB_{95\% CI} = -.68, UB_{95\% CI} = -.09, OR = .52$).

At the between individual level, perceived family-activity importance was related to perceived consequences of participation in the activity ($\gamma_a = .73, SE = .10, p < .001, LB_{95\% CI} = .54, UB_{95\% CI} = .92$). Further, perceived consequences of participation were related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.62, SE = .24, p = .003, LB_{95\% CI} = -1.13, UB_{95\% CI} = -.17, OR = .33$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} =$

.09, $SE = .26$, $p = .37$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.42$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .61$, $OR = 1.17$), after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived family-activity importance did have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.44$, $SE = .19$, $p = .003$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.86$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.12$, $OR = .45$).

Perceived sanctions of non-participation - Supported. Hypothesis 3b predicted that perceived sanctions of non-participation mediate the effect of perceived family-activity importance on prioritization of family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family-activity importance was positively related to perceived sanctions of non-participation ($\gamma_a = .73$, $SD = .08$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .58$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .88$). Further, as expected, perceived sanctions of participation were positively related to the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.32$, $SD = .13$, $p = .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.59$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.07$, $OR = .56$). There was a direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.99$, $SE = .24$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -1.50$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.55$, $OR = .16$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator.

Perceived family-activity importance had an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.23$, $SE = .10$, $p = .006$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.45$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.041$, $OR = .92$).

At the between individual level, perceived family-activity importance was related to perceived sanctions of non-participation in the activity ($\gamma_a = .59$, $SE = .13$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .34$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .86$). However, perceived consequences of non-participation were not related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.31$, $SE = .16$, $p = .03$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.64$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .01$, $OR = .58$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.19$, $SE = .22$, $p = .19$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.62$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .23$, $OR = .72$), after controlling for

the effect of the mediator. Perceived family-activity importance did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.17$, $SE = .11$, $p = .03$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.42$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .01$, $OR = .73$).

H3c: Perceived work-activity importance → perceived appropriateness of participation in work-activity → prioritization of work-activity. Two categories of perceived appropriateness were examined as mediators of the relationship between work-activity importance and work-activity prioritization: perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors, and perceived importance of relationship with coworker. These are examined in turn below.

Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors- Partially supported.

Hypothesis 3c predicted that perceived appropriateness of work behaviors mediates the effect of perceived work-activity importance on prioritization of work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work-activity importance was positively related to perceived appropriateness of participation in work-activity ($\gamma_a = .55$, $SD = .05$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .45$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .65$). However, contrary to expectation, perceived appropriateness of complying with work behaviors was not related to the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_b = -.05$, $SD = .18$, $p = .39$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.40$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .29$, $OR = .92$). There was a direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_c = .68$, $SE = .19$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .31$, $UB_{95\% CI} = 1.06$, $OR = 3.41$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived work role activity importance did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = -.03$, $SE = .10$, $p = .39$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.22$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .16$, $OR = .95$).

At the between individual level, work-activity importance was positively related to perceived appropriateness of complying with work-behaviors ($\gamma_a = .67$, $SE = .10$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .47$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .87$). However, perceived appropriateness of complying with work-behaviors was not related to the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_b = .13$, $SE = .19$, $p = .25$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.25$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .51$, $OR = 1.26$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .24$, $SE = .21$, $p = .12$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.17$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .66$) after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived work role activity importance did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .08$, $SE = .13$, $p = .25$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.17$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .35$, $OR = 1.164$).

Perceived importance of relationship with coworker- Supported. Hypothesis 3c predicted that perceived importance of relationship with coworker mediates the effect of perceived work-activity importance on prioritization of work-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, work-activity importance was positively related to perceived importance of relationship with coworker ($\gamma_a = .56$, $SD = .1$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .37$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .76$). Further, as expected, perceived importance of relationship with coworker was positively related to the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_b = .33$, $SD = .10$, $p = .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .14$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .53$, $OR = 1.81$). There was a direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the likelihood of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .51$, $SE = .18$, $p = .002$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .17$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .86$, $OR = 2.50$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived work-activity importance has an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_c = .18$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .07$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .33$, $OR = 1.39$).

At the between individual level, work-activity importance was not related to importance of relationship with coworker ($\gamma_a = .18$, $SE = .20$, $p = .19$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.21$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .57$). However, perceived importance of relationship with coworker was not related to the odds of prioritizing work-activity ($\gamma_b = .09$, $SE = .10$, $p = .18$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.10$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .29$, $OR = 1.18$). Finally, there was a significant direct effect of perceived work-activity importance on the odds of prioritizing the work-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .33$, $SE = .17$, $p = .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .005$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .67$, $OR = 1.81$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived work role activity importance did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of work-activity ($\gamma_c = .01$, $SE = .03$, $p = .30$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.04$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .10$, $OR = 1.00$).

H3d: Perceived family-activity importance → perceived appropriateness of participation in family-activity → prioritization of family-activity.

Two categories of perceived appropriateness were examined as mediators of the relationship between family-activity importance and family-activity prioritization: perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors, and perceived importance of relationship with family member. These are examined in turn below.

Perceived appropriateness of family behaviors – Supported. Hypothesis 3d predicted that perceived appropriateness of complying with family-behaviors would mediate the effect of perceived family-activity importance on prioritization of family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family-activity importance was positively related to perceived appropriateness of participation in family-activity ($\gamma_a = .61$, $SD = .06$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .50$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .73$). Further, as expected, perceived appropriateness of complying with family behaviors was positively related to the odds of

prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.46$, $SD = .22$, $p = .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.92$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.06$, $OR = .44$). There was a direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -.99$, $SE = .25$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -1.51$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.54$, $OR = .17$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator.

Perceived family-activity importance had an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.28$, $SE = .14$, $p = .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.58$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.03$, $OR = .60$).

At the between individual level, family-activity importance was positively appropriateness of complying with family-behaviors ($\gamma_a = .38$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .18$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .59$). Further, perceived appropriateness of complying with family-behaviors was related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.51$, $SE = .24$, $p = .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.99$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.06$, $OR = .40$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -.11$, $SE = .23$, $p = .32$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.57$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .35$, $OR = .82$), after controlling for the effects of the mediator. Perceived family role activity importance has an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.19$, $SE = .11$, $p = .01$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.44$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.02$, $OR = .77$).

Perceived importance of relationship with family member- Supported.

Hypothesis 3d predicted that perceived importance of relationship with family member mediates the effect of perceived family-activity importance on prioritization of family-activity. As expected, at the within-individual level, family-activity importance was positively related to perceived importance of relationship with family member ($\gamma_a = .56$, $SD = .06$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .45$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .66$). Further, as expected, importance of relationship with family member was not related to the odds of prioritizing the family-

activity ($\gamma_b = -.26$, $SD = .22$, $p = .11$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.71$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.16$, $OR = .62$). There was a direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the likelihood of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = -1.08$, $SE = .26$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -1.58$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.63$, $OR = .14$), controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived family role activity importance did not have an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.15$, $SE = .13$, $p = .11$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.40$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .09$, $OR = .77$).

At the between individual level, family-activity importance was not related to importance of relationship with family member ($\gamma_a = .51$, $SE = .12$, $p < .001$, $LB_{95\% CI} = .27$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .75$). However, perceived importance of relationship with family member was related to the odds of prioritizing family-activity ($\gamma_b = -.42$, $SE = .23$, $p = .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.90$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.01$, $OR = .46$). Finally, there was no significant direct effect of perceived family-activity importance on the odds of prioritizing the family-activity ($\gamma_{c'} = .01$, $SE = .23$, $p = .27$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.59$, $UB_{95\% CI} = .30$, $OR = .77$) after controlling for the effect of the mediator. Perceived family-activity importance had an indirect effect on the odds of prioritizing of family-activity ($\gamma_c = -.21$, $SE = .13$, $p = .02$, $LB_{95\% CI} = -.51$, $UB_{95\% CI} = -.01$, $OR = .69$).

In summary, concern for consequences mediates the effect of role pressure, support, and activity importance on the decision to prioritize an activity. Hypotheses testing using prioritized activity as categorical outcome variable found support for many mediation relationships. Some of exploratory relationships at the between individual level were also supported, underscoring the idea that the meaning and nature of relationships between constructs can differ across the different levels of analyses.

Discussion

This study contributes to the literature on work-family conflict by employing an experience sampling design to investigate the processes involved in the experience and resolution of episodic work-family conflict. The majority of research on work-family conflict has used cross-sectional designs to examine various relationships between contextual variables and outcomes such as experienced conflict, stress, and affect (Casper et al., 2005). More recent work has attempted to focus on strain and spillover (e.g., Corpley & Purvis, 2003) and short-term decision making (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006), although few studies have examined short-term or episodic work-family decision making. Research on episodic work-family decision making has been dominated by cross-sectional studies that have adopted retrospectively administered, levels-based measurement approaches (Shockley & Allen, 2015), with just one published study employing within-individual designs to understand the micro-process of work-family decision making. Levels based measurement approaches conceptualize conflict as levels of work interfering with family or family interfering with work over a period of time, in contrast to episodes approaches that conceptualize conflict as distinct occurrences or incidences of conflict (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). This study makes an important contribution with its examination of actual episodes of work-family conflict close in time to when they occur. Hence, a key contribution of the study is the use of experience sampling method to focus on episodic conflict to understand the micro-processes of work-family decision making. It extends this research with the focus on logics as mediators of the relationship between contextual predictors namely, pressure, support, and activity importance and the decision to prioritize work or family activity. In

examining decision logics as mediators, the study provides novel insights into why individuals may prioritize work or family in the presence of these key antecedent variables. By investigating these mediating relationships using a multi-level model, the study attempts to shed light on relationships between variables at the within-individual level while exploring those at the between individual levels, leading to key questions to guide future studies on episodic decision making.

Decision making logics as mediators of the effect of contextual variables on work-family prioritization decisions.

In general, this study provides evidence to support the argument that a concern for consequences of participation (or non-participation) predicts prioritization of work or family activity during episodic decision making events. Specifically, in the short term, an anticipation of benefits of participation and concern about sanctions for non-participation in specific activity predict the decisions to prioritize that activity over another conflicting (or competing) activity. A concern for displaying/complying with role appropriate behaviors or valuing relationship with the other (person in the situation) also mediates prioritization decisions. However, such relationships were supported more in the family domain than in the work domain. In this section, I will first summarize and discuss findings from the study and follow it with a discussion of their theoretical implications.

This study finds that a concern for potential negative consequences mediates the relationship between contextual variables and decision making. Such concern for potential sanctions is stronger than the anticipation of potential benefits, both within and across individuals, and this extends to both the family and work related activities. In capturing daily conflict experiences, participants noted that apprehensions about

sanctions (penalties) resulting from non-participation or non-performance of particular activity were often associated with decisions to prioritize associated activities compared to anticipation of benefits that could accrue from participating in other activities. For example, a participant noted that she rescheduled several meetings to clear her work calendar, to be able to take her daughter to the doctor (after the child suffered a skating accident). Thus, apprehension about potential negative consequences of non-performance are more likely to garner individual's immediate attention and time than do possible benefits associated with performance of activities. This finding is analogous to findings from multiple-goal research (e.g., Schmidt & DeShon, 2007), which finds that individuals often prioritize avoidance goals over approach goals. That is, goals associated with avoiding negative outcomes or losses are prioritized over goals that have potential gains associated with them.

Further, this study find that anticipation of benefits of participation or performing activities appears to have a similar mediating effect, but these effects were only evidenced within individuals but not between individuals. When individuals who generally experience greater pressure at work are faced with the choice of participating in activities that may carry positive consequences, they may not always prioritize such activities over others. Interestingly, concern for family, whether positive or negative, is associated with prioritization of the family activity, even among individuals who generally report higher levels of family pressure than others.

Concern for consequences mediates the relationship between support in either domain and prioritization of the other domain activity. For example, concern for consequences associated with a failure to participate in a work activity mediates the

relationship between instrumental support from the family domain and the decision to prioritize the work domain activity. For instance, an individual who experiences instrumental support from family (such as a spouse stepping in to take care of the sick child) is more likely to prioritize a work activity (such as attending an important meeting, when missing it can have important consequences) than when the individual does not experience instrumental support from the family and still needs to care for the child. However, such prioritization is only evidenced at the within-individual level, highlighting the idea that when individuals generally experience (perceive) high levels of support in either domain, concern for consequences in the other domain does not have a mediating effect in prioritization decision making. For instance, individuals who generally perceive high (or low) levels of support from the family domain may be less likely to prioritize the work activity due to the negative consequences associated with it, but may likely factor in the consequences associated with the family domain as well.

In a similar fashion, a concern for consequences mediates relationship between work and family activity importance and the decision to prioritize the family or work activity. This study also finds that the logic of appropriateness mediates the relationship of role sender pressure and activity importance variables on prioritization decision. Even here, most of the supported mediating relationships were at the within-individual level and fewer were supported at the between individual level. While most hypothesized relationships at the within individual level are supported, it is noted that the need to comply with work-role appropriate behaviors was the only hypothesized mediator that did not mediate the effect of either perceived work role pressure or perceived work activity importance on the prioritization decision. However, this mediation was supported

in the family domain, where the need to comply with family role appropriate behaviors mediated the effect of pressure and activity importance variables on the decision to prioritize family activity. It is unclear why this asymmetry exists between the family and work domains but it is possible that since individuals (in general) spend considerable time at work and on work related activities, they are more cognizant of the importance they attach to family roles and circumspect about how their behaviors would be perceived by family members, especially on occasions when family activity is considered important and participation accorded higher priority.

Some authors (e.g., Poelmans, 2005; Shockley & Allen, 2015) argue that the importance of an activity is related to the potential for consequences that the activity holds making activity importance more of a *contextual (external)* cue. In contrast, others (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006) take an identity perspective to understand what activities the individual may consider important, thereby deeming task importance an *individual (internal)* cue. The results from this study bolster the idea that assessment of importance can be as much a function of potential consequence as it is of identity-appropriate behaviors. This study provides evidence to support the idea that activity importance may be associated with the potential for consequences that the activity holds and the potential for displaying/complying with role appropriate behaviors or for maintaining the relationship with the other individual involved in the activity. This is also seen in the correlation between activity importance and perceived need to display role appropriate behaviors and relationship with other. The magnitudes (although not accounting for the clustered nature of data) are similar to those between activity importance and concern for positive and sanctions for participation.

Admittedly, it could be argued — as March (1994) did — that the decision making logics are not completely mutually exclusive and arguments exist for considerable overlap between the two. Specifically, the logic of appropriateness, which focuses on what is appropriate for the particular role and/or situation shares some similarities with the logic of consequences, which is focused on a concern for the effects of the action (March, 1994). A concern for displaying role appropriate behaviors may be actually a concern for longer term consequences associated with the role rather than immediate or short term consequences, which may be observed with the logic of consequences. For instance, when an individual prioritizes a work activity (such as an unplanned meeting or attending to a customer request) out of a perceived need to comply with certain work role-behaviors, the individual may still be concerned about how his or her behavior is being perceived, though there may be few apparent consequences associated with such behavior in the immediate term. Thus, a focus on the extent to which participation or non-participation affects the individual may be less pronounced, but nevertheless maybe an indirect consideration in the decision making process. Hence, this study also provides a call for further investigation into the decision making logics, their meanings, and manifestations in the context of work-family decision making.

In summary, this study examined the mediating role of decision making logics in episodic work-family decision making contexts and found that concern for consequences and for complying with appropriate role-related behaviors mediate the relationship between contextual variables such as pressure, and support, and the domain activity that is prioritized in order to resolve the conflict between work and family demands. Many of the exploratory relationships were supported, reinforcing the idea that although there are

individual differences in decision making, episodic decision-making is dynamic and fluctuates within-individuals over time. In so doing, this study makes a case for further investigation of processes at the within-individual level, which can lead to a better understanding of the underlying process of episodic work-family decision making.

Prioritizing work, family, or both

Previous studies on work family conflict (e.g., Bellavia & Frone, 2002) have generally reported greater incidence of work interfering with family compared to incidence of family interfering with work. In contrast, Shockley and Allen (2015) found no differences between the incidence of work-to-family conflict or family-to-work conflict during episodic conflict. In contrast to these studies, the current study focused on prioritization of work or family in the conflict situation and the time spent on each activity in the process of resolving the conflict. Consequently, a like-for-like comparison with previous studies is not possible. However, in attempting to understand how decision-making occurs, I provided participants the option of reporting which activity they prioritized in resolving the conflict and the amount of time they allocated to each activity once the decision had been made. This study found that individuals prioritized work on more occasions than they prioritized family or jointly prioritized work and family. Indeed, work was prioritized in nearly 42% of episodes of conflict, while family was prioritized in 26% of the cases. Joint prioritization of work and family was done in about 31% of cases. According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1982), the decision of how to resolve the conflict (which activity to prioritize) precedes the experience of interference, which occurs when one activity interferes with performance of the other. In essence, conflict between work and family activity leads to prioritization to resolve conflict and focusing

of time and resources on a particular activity, which in turn leads to experience of interference. However, it is also possible that when conflict occurs, individuals experience interference based on what they believe they should be doing (work or family activity), following which they prioritize one activity over the other to resolve the situation. This study assessed prioritization as a precursor of interference, finding that prioritization and interference were correlated. However, this micro process still needs to be clarified in terms of whether interference precedes conflict or follows it.

Joint prioritization or role juggling. Prioritization of tasks/activities in service of resolving conflict has traditionally been thought of and operationalized as binary. However, when participant responses were elicited thru items that directly asked about the activity that was prioritized, nearly 31% chose joint prioritization of work and family. Reporting of joint prioritization demands further investigation into how such simultaneous prioritization is operationalized by individuals, the forms that it takes and the effect on role performance and affect. A few early studies (e.g., Williams, Suls, Alliger, Learner, & Wan, 1991) refer to the simultaneous attending to demands from different roles as Role juggling and note that women are more likely to simultaneously process work and family roles rather than doing so sequentially. Further, role juggling has been thought of as a form of role performance interruption leading to lower task enjoyment and negative mood carryover (Williams et al., 1991).

In this study, I provided participants four response options for the item regarding which activity they accorded higher priority in their efforts to resolve the conflict. The options included prioritizing work, prioritizing family, prioritizing both activities, or prioritizing neither activity. The option of joint prioritization was based on anecdotal

evidence of individuals being able to manage both activities in tandem by seeking support (family or co-workers) for accomplishing either activity or through means such as remote working, which then enabled them to physically remain in one domain while attending to tasks/demands from the other domain. In providing this option, the idea was to capture the prioritization decision that the individual had taken. Qualitative data regarding how prioritization was accomplished was obtained through open ended items. A quick content analysis of this data pointed to the increasing incidence of contextual variables such as support (from family, or from organizational policies and/ or supervisory support for remote working), and of technology to simultaneously handle more than one activity at a time.

Role juggling as a strategy for handling conflict highlights the increasing need for individuals to consistently balance the competing demands and to not just prioritize one task over the other. The incidence of joint role prioritization reported in this study suggests the need to expand our conceptualization and measurement of how conflicts are resolved. Conflict resolution needs to expand to include options of joint performance of both tasks. Studies that force participants to choose one (work) or the other (family) option may not be capturing the phenomenon in a manner consistent with how individuals approach it. Organizational policies for flexible working, especially for remote working, afford employees the option of working from locations other than the workplace, in order to manage competing yet important demands from non-work domains. Such remote working essentially involves role juggling, a form, or role interruption. Given the prevalence of remote working related organizational policies over the past decade, it is likely that individuals have adapted to working with them and the

interruptions experienced during remote working instances are more consistent rather than intermittent. Consistent interruptions, where there is some control over the timing and sequences of interruptions, have been proposed to actually produce less intense affect than intermittent occurrences (Williams et al., 1991). When this is occasioned by the use of remote working options, it may be regarded as enrichment. However, when individuals choose remote working in response to work-family conflict, such as due to a child's illness, it is less likely that resulting interruptions (from either domain) are consistent and more likely to be associated with negative affect. Thus, despite jointly prioritizing both activities and accomplishing them, individuals do experience negative affect – especially guilt.

Need for more research on joint prioritization of work and family demands. The need (or expressed desire) to jointly prioritize both activities should be an area of further study and research. Whether joint prioritization has negative implications for affect carryover, similar to that associated with role juggling, is unclear. Further, it is also important to understand if organizations and individuals have become sufficiently accustomed to remote working that, individuals who work remotely on a regular basis do not experience negative outcomes that are traditionally associated with task interruption and affect. It is also unclear when in the process of decision making, the choice to jointly prioritize both domains is actually made and the sequence of actions that follow it. It is possible that in some cases there is some retrospective assigning of joint prioritization based on how much of each activity the individual is actually able to accomplish and not just based on the initial decision to prioritize both activities. In recent years, the concept of “lean in” has been introduced into popular culture (Alter, 2015). The concept of lean in

broadly refers to the need for women to seek support and resources to balance both work and family domains, and thereby fight the cultural and psychological pressures that allow women to hold themselves back in the workplace. While the concept has been fairly positively received, critics note that it sidesteps the structural issues that disproportionately affect women and highlights personal agency as the answer to all problems. In so doing it also portrays women who do not do an adequate job of balancing both domains as falling short. Consequently, despite being an intervention to reduce work-family conflict, the extent to which options (such as flexible working) force individuals to prioritize both work and family, when in reality their own work and family identities may be differentially central, is an avenue worthy of future exploration. Hence, as Greenhaus and Allen (2011) point out, understanding of an individual's values is important to understand their appraisal of their own effectiveness and satisfaction with work and family roles.

Time allocation to domain activity as a criterion in work-family decision making.

This study also raises questions about the measurement of time allocation to work and family activities as an outcome variable in capturing the resolution of time based work-family conflict. The import of an activity cannot always be gauged by the time spent by an individual on that activity. Indeed, it can be argued that there are several instances when certain activities, although important and demanding, require less time to resolve than other competing activities which may be less important but demand more time. For example, picking up a child from school at the end of the school day may take less time than a team meeting that is scheduled around the same time. The (within-individual) correlation between activity prioritization and the time spent on work and

family activities in this study was .15. Further, measurement of the time allocation variable appears to have been affected by the time intervals that participants took into consideration in responding to the time allocation item. That is, while some participants appeared to have taken the time involved in resolving the conflict and attending to the prioritized activity into consideration, others appeared to have taken the total time spent on work or on family activities over the entire day into consideration. Consequently, it would be constructive for future research to clearly define (clarify) the timeframe that participants need to bear in mind when responding to time allocation items. Further, operationalizing in novel ways should be aimed at understanding and reflecting the manner in which allocation of time to competing activities is considered in tandem with importance of each activity, before one activity is prioritized over the other. Finally, future research should look at new ways to combine time allocation and prioritization to better understand interference and its direction.

Findings relating to incidence of different kinds of interference also raise some important questions about how information relating to conflict episodes and their resolution is elicited from participants. Previous studies have used Greenhaus & Powell's (2003) definition of work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW) to code whether participants had experienced work to family conflict (WFC) or family to work conflict (FWC). While the use of these definitions and coding schemes brings consistency of measurement with previous work, it does risk conflating how individuals experience episodes of conflict and consequently their perception of interference with theoretical definitions of work-family conflict and its directionality. As discussed in previous chapters, research has underscored the need for greater clarity into

the process of how individuals experience conflict and how they assign any domain as the interfering domain and reconcile the manner in which they resolve the conflict. Future research using experience sampling methods would be critical to advancing our understanding the process of how conflict and interference is experienced and how its directionality is reported. More studies using experience sampling design would be critical in gaining a better understanding of this process and how and when directionality is assigned.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has some important limitations, which should be addressed in future studies. Addressing these limitations can lead to psychometric and methodological refinements that advance what we learn from work-family decision making studies- especially from those employing experience sampling methods to study work-family conflicts.

A key limitation of this study is the use of primary consolidation (end of day measures) to measure the quality of episodic experiences. Although primary consolidation, where respondents consolidate and report their experiences at the end of the day, is methodologically superior to consolidation of experiences across several days, primary consolidation still relies on retrospective recollection (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). In so doing, it “misses the subtle, often idiosyncratic and sometimes even the contradictory dimensions of the immediate experience” (Hektner et al., 2007) that is afforded by immediate report. Measurement that focuses on the immediate experiences and captures reactions at a specific time, would enhance our understanding of episodic experience and the underlying process and would be particularly valuable in understanding the ‘why’ of the experience.

Another key challenge in this study shared by many experience sampling studies relates to designing incentives that encourage participation and enable eliciting reliable responses. This is because data collection can be invasive and time consuming. For instance, in this study, a few participants noted that they were not able to share data about conflict incidents since they were actually dealing with the conflict at the time that they were required to respond to the daily survey. In some other cases, providing all relevant

details about episodes was perceived as time consuming. Thus, designing better incentives to induce greater participation while developing methods that balance frequent data collection (as close to the event as possible) with pragmatic response burden for participants, are some key challenges that this line of research needs to make progress on.

In a related vein, another limitation of the study is that all data were self-report. Concern associated with self-report may to some extent be complicated with concerns regarding participant reactivity in the context of experience sampling studies. Repeatedly eliciting responses about issues of work-family conflict may have made participants more cognizant of their own behaviors and habits regarding how they approach work and family demands and manage conflicts. Such cognizance of their own preferences, responses and tendencies may subsequently have lead participants to behave in socially desirable ways or in ways that afforded image management in positive ways (Diener, Sandvik, Pavot, & Gallagher, 2012). While these concerns do exist and should be more closely examined in future studies along with greater attempts to collect data from other sources, it is mitigated to some extent since same-source bias is generally considered much less problematic when within person analyses are the focus (Spector, 2006).

All data in this study were elicited through self-reports, resulting in concerns regarding common method variance and self-report biases discussed previously. Although I attempted to recruit participants' partners/spouses to capture data (from family role pressure/support sender perspective) with the aim of improving objectivity of report, less than 10% of the sample responded to the request, making it difficult to conduct any kind of meaningful analysis with the data. Thus, future studies should work to improve incentive plans that encourage not just participation but also incentivize other

role senders to participate and provide their perspective on how conflict occurs and prioritization done in order to manage the conflict.

Although the importance of psychometrically sound measures cannot be understated in any measurement context, work-family research is one where the need for stronger measures is particularly acute. Most of the measures used in this study were existing, established measures that have been widely used in this literature. Although a majority of the study measures had acceptable values of Cronbach alpha, a few of these measures lacked strong psychometric properties when subjected to confirmatory factor analysis. Such instances diminish what can be learned about the constructs being measured, particularly the meanings of constructs at different levels of analysis and their relationships with other constructs. Beyond between-person measures, which are multi-item scales, most of the measures used to capture daily diary data are single item measures. In making a pragmatic choice between reduced cognitive load on participants with greater response rates and higher cognitive load with potentially lower response rates, I chose to use single item measures taken from previous studies on episodic work-family decision making (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Shockley & Allen, 2015). Pragmatic considerations of time notwithstanding, single item measures can be less reliable than a multi-item scale since the reliability of a single item is generally unknown, given the inability to compute alpha and are not advised. Hence, another important area of future research should be development of psychometrically sound abbreviated measures that lend themselves to use in repeated measures designs.

Examining the attributional processes of conflict is an important avenue for future research (Shockley & Allen, 2015). This research was premised on Greenhaus and

Beutell's (1985) proposition that the decision of how to resolve the conflict impacts perceived directionality of interference. However, as was noted in an earlier chapter, it is just as likely that attribution of directionality influences the resolution decision. For instance, an episode of work-family conflict that occurs when an individual is getting ready to leave for work may still be perceived as family interfering with work leading the person to prioritize work over family. In this study, directionality was not a focal outcome of interest, as the aims of the study centered on the prioritization decision and the amount of time that was allocated to each activity. I inferred directionality based on participants' report of the activity they prioritized in order to resolve the conflict. However, it is possible that participants assigned directionality (and/or blame) based on other factors including the domain that triggers the event (Stone, 1987), domain with least personal salience (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006), or even the one they are not physically present in (Judge et al., 2006). Thus, future studies should seek to understand the phenomenology of the attributional processes underlying work-family conflict including interference, prioritization, and time allocation through in-depth qualitative studies that get at the process that individuals may consciously or unconsciously adopt. This could help in clarifying our understanding of the processes that occur during and after work-family conflict and in understanding and resolving the discrepancies between episodic and levels based studies.

Although I sampled from among MTurk workers and from the general population to increase representativeness of the sample, participants essentially volunteered to be part of the study. Individuals who have greater demands on their time may be less likely to participate in experience sampling studies that only serve to increase demands on their

time. However, tapping this population will be essential in gaining a more complete picture of the ways in which people prioritize activities in the process of managing conflict. Further, many participants worked in white collar jobs and in organizations that afforded reasonable accommodations for flexible working. Although such a population afforded the opportunity to explore the idea of joint prioritization through flexible working (and leveraging of technology), it also had an important shortcoming. Organizational provisions for flexible working are not available in many organizations and even when available in organizations may not be available to all individuals (Blair-Loy, 2009; Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2006). They are less likely to be offered to individuals working blue collar jobs or in jobs with intense client demands (Blair-Loy, 2009). Future studies should attempt to cast a wider net aimed at including individuals who are employed in professions that placed more demands on the time and thus impact work-family conflict to understand how they manage prioritization in the face of such contextual demands.

Future studies need to examine joint prioritization to gain a greater understand of its phenomenology and its relationship to conflict and interference constructs. Although the idea of joint prioritization carries certain implicit assumptions that there would be no interference involved since both activities are being prioritized at the same time, this study suggests it is more in the form of role juggling, where priority rapidly shifts from one activity to the other, making the experience stressful for the individual. Thus, joint task accomplishment may come at a price. However, it is not clear whether all individuals who report jointly prioritizing activities experience joint prioritization similarly and whether this experience varies within individuals. In summary, defining work family

decision making as prioritizing one domain activity over the other may be restrictive, especially given advancements in how and where work is done. As much as our conceptualization of prioritization needs to expand to accommodate newer options, it is imperative that this be accompanied by rigorous examination, definition, and measurement of the construct.

Conclusion

This study sought to examine the role of decision making logics as mediators of relationship between contextual variables and decision to prioritize work or family through the examination of episodes of work-family conflict. Studying episodes of work-family conflict allows a deeper understanding of the processes that underlie the experience of conflict and its resolution while affording insight into how to better design interventions that are aimed at individual workers to help alleviate and manage work-family conflict rather than tailoring interventions for employee groups when one-size fits all solutions have shown to be less effective.

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Table 1
Within-individual correlations among study variables

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>
1. Daily WFC	2.74	.98	1.00						
2. Daily FWC	2.60	1.02	-.14*	1.00					
3. Prioritized Domain	1.84	.81	-.40**	.33**	1.00				
4. Work activity time allocation	56.15	34.34	.14*	-.14*	-.15*	1.00			
5. Family activity time allocation	43.85	34.34	-.14*	.14*	.15*	-1.00**	1.00		
6. Proportion of Work activity completed	64.98	35.68	.26**	-.32**	-.56**	.33**	-.33**	1.00	
7. Proportion of family activity completed	51.57	4.08	-.35**	.33**	.67**	-.13*	.13*	-.44**	1.00
8. Daily work pressure	2.58	1.33	.33**	-.09	-.34**	-.04	.04	.17**	-.29**
9. Daily family pressure	2.69	1.29	.04	.30**	.15*	-.15*	.15*	-.23**	.20**
10. Social support at work	2.19	1.28	-.12*	.15*	.11†	.00	.00	-.09	.17**
11. Social support from family	2.89	1.52	.19**	-.15*	-.20**	.11†	-.11†	.22**	-.22**
12. Tangible support at work	2.01	1.35	-.13*	.19**	.18**	-.03	.03	-.13*	.24**
13. Tangible support from family	2.82	1.59	.17**	-.18**	-.23**	.17**	-.17**	.24**	-.18**
14. Relationship importance with coworker	3.16	1.44	.10	-.02	-.14*	.10	-.10	.12*	-.13*
15. Relationship importance with family	4.41	.92	-.24**	.18**	.32**	-.07	.07	-.19**	.23**
16. Positives of work activity participation	4.01	1.06	.23**	-.19**	-.32**	.09	-.09	.25**	-.33**
17. Negatives of work activity non-participation	3.43	1.42	.23**	-.12*	-.37**	.09	-.09	.23**	-.34**
18. Positives of family activity participation	4.05	1.02	-.22**	.24**	.43**	-.12	.12	-.28**	.35**
19. Negatives of family activity non-participation	3.73	1.19	-.14*	.34**	.36**	-.10	.10	-.30**	.38**
20. Expected appropriate behavior at work	4.27	.87	.23**	-.11†	-.23**	.07	-.07	.21**	-.22**
21. Expected appropriate in family	4.39	.92	-.17**	.17**	.32**	-.01	.01	-.20**	.25**
22. Work support Daily	2.10	1.19	-.14*	.19**	.16**	-.02	.02	-.12*	.23**
23. Family support daily	2.85	1.48	.19**	-.18**	-.23**	.15*	-.15*	.25**	-.21**
24. Work activity importance	3.59	.83	.19**	-.16**	-.31**	.11†	-.11†	.22**	-.29**
25. Family activity importance	4.08	.87	-.16**	.20**	.37**	-.11†	.11†	-.21**	.31**
26. Positive emotions (mood)	2.29	.64	.03	-.14*	-.04	.08	-.08	.12*	-.07

27. Negative emotions (mood)	1.48	.74	.15*	.07	-.14*	-.13*	.13*	.04	-.09
28. Work Salienc 1	2.36	1.11	.01	.04	.03	-.04	.04	-.04	.02
29. Work Salienc 2	4.49	.62	.04	-.07	.01	.13*	-.13*	.09	-.02
30. Family Salienc 1	4.60	.67	.01	.03	.03	.01	-.01	.03	.04
31. Family Salienc 2	4.76	.66	-.13*	-.12*	.11†	-.06	.06	.04	.07
32. Work Salienc	3.42	.68	.02	.00	.03	.03	-.03	.01	.01
33. Family Salienc	4.67	.51	-.07	-.05	.10	-.05	.05	.03	.08
34. Work activity consequences	3.72	1.10	.26**	-.17**	-.40**	.10†	-.11†	.27**	-.38**
35. Family activity consequences	3.89	1.01	-.19**	.32**	.43**	-.12*	.12*	-.32**	.40**
36. Work Appropriateness	3.61	.85	.11	.00	-.14*	.07	-.07	.11†	-.13*
37. Family Appropriateness	4.06	.72	-.20**	.21**	.30**	-.04	.04	-.20**	.230**

All correlations based on N=275; Although the strength of correlations cannot be ascertained accurately for Level 1 variables due to non-independence of data, the Pearson correlation values as reported as-is.

8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1.00														
.22*	1.00													
-.01	.01	1.00												
.23**	-.21**	.23**	1.00											
.00	-.02	.66**	.15*	1.00										
.27**	-.14*	.19**	.80**	.22**	1.00									
.32**	-.05	.16**	.16**	.12†	.14*	1.00								
.03	.11†	.21**	.11†	.19**	.11	.02	1.00							
.35**	-.12*	-.09	.20**	-.05	.25**	.19**	.02	1.00						
.42**	-.03	-.14*	.09	-.10†	.10†	.29**	-.03	.56**	1.00					
.07	.22**	.20**	-.10	.19**	-.08	.02	.63**	-.10†	-.10	1.00				
.00	.30**	.24**	-.18**	.16**	-.12	-.04	.42**	-.09	-.05	.66**	1.00			
		-												
.31**	-.01	.16**	.18**	-.06	.24**	.23**	-.02	.57**	.50**	-.06	-.16**	1.00		
.02	.125*	.15*	.03	.13*	.02	.10	.49**	-.07	-.06	.66**	.54**	-.04	1.00	
-.01	.00	.91**	.21**	.92**	.22**	.15*	.22**	-.07	-.13*	.21**	.21**	-.12*	.16*	1.00
.26**	-.19**	.22**	.95**	.20**	.95**	.16**	.12†	.24**	.1†	-.09	-.16*	.22**	.02	.23**
.42**	-.02	-.07	.22**	.01	.26**	.20**	-.05	.57**	.50**	-.16**	-.19**	.58**	-.11	-.03
.10	.22**	.23**	.00	.30**	.03	.02	.53**	-.04	-.02	.63**	.48**	.02	.52**	.230**
.08	-.06	.05	.22**	-.02	.19**	.04	.08	.142*	.04	-.01	-.16*	.18**	.04	.01
.29**	.11	.10	.11†	.00	.08	.08	.05	.09	.08	.136*	.17**	.04	.05	.06
-.16**	-.13*	.05	.04	.06	.08	-.08	-.03	.05	.00	-.06	.03	.02	-.09	.06
-.05	-.08	.13*	.18**	.12	.13*	.06	.18**	.136*	-.04	.02	.05	.04	.06	.14*
.21**	.02	.29**	.20**	.23**	.13*	.13*	.19**	.03	.10	.19**	.11†	.05	.18**	.28**
.07	-.13*	.12*	.21**	.20**	.22**	.01	.29**	.04	-.06	.21**	.01	.04	.17**	.17**
-.16**	-.14*	.11†	.12†	.11†	.13*	-.04	.06	.10†	-.02	-.04	.05	.04	-.04	.12
.20**	-.06	.27**	.28**	.28**	.24**	.08	.32**	.04	.02	.26**	.08	.05	.23**	.31**
.44**	-.08	-.13*	.15*	-.09	.19**	.28**	-.01	.85**	.92**	-.112†	-.08	.60**	-.08	-.12*
.03	.29**	.24**	-.16*	.19**	-.12†	-.01	.57**	-.11	-.08	.90**	.93**	-.13*	.65**	.24**

.31**	-.09	.05	.19**	.07	.11**	.81**	.04	.30**	.33**	.1†	-.05	.55**	.12*	.07
.05	.04	.18**	.11	.17**	.08	.25**	.69**	-.03	-.04	.68**	.45**	.06	.73**	.19**

23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
1.00														
.25**	1.00													
.02	-.07	1.00												
.22**	.12*	.09	1.00											
.10	.12	.14*	-.01	1.00										
.07	.11†	-.03	.15*	.01	1.00									
.17**	.18**	.06	.12*	-.14*	.18**	1.00								
.17**	.04	.14*	.10†	.15*	-.14*	-.04	1.00							
.23**	-.02	.34**	.09	-.07	.08	.18**	.14*	1.00						
.13*	.17**	.00	.17**	-.05	.90**	.59**	-.13*	.16**	1.00					
.27**	.02	.32**	.13*	.06	-.03	.10†	.75**	.73**	.03	1.00				
.18**	.60**	-.03	.10	.10	.03	.04	.08	-.02	.04	.03	1.00			
-.14*	-.19**	.61**	-.10	.17**	-.01	.04	.16**	.11†	.01	.18**	-.10†	1.00		
.20**	.31**	.09	.10†	.12*	.02	.05	.20**	.13*	.04	.21**	.36**	.02	1.00	
.1†	-.07	.54**	.07	.13*	.02	.10	.29**	.33**	.06	.41**	-.04	.61**	.49**	1.00

Table 2*Between-individual correlations among study variables*

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>
1. Age	39.53	7.63	1.00									
2. Gender	.80	.43	.15	1.00								
3. Household Income	8.04	1.41	-.03	.19	1.00							
4. Individual Income	6.76	1.85	.22*	.05	.62**	1.00						
5. # of Children living With	1.54	1.10	.21†	.28**	.24*	.26*	1.00					
6. Weekly hours	41.24	7.79	.09	-.18†	-.03	.10	-.13	1.00				
7. Spouse weekly hours	34.30	18.25	-.18	.09	.47**	-.03	.10	-.16	1.00			
8. Tenure‡	8.08	4.10	.44**	-.05	-.01	.20†	.11	-.02	-.17	1.00		
9. WFC	2.83	.76	.04	-.03	-.14	-.05	-.17	.39**	-.07	.07	1.00	
10. FWC	2.57	.76	.18	-.13	-.21†	-.05	-.01	.30**	-.25*	.09	.49**	1.00
11. Work Centrality	2.09	.71	-.17	-.09	.05	-.13	-.16	.07	-.02	-.02	.19†	-.02
12. Family Centrality	.18	.12	-.25*	-.34**	.00	-.06	-.25*	.02	-.01	.02	.05	.01
13. Job Satisfaction	.23	.20	-.05	-.27*	-.25*	-.18	-.29**	-.02	.02	-.04	.34**	.25*
14. Family Satisfaction	.16	.13	-.04	-.35**	-.34**	-.23*	-.15	.08	-.20	.11	.24*	.34**
15. Coworker Support	1.43	.33	-.11	-.28**	-.02	.03	-.12	-.11	-.03	-.03	.06	.14
16. Supervisor Support	3.37	1.16	.06	.17	-.09	-.08	.02	-.02	-.09	-.03	-.14	.01
17. Organizational Support	3.36	.75	.09	.15	.06	.02	.12	-.13	.07	-.01	-.41**	-.29**
18. Openness	3.85	.52	-.08	-.13	-.06	-.13	-.20	.14	.03	-.01	.34**	.13
19. Conscientiousness	3.83	.67	-.21†	.23*	.06	-.14	.25*	-.14	.32**	-.16	-.05	-.24*
20. Extraversion	3.35	.72	.03	.05	.29**	.03	.21	.02	.31**	-.06	.15	-.04
21. Agreeableness	3.74	.36	.10	.31**	-.18†	-.10	.22*	-.22*	.03	.13	.01	-.13
22. Neuroticism	2.51	.78	.11	-.05	.00	.05	-.16	.07	.01	-.03	.18†	.23*
23. Prevention Focus	4.33	.52	-.20†	.24*	.12	-.05	.08	-.11	.32**	-.08	.08	-.22*
24. Promotion Focus	3.56	.67	-.09	.16	.09	-.06	.13	.16	.33**	-.07	.13	-.10
25. Decision making by consequences	5.54	.87	-.05	.08	.03	.05	.00	.03	.13	-.12	.15	-.09
26. Decision making by appropriateness	5.70	.89	.06	.26*	.11	.08	.14	-.01	.08	-.13	-.04	.15
27. Family Support	3.80	.77	-.23*	.20	.23*	.12	-.01	.11	.22*	-.22*	-.10	-.36**
28. Family Pressure	3.45	.99	.16	.06	-.11	-.04	.17	-.15	-.09	.15	-.06	.26*
29. Work Pressure	3.49	.94	.02	.10	-.10	-.18	-.14	.25*	-.07	.29**	.61**	.23*

Degrees of freedom based on N=85

† Correlation significant at the .1 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0 .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
1.00																		
.453**	1.00																	
-.11	.06	1.00																
-.02	.37**	.35**	1.00															
.03	.25*	.45**	.30**	1.00														
.09	-.06	-.39**	-.04	-.54**	1.00													
-.05	.03	-.37**	-.10	-.35**	.40**	1.00												
.14	.03	.12	.08	.01	.06	-.16	1.00											
.04	-.25*	-.22*	-.36**	-.23*	-.03	-.04	.00	1.00										
.10	-.18†	-.01	-.24*	-.13	-.07	-.08	.21*	.32**	1.00									
-.248*	-.41**	-.08	-.21†	-.35**	.14	.06	-.07	.35**	.05	1.00								
.03	.18†	.14	.23*	.15	-.05	-.05	.01	-.29**	-.35**	-.34**	1.00							
.00	-.10	-.21	-.38**	-.09	-.08	-.21†	.05	.53**	.12	.27*	-.14	1.00						
.12	-.05	-.10	-.26*	-.05	-.01	-.10	.07	.41**	.25*	.02	-.23*	.54**	1.00					
.12	.05	-.20†	-.16	-.21	.02	-.02	.29**	.17	.19†	.18†	-.09	.33**	.27*	1.00				
-.09	-.21†	-.20†	-.46**	-.24*	.09	.06	.05	.17	.23*	.29**	-.18	.16	.14	.35**	1.00			
.02	-.11	-.32**	-.45**	-.29**	.13	.13	.01	.32**	.17	.25*	-.21†	.21	.16	.20†	.28*	1.00		
-.09	-.21*	.04	.11	-.12	-.01	-.03	-.07	-.01	-.05	.03	-.07	-.06	-.01	-.06	-.02	-.43**	1.00	
.236*	.09	.22*	.19†	.11	-.15	-.42**	.36**	-.02	.16	-.01	-.04	.10	.12	.09	-.18†	-.18†	.00	1.00

Table 3

ICC for study variables

<i>Variable</i>	<i>ICC</i>
Daily work pressure	.41
Daily family pressure	.43
Social support at work	.47
Social support from family	.58
Tangible support at work	.45
Tangible support from family	.45
Work activity importance	.34
Family activity importance	.39
Positives of work activity participation	.29
Negatives of work activity non-participation	.21
Positives of family activity participation	.22
Negatives of family activity non-participation	.26
Relationship importance with coworker	.36
Relationship importance with family	.34
Expected appropriate behavior at work	.33
Expected appropriate in family	.26
Time allocation to work activity	.17
Time allocation to family activity	.16
Proportion of work activity completed	.12
Proportion of family activity completed	.20
Positive emotions (mood)	.26
Negative emotions (mood)	.66

Table 4*Alpha for between-individual study measures*

<i>Measure</i>	<i>Authors</i>	<i>Alpha</i>
Work to family conflict (9 items)	Carlson et al., (2000)	.86
Family to work conflict (9 items)	Carlson et al., (2000)	.73
Work Centrality (12 items)	Hirschfeld & Field (2000)	.81
Family Centrality (10 items)	Bagger & Li (2012)	.78
Work salience Value (5 items)	Adapted from Amatea et al. (1986)	.66
Work salience commitment (5 items)	Adapted from Amatea et al. (1986)	.78
Family salience Value (5 items)	Adapted from Amatea et al. (1986)	.60
Family salience commitment (5 items)	Adapted from Amatea et al. (1986)	.67
Job satisfaction (3 items)	Camman et al., (1983)	.85
Family satisfaction (5 items)	Camman et al., (1983)	.77
Coworker Support (3 items)	Dolcos & Daley, (2009)	.79
Supervisor support (4 items)	Hammer et al., (2013)	.84
Organizational Support (14 items)	Allen (2001)	.85
Family Support (15 items)	Boyar et al., (2014)	.91
Family demand (5 items)	Boyar et al., (2014)	.79
Work demand (5 items)	Boyar et al., (2007)	.83
Decision making by consequences (8 items)	Adapted from Allen & Ng (1999)	.76
Decision making appropriateness (4 items)	Created for this study	.69
Prevention Focus (6 items)	Wallace, Johnson & Frazier, (2009)	.78
Promotion focus (6 items)	Wallace, Johnson & Frazier, (2009)	.87

Table 5*Alpha for within-individual study measures*

<i>Day</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>WFC</i>	<i>FWC</i>	<i>PANAS-Positive</i>	<i>PANAS- Negative</i>
1	103	.51	.61	.88	.89
2	95	.58	.65	.87	.90
3	91	.74	.55	.81	.87
4	94	.67	.70	.86	.90
5	77	.66	.70	.81	.83
6	85	.66	.73	.82	.89
7	81	.71	.82	.88	.90
8	83	.77	.77	.89	.87
9	84	.72	.59	.87	.89
10	88	.75	.62	.90	.86

Table 6
CFA for study measures

<i>Measure</i>		χ^2	<i>CFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
Multidimensional Work- family conflict	6 factors	124.96	.99	.99	.02	.05
Work Centrality	1 factor	87.19	.88	.89	.08	.07
Family Centrality	1 factor	89.93	.81	.74	.13	.09
Work salience	2 factors	97.84	.78	.69	.14	.09
Family salience	2 factors	88.23	.86	.81	.12	.09
Job and family satisfaction	2 factors	23.97	.99	.98	.05	.05
Supervisor support	1 factor	9.89	.96	.89	.20	.05
Organizational Support	1 factor	69.96	.92	.90	.08	.06
Family Support	4 factors	88.79	.93	.90	.09	.06
Family demand	1 factor	25.60	.99	.98	.06	.05
Work demand	1 factor	7.05	.99	.99	.06	.03
Decision making by consequences	2 factors	51.25	.86	.80	.13	.07
Decision making appropriateness	1 factor	10.97	.89	.66	.21	.06
Prevention and Promotion Focus	2 factors	61.14	.96	.94	.07	.05

Table 7

Summary of hypotheses test results based on 1-1-1 model with time allocation to work as continuous outcome variable

<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Magnitude of Indirect Effect</i>	<i>Support</i>
H1a: Perceived work pressure → Perceived benefits of participation → work activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = .37, SE = .81, p = .65$	Not supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived sanctions for non-participation → work activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = 1.96, SE = 1.02, p = .05$	Supported
H1b: Perceived family pressure → Perceived benefits of participation → family activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = .90, SE = .53, p = .09$	Partially supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived sanctions for family activity non-participation → family activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = .87, SE = .63, p = .17$	Not supported
H1c: Perceived work pressure → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → Prioritization of work activity	$\gamma_c = .31, SE = .57, p = .59$	Not supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived importance of relationship with co-worker → work activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = 1.67, SE = .67, p = .01$	Supported
H1d: Perceived family pressure → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = .12, SE = .42, p = .77$	Not supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived importance of relationship with family member → Prioritization of family activity	$\gamma_c = .97, SE = .52, p = .06$	Supported
H2a: Perceived emotional support at work → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = .09, SE = .31, p = .77$	Not supported
H2b: Perceived emotional support from family → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → work activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = .09, SE = .34, p = .80$	Not supported
H2c: Perceived instrumental support at work → Perceived sanctions of non-participation in family activity → Family activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = .29, SE = .37, p = .43$	Not supported

H2d: Perceived instrumental support from family → Perceived sanctions of non-participation in work activity → Work activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = .39, SE = .36, p = .28$	Not supported
H3a: Perceived importance of work activity → perceived benefits of participation in work activity → Work activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = -.09, SE = 2.10, p = .97$	Not supported
Perceived importance of work activity → perceived sanctions of non-participation in activity → Work activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = 2.68, SE = 2.07, p = .20$	Not supported
H3b :Perceived importance of family activity → perceived benefits of participation in family activity → Family activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = 1.59, SE = 2.09, p = .45$	Not supported
Perceived importance of family activity → perceived sanctions of non-participation in family activity → Family activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = 1.19, SE = 1.46, p = .41$	Not supported
H3c: Perceived importance of work activity → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → Work activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = -.22, SE = 1.91, p = .91$	Not supported
Perceived importance of work activity → Perceived importance of relationship with coworker → Work activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = 1.82, SE = .96, p = .06$	Supported
H3d: Perceived importance of family activity → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = -1.48, SE = 1.58, p = .35$	Not supported
Perceived importance of family activity → Perceived importance of relationship with family member → Family activity time allocation	$\gamma_c = 3.31, SE = 2.19, p = .13$	Partially supported

Table 8

Summary of exploratory analyses results based on 1-1-1 model with activity prioritization as dichotomous outcome variable)

<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>indirect effect</i>	<i>Within-individual</i>
H1a: Perceived work pressure → Perceived benefits of participation → work activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = .11, SE = .04, p = .002, LB_{95\%} CI = .04, UB_{95\%} CI = .21, OR = 1.22$	Supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived sanctions for non-participation → work activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = .09, SE = .05, p = .01, LB_{95\%} CI = .01, UB_{95\%} CI = .19, OR = 1.71$	Supported
H1b: Perceived family pressure → Perceived benefits of participation → family activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.15, SE = .06, p < .001, LB_{95\%} CI = -.28, UB_{95\%} CI = -.06, OR = .75$	Supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived sanctions for family activity non-participation → family activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.14, SE = .05, p < .01, LB_{95\%} CI = -.25, UB_{95\%} CI = -.06, OR = .78$	Supported
H1c: Perceived work pressure → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → Prioritization of work activity	$\gamma_c = .02, SE = .03, p = .26, LB_{95\%} CI = -.04, UB_{95\%} CI = -.08, OR = 1.03$	Not supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived importance of relationship with co-worker → work activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = .13, SE = .05, p < .01, LB_{95\%} CI = .05, UB_{95\%} CI = .23, OR = 1.25$	Supported
H1d: Perceived family pressure → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.12, SE = .05, p = .003, LB_{95\%} CI = -.24, UB_{95\%} CI = -.03, OR = .81$	Supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived importance of relationship with family member → Prioritization of family activity	$\gamma_c = -.09, SE = .04, p < .01, LB_{95\%} CI = -.18, UB_{95\%} CI = -.02, OR = .85$	Supported
Perceived emotional support at work → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.08, SE = .05, p = .04, LB_{95\%} CI = -.20, UB_{95\%} CI = .01, OR = .89$	Not Supported
Perceived emotional support from family → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → work activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = .02, SE = .02, p = .08, LB_{95\%} CI = -.01, UB_{95\%} CI = .06, OR = 1.03$	Not Supported
Perceived instrumental support at work → Perceived sanctions of non-participation in family activity → Family activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.05, SE = .04, p = .07, LB_{95\%} CI = -.13, UB_{95\%} CI = .02, OR = .92$	Partially supported

Perceived instrumental support from family → Perceived sanctions of non-participation in work activity → Work activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = .04, SE = .02, p = .02, LB_{95\%} CI < .00, UB_{95\%} CI = .09, OR = 1.27$	Supported
Perceived importance of work activity → perceived benefits of participation in work activity → Work activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = .24, SE = .10, p = .005, LB_{95\%} CI = .06, UB_{95\%} CI = .45, OR = 1.55$	Supported
Perceived importance of work activity → perceived sanctions of non-participation in activity → Work activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = .16, SE = .09, p = .034, LB_{95\%} CI = -.01, UB_{95\%} CI = .35, OR = 1.34$	Partially Supported
Perceived importance of family activity → perceived benefits of participation in family activity → Family activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.37, SE = .15, p = .004, LB_{95\%} CI = -.68, UB_{95\%} CI = -.09, OR = .52$	Supported
Perceived importance of family activity → perceived sanctions of non-participation in family activity → Family activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.23, SE = .10, p = .006, LB_{95\%} CI = -.45, UB_{95\%} CI = -.041, OR = .92$	Supported
Perceived importance of work activity → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → Work activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.03, SE = .10, p = .39, LB_{95\%} CI = -.22, UB_{95\%} CI = .16, OR = .95$	Partially Supported
Perceived importance of work activity → Perceived importance of relationship with coworker → Work activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = .18, SE = .07, p < .001, LB_{95\%} CI = .07, UB_{95\%} CI = .33, OR = 1.39$	Supported
Perceived importance of family activity → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.28, SE = .14, p = .01, LB_{95\%} CI = -.58, UB_{95\%} CI = -.03, OR = .60$	Supported
Perceived importance of family activity → Perceived importance of relationship with family member → Family activity prioritization	$\gamma_c = -.15, SE = .13, p = .11, LB_{95\%} CI = -.40, UB_{95\%} CI = .09, OR = .77$	Supported

Table 9

Summary of hypotheses tests and exploratory analyses based on 1-1-1 model with time allocation to work as continuous outcome variable)

<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Within-individual</i>	<i>Between individual (Exploratory)</i>
Perceived work pressure → Perceived benefits of participation → work activity time allocation	Not supported	Partially supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived sanctions for non-participation → work activity time allocation	Supported	Not supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived benefits of participation → family activity time allocation	Supported	Not supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived sanctions for family activity non-participation → family activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → Prioritization of work activity	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived importance of relationship with co-worker → work activity time allocation	Supported	Not supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived importance of relationship with family member → Prioritization of family activity	Supported	Not supported
Perceived emotional support at work → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived emotional support from family → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → work activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived instrumental support at work → Perceived sanctions of non-participation in family activity → Family activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported

Perceived instrumental support from family → Perceived sanctions of non-participation in work activity → Work activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of work activity → perceived benefits of participation in work activity → Work activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of work activity → perceived sanctions of non-participation in activity → Work activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of family activity → perceived benefits of participation in family activity → Family activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of family activity → perceived sanctions of non-participation in family activity → Family activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of work activity → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → Work activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of work activity → Perceived importance of relationship with coworker → Work activity time allocation	Supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of family activity → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity time allocation	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of family activity → Perceived importance of relationship with family member → Family activity time allocation	Partially supported	Partially supported

Table 10*Summary of exploratory analyses based on 1-1-1 model with activity prioritization as dichotomous outcome variable)*

<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Within-individual</i>	<i>Between individual (Exploratory)</i>
Perceived work pressure → Perceived benefits of participation → work activity prioritization	Supported	Not supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived sanctions for non-participation → work activity prioritization	Supported	Supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived benefits of participation → family activity prioritization	Supported	Supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived sanctions for family activity non-participation → family activity prioritization	Supported	Supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → Prioritization of work activity	Not supported	Not supported
Perceived work pressure → Perceived importance of relationship with co-worker → work activity prioritization	Supported	Not supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity prioritization	Supported	Not supported
Perceived family pressure → Perceived importance of relationship with family member → Prioritization of family activity	Supported	Not supported
Perceived emotional support at work → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity prioritization	Not Supported	Not Supported
Perceived emotional support from family → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → work activity prioritization	Not Supported	Not Supported
Perceived instrumental support at work → Perceived sanctions of non-participation in family activity → Family activity prioritization	Partially supported	Not Supported
Perceived instrumental support from family → Perceived sanctions of non-participation in work activity → Work activity prioritization	Supported	Not Supported
Perceived importance of work activity → perceived benefits of participation in work activity → Work activity prioritization	Supported	Not supported

Perceived importance of work activity → perceived sanctions of non-participation in activity → Work activity prioritization	Partially Supported	Supported
Perceived importance of family activity → perceived benefits of participation in family activity → Family activity prioritization	Supported	Supported
Perceived importance of family activity → perceived sanctions of non-participation in family activity → Family activity prioritization	Supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of work activity → Perceived appropriateness of work role behaviors → Work activity prioritization	Partially Supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of work activity → Perceived importance of relationship with coworker → Work activity prioritization	Supported	Not supported
Perceived importance of family activity → Perceived appropriateness of family role behaviors → Family activity prioritization	Supported	Supported
Perceived importance of family activity → Perceived importance of relationship with family member → Family activity prioritization	Supported	Supported

Appendix A Consent Form

You are invited to participate in a research study of the examination of work-family conflict situations among working adults. You were selected as a possible participant since you expressed interest in being part of this study and participated in our initial work-family conflict survey. We request that you read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be part of the study.

This study is part of dissertation of Lalitha Urs, a doctoral candidate in Industrial-Organizational Psychology at the University of Minnesota and is being conducted under the guidance of Aaron M. Schmidt, Professor of Industrial-Organizational Psychology at the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities. The purpose of this study is to understand work-family related decisions that working adults make on a daily basis. Given the growing concerns about work-family balance, it is important to study how individuals make decisions on a daily basis when conflicts arise and how they go about resolving these conflicts.

Surveys Procedures If you agree to participate in this study, we will ask you to complete a) one baseline survey, which contains some general questions about your work and family, which will take about 25 minutes to complete, and b) 5 daily surveys, which will each take about 8-10 minutes to complete, for the next five days. The baseline survey will follow the informed consent form while the daily surveys will be emailed to you as a link and will ask more focused questions about work-family decisions that you made on that specific day.

Survey Responding The baseline survey contains psychological and demographic questions apart from a couple of questions that aim to check for participant fatigue and boredom. These items may be of the form, “please select agree as your response to this item.” If you fail to answer these questions correctly, we may end up having to disregard your data. This is because careless responding may mean that the questions are not answered correctly or candidly and can bias the results of the study.

Risks And Benefits Of Study Participation The study involves minimal risk: It is possible that you find it tedious to respond to the questions. There are no direct benefits to you beside the monetary compensation that you will receive for participating and completing the surveys. It is however possible that, in responding to the daily surveys, you may gain greater self-awareness about how you respond to various events and your associated behaviors and emotions. The findings from the study will help provide further insight into how individuals make daily decisions, what factors they consider in making these decisions and potential motivations.

Compensation You will receive compensation in the form of a e-gift card for your participation in the study. This will be emailed to you on the completion of the two week survey period. The amount that you receive will be based on the number of surveys you complete over the course of the two-week study period. You will earn \$5 just for

completing the baseline survey. For the daily surveys, the payment will be as follows. \$2 for each of the first five surveys you complete and submit; \$3 for each of the sixth through tenth survey you complete and submit; If you complete all 10 surveys, you will receive a bonus of \$2. Thus, you can earn a maximum payment of \$32 by completing all daily surveys and the baseline survey.

To Complete Baseline Survey If you wish to participate in this study, please proceed further in your perusal of informed consent details and complete the required questions. You will then be guided to take the baseline survey.

To Complete Daily Surveys The daily survey links will be sent to your email ID. You will receive them around 4pm each day and are required to complete the surveys before bedtime. Please ensure that the daily surveys are submitted before 12:00 midnight of the same day. Therefore, you will therefore have 8 hours within which to complete the daily survey. Unfortunately, late submissions will not be accepted and will be counted as incomplete.

Confidentiality All records and data collected in this study will be kept private. In any sort of report we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Data collection, storage and analysis will be in adherence to University policy and is aimed at protecting confidentiality. Research records will be encrypted and stored securely in keeping with policy and only researchers will have access to the records.

Voluntary Nature of Participation Your participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision to participate or withdraw from this study will have no bearing on your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota. Further, even if you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contact Us The researchers conducting this study are Lalitha Urs and Aaron M. Schmidt. You can now ask any questions you may have. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact them at 786.999.4858 or email them at ursxx003@umn.edu or goal.lab.contact@umn.edu If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to speak with someone other than the researcher(s), you are encouraged to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455; (612) 625-1650.

Statement of Informed Consent I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I submit that I am 18 years or older AND that by entering my MTurk ID, I consent to participate in the study. I understand that if I have any questions about my rights as a research participant, I may contact the

University of Minnesota's Research Subjects' Advocate Line at D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455; (612) 625-1650.

- Agree (After selecting this option, you will be allowed to begin the study)
- Disagree (By selecting this option, you will terminate this session)

Knowledge Check Questions

Please answer the following questions.

I will earn a bonus payment for completing the baseline and all daily surveys.

- True
- False

As part of this study, I will need to complete ___ baseline survey/s and ___ daily survey/s.

- 1, 7
- 2, 7
- 1, 10
- 2, 10

Demographics

Please answer the following questions.

1. What is your age in years? (Please enter 999 if you choose not to answer this question)
2. Please indicate your gender
 - Male (1)
 - Female (2)
 - I choose not to answer (3)
3. What is your race / ethnicity?
 - African/American (1)
 - American Indian (2)
 - Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (3)
 - Asian American (4)
 - Hispanic/Latino origin (5)
 - White/Caucasian (6)
 - Other (7)
 - I choose not to answer (8)

4. Please indicate the category that best represents your income level

- Less than \$10,000 per year (1)
- \$10,000 to \$15,000 per year (2)
- \$15,001 to \$20,000 per year (3)
- \$20,001 to \$30,000 per year (4)
- \$30,001 to \$40,000 per year (5)
- \$40,001 to \$50,000 per year (6)
- \$50,001 to \$75,000 per year (7)
- \$75,001 to \$100,000 per year (8)
- \$100,001 or more per year (9)
- I choose not to answer (10)

5. Please indicate the category that best represents your household's income level

- Less than \$10,000 per year (1)
- \$10,000 to \$15,000 per year (2)
- \$15,001 to \$20,000 per year (3)
- \$20,001 to \$30,000 per year (4)
- \$30,001 to \$40,000 per year (5)
- \$40,001 to \$50,000 per year (6)
- \$50,001 to \$75,000 per year (7)
- \$75,001 to \$100,000 per year (8)
- \$100,001 or more per year (9)
- I choose not to answer (10)

6. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Some primary school (1)
- Some middle school (2)
- Some high school (3)
- High school graduate (4)
- Some college (5)
- College graduate (6)
- Some post-graduate college work (7)
- Masters degree or MBA (8)
- PhD (9)
- I choose not to answer (10)

7. Please indicate your marital status

- Married (1)
- Living with a partner (2)

8. Do you have children?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

9. Answer If Do you have children? Yes Is Selected

How many children do you have?

10. Answer If Do you have children? Yes Is Selected

What are the ages of your children? If you have more than one child, please use commas to separate their ages.

11. Answer If Do you have children? Yes Is Selected

How many of your children live with you at least 50% of the time?

12. Across your life, approximately how many years have you been employed in a PART time job? Part-time employment is generally regarded as working 30-hours or less per week.

13. Across your life, approximately how many years have you been employed in a FULL-time job? Full-time employment is generally regarded as working more than 30-hours per week.

14. What is your current job title?

15. Currently, how many hours per week do typically you work for pay?

16. Currently, how many hours per week does your partner/spouse typically work for pay?

17. How many months have you been working with your present organization?

18. Currently, how many hours per week do you dedicate to volunteer work (i.e., working on behalf of others or a particular cause without payment for your time and services)?

Work-family Conflict

Instructions: Below are several statements with which you may agree or disagree. The words “work” and “job” refer to all work-related activities that you do as part of paid work. The word “family” refers to the following domains of family life that pertain to you, including being a parent, being a spouse/partner, and overall home-life. Please think about your work and family in general when responding and use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- Strongly disagree to 5 – Strongly agree

1. My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.
3. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.
4. The time I spend on family, responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities.
5. The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.
6. I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.
7. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/ responsibilities.
8. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
9. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.
10. Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work. [L]
[SEP]
11. Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.
12. Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.
13. The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.
14. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.
15. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.
16. The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.
17. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.
18. The problem-solving behavior that works for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.

Work Centrality

Instructions: *Please think about your work in general when responding to the following questions. The words “work” and “job” refer to all work-related activities that you do as part of paid work. Your responses should range between strongly disagree and strongly agree.*

1. Work should only be a small part of one's life.
2. In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be work oriented.

3. Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in work.
4. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my work.
5. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.
6. I have other activities more important than my work.
7. Work should be considered central to life.
8. I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money.
9. To me, my work is only a small part of who I am.
10. Most things in life are more important than work.
11. If unemployment benefit was really high, I would still prefer to work
12. Overall, I consider work very central to my existence.

Family Centrality

Instructions: *Please think about your family in general when responding to the following questions. The word "family" refers to the following domains of family life that pertain to you, including being a parent, being a spouse/partner, and overall home-life. Your responses should range between strongly disagree and strongly agree.*

1. Family should only be a small part of one's life.
2. In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be family oriented.
3. Life is worth living only when people get absorbed in family.
4. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my family.
5. The most important things that happen to me involve my family.
6. I have other activities more important than my family.
7. Family should be considered central to life.
8. To me, my family is only a small part of who I am.
9. Most things in life are more important than family.
10. Overall, I consider family to be very central to my existence.

Work Role Salience

Instructions: *Please think in general about your job and work when responding to the following questions. The words "work" and "job" refer to all work-related activities that you do as part of paid work.*

1. Having work/ a career that is interesting and exciting to me is my most important life goal.
2. I expect my job/career to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do.
3. If you live in the US, select Strongly agree.
4. Building a name and reputation through work/a career is not one of my life goals.
5. It is important to me that I have a job/a career in which I can achieve something of importance.
6. It is important to me to feel successful in my work/career.
7. I want to work, but I do not want to have a demanding career. (reversed)
8. I expect to make as many sacrifices as are necessary in order to advance in my work/career.
9. I value being involved in a career and expect to devote the time to building my career and developing the skills necessary to advance in my career.
10. I expect to devote whatever time and energy it takes to move up in my job/career field.

Family Salience

Instructions: Please think about family in general when responding to the following questions. The word "family" refers to the following domains of family life that pertain to you, including being a parent, being a spouse/partner, and overall home-life.

1. Although family requires many sacrifices, the love and enjoyment of family of one's own are worth it all.
2. If I had chosen not to have a family, I would have regretted it.
3. It is important to me to feel I am (will be) an effective parent.
4. The whole idea of having a family of my own is not attractive to me. (Reversed)
5. My life would be empty if I never had a family.
6. It is important to me to have some time for myself and my own development rather than having to always be responsible for the care of my children.
7. I devote a significant amount of my time and energy to the rearing of my children.
8. I am very involved in the day-to-day details matters of rearing my children.
9. Being involved in the day-to-day details of rearing children involved costs in other areas of my life, which I am unwilling to make. (Reversed)
10. I am not very involved in child rearing (Reversed)

Job satisfaction

Instructions: Please think about your current job when responding to the following questions. The word "job" refers to all work-related activities that you do as part of paid work at your current job.

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don't like my job.
3. In general, I like working at my organization.

Family Satisfaction

Instructions: *Below are five statements about family. The word "family" refers to the following domains of family life that pertain to you including being a parent, being a spouse/partner, and overall home-life. Please be open and honest in your responding.*

1. Most days I am enthusiastic about my family life.
2. I feel fairly well satisfied with my family life.
3. I find real enjoyment in my family life.
4. I like my family life better than the average person does.
5. I am often bored with my family life.

Supervisor, Team and Organizational Support

Instructions: *Below are some statements about the support that you receive from co-workers (supervisors, peers, team etc.) and the organization. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with these statements using a 5-point response scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree.*

1. My coworkers provide me the support that I need to do a good job.
2. My coworkers provide me the support that helps me manage my work and personal/family life.
3. I feel I really am a part of the group of people I work with.
4. My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him/her about my conflicts between work and non-work.
5. My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues.
6. My supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work.
7. My supervisor organizes the work in my department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company.

Organizational support

To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements represents the philosophy or beliefs of your organization (remember, these are not your own personal beliefs, but pertain to what you believe is the philosophy of your organization)?" Please

rate these items on a 5-point response scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

1. Work should be the primary priority in a person's life.
2. Long hours inside the office are the way to achieving advancement.
3. It is best to keep family matters separate from work.
4. It is considered taboo to talk about life outside of work.
5. Expressing involvement and interest in non-work matters is viewed as healthy. ^{[[L]]}_{[[SEP]]}
6. Employees who are highly committed to their personal lives cannot be highly committed to their work.
7. Attending to personal needs, such as taking time off for sick children is frowned upon.
8. Employees should keep their personal problems at home.
9. The way to advance in this company is to keep non-work matters out of the workplace.
10. Individuals who take time off to attend to personal matters are not committed to their work.
11. ^{[[L]]}_{[[SEP]]}It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life.
12. Employees are given ample opportunity to perform both their job and their personal responsibilities well.
13. Offering employees flexibility in completing their work is viewed as a strategic way of doing business. ^{[[L]]}_{[[SEP]]}
14. The ideal employee is the one who is available 24 hours a day. (R)

Family Support

Instructions: *Below are a few statements about family. Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. Please use a 5 point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.*

1. My family is willing to listen to me when I talk about work
2. My family understands how important my job is to me
3. Someone in my family asks me regularly about my workday
4. If my job gets very demanding, someone in my family will take on extra household duties
5. If I have to work late, I can count on someone in my family to take care of everything at home
6. When I'm having a difficult week at my job, my family tries to do more work around the house
7. Family members adjust their schedules to meet my work needs
8. When I have a tough day at home, family members try to cheer me
9. Family members share family-related ideas and advice with me
10. If I am having problems at home, my family provides advice
11. I can depend on my family to help if I really need it

12. My family members do their fair share of household chores
13. Members of my family help with routine household tasks
14. Members of my family are willing to straighten up the house when it needs it.
15. My family expects me to do everything around the house.

Family Demand

Instructions: *Here are a few questions about your family. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with them using a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 – strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree*

1. I have to work hard on family-related activities.
2. My family requires all of my attention.
3. I feel like I have a lot of family demand.
4. I have a lot of responsibility in my family.

Work Demand

Instructions: *Here are a few questions about your work in general. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with them using a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 – strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree*

1. My job requires all of my attention.
2. I feel like I have a lot of work demand.
3. I feel like I have a lot to do at work.
4. My work requires a lot from me.
5. I am given a lot of work to do.

Decision Making

Instructions: *In the following items, the words tasks and activities have been used interchangeably. Tasks/activities refer to any activities, projects, events that may be a part of family or work. Rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements using a 7 point scale. 1 – Strongly disagree to 7 – strongly agree*

1. When making a decision on whether to participate in either a family-activity or a work task, I focus on what is practical in the situation.
2. When deciding on whether or not to participate in any work or family-activity, I think about how worthwhile or useful it will be.
3. Before I make my decision on participating in a work or family-activity, I consider the pros and cons of participating in either activity.
4. I believe in being logical and rational when deciding on my options, including what family or work tasks I should do or not do.
5. When I make important decisions concerning work or family, for me, it is essential to foresee the consequences of each of the options.
6. When choosing between being part of a family-activity and participating in a work task, I believe in deciding on a course of action based on a careful examination of all that the options hold.

7. At work or at home, I believe in making responsible and well-considered decisions.
8. At home or at work, I believe in exercising self-control and not being impulsive when deciding on what I want to do.
9. When I make a decision, I think about my relationship with the other person involved in the decision.
10. When I make a decision, I think about my role and what I am obliged to do or not do.
11. When I make a decision, I think about whether it respects social rules of how I should behave in the situation.
12. When I make a decision, I think about what is/might be expected of me in that situation.

Appendix B

Work-family Conflict Study - Daily Survey

The purpose of this research study is to explore how individuals make decisions when faced with conflicting work and family priorities. Previous research indicates that many people experience such work-family conflict incidents on a daily basis. Therefore, we are keen to learn about your experiences of work-family conflict and their subsequent resolution using these daily surveys. It is important that the decision making process is fresh in your mind so you can record this process as accurately as possible.

There are a few things that can be helpful to remember as you go about completing the daily surveys. The links to the daily survey are sent between 5:00 and 6:00 pm every day. We expect you to complete the survey before bedtime and submit it no later than 12:00 midnight of that day. As noted before, we will not be able to accept surveys submitted after 12:00 midnight and such responses will be considered as non-submissions.

When recording the details of the work-family conflict you experienced, feel free to record as much details as possible about each time you had to make a decision regarding conflicting work and family responsibilities. However, please try to include the following details in your responses:

1. The nature of the conflict
2. The decision that you arrived at regarding the two competing activities
3. The factors that impacted how you arrived at this decision
4. The outcome of the decision made and how you felt about it
5. Any other details that you think might be relevant.

Your experiences are valuable as this is the way in which future research can move forward and make a difference.

Any details of conflicts that you provide in the survey will be strictly confidential. If you have any queries at anytime while completing the diary please feel free to contact Lalitha Urs, at ursxx003@umn.edu or goal.lab.contact@gmail.com. Thank you for your participation and help with this research.

Welcome to Day #__ of the Work & Family Study.

Work-Family Conflict

*Instructions: Below are six statements that pertain to work and family related experience/s you had today. Please think about **today's work and family experiences** when responding to these items.*

1. Today, I had to miss family activities due to the amount of time I had to spend on work responsibilities.
2. Today, I was so emotionally drained when I got home from work that it prevented me from contributing to my family.
3. Today, the behaviors I performed that make me effective at work did not help me to be a better parent and spouse.
4. Today, I had to miss work activities due to the amount of time I had to spend on family responsibilities.
5. Because I was stressed from family responsibilities, I had a hard time concentrating on my work today.
6. Today, behavior that was effective and necessary for me at home was counterproductive at work.

Experience of Work-family conflict episodes

Instructions: *Work-family conflict occurs when work and family produce competing demands.* These demands may be of your time, energy or the kind of behaviors expected of you at home or at work. For instance, your work and family responsibilities may require you to be at two different places at the same time. You may need to choose between making it to the afternoon meeting with your child's teacher or attending the office team meeting scheduled at the same time. Or time and energy demands from an impending deadline at work may prevent you from calling your mother on her birthday.

Did you experience any instances of work-family conflict today?

- Yes
- No

If participant responds 'Yes', then he/she is directed to section 1. If participant responds 'No', then he/she is directed to section 2.

Section 1

Please describe the work–family conflict situation that you experienced today. What was the nature of the conflict?

What did you decide to do? Please describe the decision that you arrived at regarding the two competing/conflicting activities.

How did you arrive at the decision? What cues (factors) did you take into consideration in arriving at the decision?

In resolving the conflict, did you choose the work-activity, the family-activity, or were you able to do both?

- Work-activity
- Family-activity
- Both
- Neither

Roughly, what percentage of your time were you able to allocate to the two activities that needed your attention? Use the slider to indicate the % of time you spent on either activity.

The slider is set at midpoint to indicate that equal amounts of time have been spent on both activities. Move the slider in either direction to indicate the amount of time you spent on the work-activity. If you spent more time on work, say 60% of your time was spent on the work-activity, move the slider along to the right so that it stands at the 60% mark. Alternately, if you spent only 30% of your time on the work-activity, but the rest on the family-activity, move the slider left until it stands at the 30% mark.

Please explain how you felt about the decision after it was made and anything that occurred as a result.

Role sender pressure

Instructions: *Below are two statements that pertain to your experience/s of work - family conflict today. Please think specifically about **today's experience of work-family conflict** when responding to the following questions and use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- no pressure to 5 – a great deal of pressure*

Work role sender pressure

1. How much pressure did you feel from people at work (e.g., supervisors, subordinates, coworkers, suppliers, customers) to choose work over family?

Family role sender pressure

2. How much pressure did you feel from people at home (e.g., spouse/partner, children, parents, etc.) to choose family over work?

Emotional role sender support

Instructions: *Below are few statements that pertain to your experience/s of work - family conflict today. Please think specifically about **today's experience of work-family conflict** when responding to the following questions and use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- no support to 5 – a great deal of support.*

Social support is emotional or psychological support, such as listening to problems, providing advice, and being understanding; it is support that helps one deal with the emotional effects of work-family conflict but does not modify the situation to resolve the conflict.

1. How much social support did you receive from people at work that helped you to meet your family responsibilities?
2. How much social support did you receive from people at home that helped you to meet your work responsibilities?

Instrumental role sender support

Instructions: *Tangible support is action/s, such as rescheduling an event or assuming responsibility for the task, that helps one solve a work-family problem or eliminate the conflict.*

1. How much tangible support did you receive from people at work that helped you to meet your family responsibilities?
2. How much tangible support did you receive from people at home that helped you to meet your work responsibilities?

Activity Importance

Instructions: *Below are few statements that pertain to your experience/s of work - family conflict today. Importance here reflects the significance of the task/activity either to you or to others. Please think specifically **about today's experience of work-family conflict and the work and family activities that were part of the conflict**, when responding to the following questions. Please use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- not at all important to 5 – extremely important*

1. How important was/is the work-activity to you?
2. How important was/is the family-activity to you?
3. Objectively, how important was/is the work-activity to people at work?
4. Objectively, how important was/is the family-activity to people in the family?

Maintenance of relationship with role senders

*Below are a few statements that pertain to your experience/s of work - family conflict today. Please think specifically **about today's experience of work-family conflict and the work and family activities that were part of the conflict**, when responding to the following questions. Co-workers may refer to supervisor, peers, subordinates, customers and/or suppliers and use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree*

1. Today, I was thinking about my relationship with my coworker when deciding to participate in the work-activity.
2. Today, I was thinking about my relationship with my family member when deciding to participate in the family-activity.

Consequences of participation

*Instructions: Below are few statements that pertain to your experience/s of work - family conflict today. Please think specifically **about today's experience of work-family conflict and the work and family activities that were part of the conflict**, when responding to the following questions. Please use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree*

Decision to participate in various activities may, among other things, be based on a consideration of whether participation in the activity could result in positive or negative outcomes for oneself/team/family etc. The term 'benefits' refer to positive/desired outcomes (or even potential outcomes) while negative/undesired outcomes are referred to as 'sanctions.'

1. Today, I participated in the work-activity because it had important benefits for me at work.
2. Today, my non-participation in the work-activity held undesirable consequences (outcomes) for me at work.
3. Today, participating in the family event had important family outcomes for me and/or my family.
4. Today, my non-participation in the family-activity could have resulted in undesirable outcomes for me and/or my family.

Appropriate standards of role behavior

*Instructions: Below are few statements that pertain to your experience/s of work - family conflict today. Please think specifically **about today's experience of work-family conflict and the work and family activities that were part of the conflict**, when responding to the following questions. Use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree*

1. Today, participating in the work-activity was an important part of my role and responsibilities as an employee.
2. Today, participating in the family-activity was an important part of my role and responsibilities as a family member.
3. Today, when deciding between participating in a work and a family-activity, I thought about whether my decision respects social rules of how I should behave in the situation.
4. Today, when making decisions at work or at home, I thought about my relationship with the other person involved in the decision.

Section 2

Role sender pressure

*Instructions: Below are some statements that pertain to your experience/s of work and family. Please think about today's **experiences of work and family in general** when responding to the following questions. Use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- no pressure to 5 – a great deal of pressure.*

1. Today, how much pressure did you feel from people at work (e.g., supervisors, subordinates, coworkers, suppliers, customers) to prioritize work over family?
2. Today, how much pressure did you feel from people at home (e.g., spouse/partner, children, parents, etc.) to choose family over work?

Emotional role sender support

*Instructions: Below are a few statements that pertain to your experience/s of work and family. Please **think about today's experience/s in general** when responding to the following questions and use a 5 point scale ranging from 1-no support to 5 – a lot support*

Social support is emotional or psychological support, such as listening to problems, providing advice, and being understanding; it is support that helps one deal with the emotional effects of work–family conflict but does not modify the situation to resolve the conflict.

1. How much social support did you receive from people at work that helped you to meet your family responsibilities?
2. How much social support did you receive from people at home that helped you to meet your work responsibilities?

Instrumental role sender support

Tangible support is action/s, such as rescheduling an event or assuming responsibility for the task, that helps one solve a work–family problem or eliminate the conflict.

1. How much tangible support did you receive from people at work that helped you to meet your family responsibilities?
2. How much tangible support did you receive from people at home that helped you to meet your work responsibilities?

Maintenance of relationship with role senders

*Instructions: Below are a few statements that pertain to your experience/s of work and family. Co-workers may refer to supervisor, peers, subordinates, customers and/or suppliers. Please think **in general about today's experiences** when responding to the following questions and use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree.*

1. My relationship with my coworkers (supervisor, peers, subordinates) is important to me.
2. My relationship with my family members (spouse, children, parents) is important to me.

Consequences of participation

*Instructions: Below are a few statements that pertain to your experience/s of work and family. Please **think in general about today's experiences** when responding to the following questions and use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree.*

1. When deciding whether to participate in an activity (work or family related), I think about the consequences of participation and non-participation.
2. When deciding whether to participate in an activity (work or family related), I think about the usefulness of the activity.
3. I am rational and logical when deciding on what activities (work or family related) to participate in.

Appropriate standards of role behavior

*Instructions: Below are a few statements that pertain to your experience/s of work and family. Please **think generally about today's experience/s** when responding to the following questions and use a 5 point scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree*

1. Participating in important work activities is an important part of my role and responsibilities as an employee.
2. Participating in important family activities is an important part of my role and responsibilities to my family.
3. When deciding between participating in a work and a family-activity, I think about whether my decision respects social rules of how I should behave in the situation.
4. When making decisions at work or at home, I think about my relationship with the other person involved in the decision.

Appendix C

Compensation structure for participants recruited through sources other than Mechanical Turk

Survey(s) completed and submitted	Payment
Baseline	\$5.00
Baseline + 1 daily survey	\$7.00
Baseline + 2 daily surveys	\$9.00
Baseline + 3 daily surveys	\$11.00
Baseline + 4 daily surveys	\$13.00
Baseline + 5 daily surveys	\$15.00
Baseline + 6 daily surveys	\$18.00
Baseline + 7 daily surveys	\$21.00
Baseline + 8 daily surveys	\$24.00
Baseline + 9 daily surveys	\$27.00
Baseline + 10 daily surveys	\$30.00
Total (including \$2 bonus for completing 10 surveys)	\$32.00

Compensation structure for participants recruited through Mechanical Turk

Survey(s) completed and submitted	Original structure (Pilot study)	Revised structure (Main study)
Screening	0.1	0.1
Baseline	\$2.00	\$3.00
Baseline + 1 daily survey	\$2.50	\$4.00
Baseline + 2 daily surveys	\$3.00	\$5.00
Baseline + 3 daily surveys	\$3.50	\$6.00
Baseline + 4 daily surveys	\$4.00	\$7.00
Baseline + 5 daily surveys	\$4.50	\$8.00
Baseline + 6 daily surveys	\$5.25	\$10.00
Baseline + 7 daily surveys	\$6.00	\$12.00
Baseline + 8 daily surveys	\$6.75	\$14.00
Baseline + 9 daily surveys	\$7.50	\$16.00
Baseline + 10 daily surveys	\$8.25	\$18.00
Baseline + 11 daily surveys	\$9.25	
Baseline + 12 daily surveys	\$10.25	
Baseline + 13 daily surveys	\$11.25	
Baseline + 14 daily surveys	\$12.25	
Total (including bonus for completing 14 surveys)	\$14.25	\$20.00