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EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF REALISTIC RECRUITMENT ON WORK-FAMILY
CONFLICT: A TEST OF THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EXPECTATIONS

A Dissertation
presented in partial fulfillment of requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Management
The University of Mississippi

by

RUSSELLWAYNE CLAYTON

May 2011

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ABSTRACT

This research considered how the realistic recruitment practices of Realistic Job Preview (RJP) and Expectation Lowering Procedure (ELP) may assist employees in reducing perceptions of Work-Family Conflict (WFC). This relationship was theorized as indirect, with Met Expectations mediating the relationship between realistic recruitment and WFC. As such, the current research sheds new light on a protective antecedent of WFC. Furthermore, the disposition of work-family centrality was tested also hypothesized to moderate the relationship between realistic recruitment and Met Expectations.

Three studies were conducted in order to empirically test the hypothesized relationships. Study 1 was a cross-sectional survey utilizing a broad sample of working adults. Study 2 sampled employees of a public school district in the Southeastern United States using a similar cross-sectional survey to Study 1. Study 3, also using a broad sample of working adults, was experimental in nature and randomly assigned participants to one of four conditions. Results across all three studies provide initial support for RJP and ELP being protective antecedents of WFC. That is, those individuals who received a realistic recruitment tended to have fewer perceptions of WFC. This relationship was found to be both full mediated through Met Expectations (Study 1) and partially mediated via Met Expectations (Study 2). Implications for theory, practice, and future research are discussed.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to God, whom I firmly believe placed me at The University of Mississippi for His purpose.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

WFC	Work-Family Conflict
WIF	Work Interference with Family
FIW	Family Interference with Work
RJP	Realistic Job Preview
ELP	Expectation Lowering Procedure
IV	Independent Variable
DV	Dependent Variable
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
RMSR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	vii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER TWO: HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT	7
CHAPTER THREE: DESIGN, METHODOLOGY, AND RESULTS	39
CHAPTER FOUR: INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS	67
CHAPTER FIVE: IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS	74
REFERENCES	84
APPENDIX A	105
APPENDIX B	109
APPENDIX C	114
VITA	119

LIST OF TABLES

1. Study 1 – Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations	43
2. Study 1 – Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 1 - 2	44
3. Study 1 – Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 3	44
4. Study 1 – Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 4 - 5	45
5. Structural Equation Modeling Results (Study 1 – RJP and ELP)	47
6. Structural Equation Modeling Results (Study 1 – RJP only)	49
7. Structural Equation Modeling Results (Study 1 –ELP only)	49
8. Study 2 – Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations	53
9. Structural Equation Modeling Results (Study 2 – RJP only)	56
10. Structural Equation Modeling Results (Study 2 – ELP only)	57
11. Study 3 - Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations	62
12. Study 3 – Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 1 - 2	65
13. Study 3 – Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 3	66
14. Study 3 – Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 4 - 5	66
15. Results of Studies 1, 2, & 3	73

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Scholars maintain that the work and family roles are the two most central and prevalent areas in the adult life (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, & Baltes, 2009). Research suggests that perceptions of conflict between work and family roles can produce negative outcomes such as decreases in job satisfaction (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000) and organization commitment (Carr, Boyar, & Gregory, 2008) as well as increases in stress-related outcomes such as fatigue and physical symptoms (Allen et al., 2000). As such, understanding the intersection of work roles and family roles is of great importance to organizational research (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997). Some scholars further argue that aiding employees in their attempts to balance their work and family roles is a business and social imperative (e.g., Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009).

The extant research reveals a number of antecedents of work-family conflict (e.g., job stress, number of hours worked). Yet there has been scant attention paid to how expectations and psychological contracts impact the work and family roles of employees. Furthermore, research on how realistic recruitment practices may impact work-family interactions is non-existent. One study (i.e., Scandura & Lankau, 1997) suggests that employees' perceptions of flexible work arrangements (a common work-life balance benefit in organizations) may lead to creation of a promise or expectation, and thus a psychological contract, favorable towards balancing work and family roles. However, the study stopped short of measuring conflict, expectations, and/or balance between the work and family roles. Thus, the study only implies that promises and expectations in the psychological contract may have some bearing on employees' attempts to

balance the work and family roles. More recent research found that employee perceptions of psychological contract violation by the employer, operationalized as the extent to which employees felt that their organization had kept promises regarding workload and work hours, was positively related to employees' perceptions of work-family conflict (Sturges & Guest, 2004). That is, perceptions of work-family conflict increased as psychological contract violations increased. This appears to be the only study that provides a direct empirical link between the psychological contract and work-family conflict.

Recent research suggests that employers should be concerned with work's interference with employees' fulfillment of personal life goals, as this interference can lead to problems retaining competent workers (Thompson & Aspinwall, 2009). As such, implementing work-life benefits for both managers and rank-and-file employees is one strategy organizations may use to reduce negative outcomes such as turnover (Cascio, 2006). Common work-life benefits include, but are not limited to, compressed work weeks, flexible work hours, job sharing, and telecommuting (Johnson, 1995). While work-life benefits can be costly to implement, firms that offer more work-life benefits to managerial employees benefit from lower voluntary turnover of managers, which in turn may lead to higher returns on assets (Cascio, 2006). Specifically, recent research suggests that while implementing family-friendly workplace practices might not lead to an increase in profits, having these work-life benefits "at least pay for themselves...improv[ing] firm performance in terms of the satisfaction of a particular stakeholder group - the firm's employees" (Bloom, Kretschmer, & Van Reenen, 2011: 360). However, aside from the financial costs and/or gains associated with implementing work-life benefits, not all organizations are in a position to offer these types of benefits due to the nature of their business.

For instance, employees whose primary job is customer relationship management (e.g., account representatives, call center employees) may not be able to utilize compressed work weeks or flexible work hours as their presence on the job is most likely to be required during the typical business hours of their customers (i.e., 8:00 a.m. – 5:00 p.m. Monday through Friday). Additionally, employees such as school teachers or nurses may be unable to take advantage of some common work-life benefits. For example, school teachers are typically required to be present during standard school hours and are unable to leave during the school day, which does not allow for them to utilize the work-life benefit of flexible work hours. Therefore, work-life benefits, while shown to reap positive benefits for some organizations, are not feasible for all organizations. As such, the use of realistic recruitment practices to alter employees' expectations as related to work-life balance may be an alternative to offering work-family benefits and may reduce negative outcomes such as intentions to turnover. Realistic recruitment practices come primarily in the form of realistic job previews (RJP) or expectation lowering procedures (ELP) and are used to reduce the gap between employees' positively inflated pre-employment expectations and the reality that occurs once inside the organization (Morse & Popovich, 2009).

Contribution

The proposed model (Figure 1) will contribute to the work-family literature by empirically testing the relationship between employee met expectations and the work-family interface. I will test the effectiveness of ELP and RJP on reducing perceptions of work interference with family, with employees' met expectations of work-life balance mediating this relationship. I propose that realistic recruitment practices that contain information about the work-family interface will lead to employees' expectations regarding work-family balance being met, thus leading to decreases in perceived conflict between the work and family roles of the

employees. Specifically, this dissertation will examine how more accurate expectations regarding work-family interaction may be formed via the implementation of realistic recruitment practices (ELP and RJP), leading to fewer perceptions of unmet expectations.

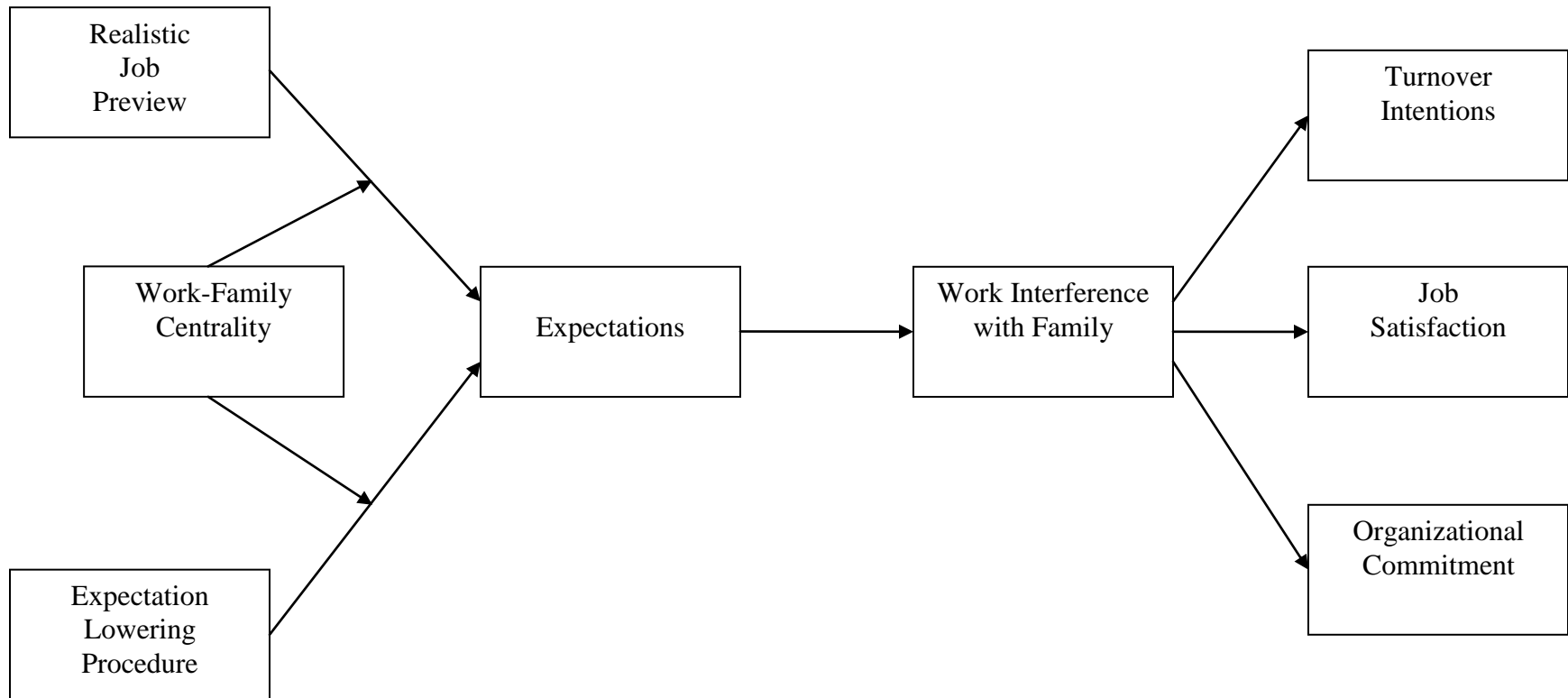
It is hypothesized that high perceptions of met expectations will lead to lower perceptions of conflict (or greater perceptions of balance) between the work and family roles.

I will also seek to answer the call for realistic recruitment research that includes individual difference moderators. Prior research on realistic recruitment has primarily focused on the moderating roles of timing and medium of the RJP (Morse & Popovich, 2009). For example, Phillips' (1998) meta-analysis found that timing of when an RJP was given (e.g., pre-employment, post-employment) accounted for eight percent of the variance in the relationship between RJP and employee job satisfaction while the medium the RJP was presented in (e.g., verbal, written) accounted for 21 percent of the variance in the relationship between RJP and employee commitment to the organization. However, timing and medium are both controlled by the organization. Therefore, there is an absence of research on how employee individual differences may impact realistic recruitment. To fill this gap I will test for the moderating effect of the individual difference variable of work-family centrality.

This study also responds to Breugh and Starke's (2000) call for further research on ELPs. The ELP is a more recent development in realistic recruitment research and is a more generalized realistic recruitment tool as compared to the RJP. That is, while RJP's focus on job-specific conditions (e.g., explicit working hours), the ELP's content is more general in nature and aims to inform recruits of the realities of entering a new job (Morse & Popovich, 2009). Due to the more general nature of the ELP, it is seen as a lower cost alternative to the RJP (Breugh & Starke, 2000). Furthermore, while researchers have called for more research on the ELP as a

low-cost alternative to the RJP, other researchers (e.g., Buckley et al., 1998) have shown that ELPs and RJP may be used together. Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to examine the impact that the interplay between both realistic recruitment practices and met expectations has on employees' perceptions of work-family conflict.

Figure 1 – Theoretical Model



CHAPTER TWO: HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Chapter two provides an overview of the constructs of expectation lowering procedures, realistic job previews, met expectations, psychological contracts, and work-family conflict, and the hypothesized relationships between these constructs. First, a review of the literature on work-family relationships is presented. Next, I provide an overview of the realistic recruitment practices of expectation lowering procedures and realistic job previews. I then follow with a review of the expectations and psychological contract literatures along with a brief discussion on met expectations versus psychological contracts. Finally, the moderating role of work-family centrality is discussed. Hypotheses are formulated and included throughout the literature review.

Overview of the Work-Family Interface

The work and family roles are arguably the two most central areas in the adult life (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Werbel & Walter, 2002). As such, understanding the intersection of work roles and family roles is of great importance to organizational research (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997). Research on work-family issues began when Rhona and Robert Rapoport published their seminal article “Work and Family in Contemporary Society” in 1965. This was the first scholarly paper to examine the relationship between work and family life (Clayton & Barton, in press). Since then the body of work-life research has grown significantly and continues to gather attention among academics, as well as authors and readers of the popular press (Greenhaus, 2008). Based on the work of Gutek and colleagues (1991), work-family conflict may be best understood as a psychological state of mind of an individual. That is,

perceptions of work-family conflict are more subjective rather than being solely a function of an objective factor, such as the number of hours an individual works.

Research on the intersection of work and family roles has largely fallen into one of four positions: 1) the conflict perspective, which assumes that one role will interfere with functioning in another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985); 2) the balance point of view that individuals are evenly involved in both the work and family roles (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003); 3) the enrichment view, which posits that what happens in one role may serve to improve functioning in the other role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006); and 4) the boundary/border theory perspective that focuses on physical and/or psychological transitions between roles (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Clark, 2000; Winkel & Clayton, 2010). For the purposes of this review, I focus on two of the most prevalent perspectives within work-family research: conflict and balance.

Work-Family Conflict

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) introduced the notion of and provided the seminal and most frequently cited definition (MacDermind & Harvey, 2006) of work-family conflict in the work-family literature. Building on the interrole conflict research of Kahn and colleagues (Kahn et al., 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978), Greenhaus and Beutell offered the following definition of work-family conflict:

a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role. (p. 77)

Work-family conflict can be further broken down into three types of conflict: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based. Time-based conflict results when time devoted to one role takes away from time that could be devoted to another role. This is consistent with the notion of excessive work time and scheduling conflicts discussed by Pleck and colleagues (1980). Time-

based conflict may be the result of an individual being physically involved in a role, thereby preventing him or her from physically being present in another role, or by an individual being psychologically involved in a role (i.e., mental preoccupation with a role) that prevents effective functioning in the role the individual is physically in (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Strain-based conflict exists when the strain in a role affects how an individual performs in another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). That is, strain in one role results in incompatibility between that role and another due to role demands. For example, events at the job site may create stress or fatigue (strain in the work role) that makes functioning at a high level in the family role difficult. The third type of work-family conflict, behavior-based conflict, results when behaviors that are required in one role are contrary to behaviors required in the other role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For instance, a behavior that is appropriate at home (e.g., emotional sensitivity) may be considered inappropriate if displayed in the workplace by a male manager (Schein, 1973). Behavior-based conflict has received the least amount of attention out of the three categories of work-family conflict (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007).

Antecedents of work-family conflict correspond to Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) types of conflict with time-based and strain-based pressures being the most often researched antecedents. One recent meta-analysis demonstrated that work-domain variables (e.g., work support, job stress) relate more to work interference with family (WIF) while nonwork-domain variables (e.g., family support, family stress) relate more to family interference with work (FIW). Another recent meta-analysis found that job stress was the strongest predictor of work-family conflict, specifically with work interfering with the family (Ford et al., 2007). Similarly, family stress was the strongest predictor of family interfering with work, thus, leading to work-family conflict. Job stress and family stress are examples of strain-based conflict antecedents.

Time-based conflict antecedents most strongly and most often related to work-family conflict are hours worked per week, job involvement, and family hours (i.e., time spent on family duties and household obligations) (Ford et al., 2007). In addition, a meta-analysis conducted by Byron (2005) revealed other variables leading to perceptions of work-family conflict. In particular, the work-domain variables of work support and schedule flexibility were both negatively related to work-family conflict. Flexible work schedules as a means of reducing work-family conflict is a finding supported recently by Breugh and Frye (2008) as well. One result from Byron's (2005) meta-analysis of particular interest is that the demographic variables of sex and income were relatively weak direct predictors of work-family conflict. This debunks the line of thinking that men experience work stress more and women experience family/home stress more. Moreover, it confirms the findings in an earlier meta-analysis (Martocchio & O'Leary, 1989) that found no differences between sex and the experience or perception of work stress.

Outcomes of work-family conflict can generally be organized into the three categories of work-related, nonwork-related, and stress-related (Allen et al., 2000). Job satisfaction is the work-related outcome most often researched in conjunction with the work-family interface (Allen et al., 2000). Meta-analyses (e.g., Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) have shown that as perceptions of work-family conflict increases, job satisfaction decreases. Furthermore, recent research (Carr, Boyar, & Gregory, 2008) confirms the negative relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction discussed in earlier meta-analyses. However, exceptions to these findings do exist. Two studies using samples of MBA and graduate students (i.e., O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992; Wiley, 1987) did not find a significant relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. Also, a nonsignificant relationship between

work-family conflict and job satisfaction was the result of a study using dual-earner couples in Hong Kong (Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999).

The relationship between work-family conflict and organizational commitment has also been extensively researched with results supporting an inverse relationship between the two (e.g., Carr et al., 2008; Good, Sisler, & Gentry, 1988; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). In addition, work-family conflict has been associated with intentions to turnover (e.g., Burke, 1988; Good et al., 1988; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Netemeyer et al., 1997). Allen and colleagues' (2000) meta-analysis revealed that intent to turnover has the strongest, positive relationship with work-family conflict. Similarly, organizational retention has been found to be negatively related to work-family conflict (Carr et al., 2008). Finally, business performance, a work-related outcome that is of importance to the "bottom line" of most organizations was shown to be related to work-family conflict. That is, difficulty in managing work-family conflict (in a sample of entrepreneurs) was negatively related to business performance (operationalized as business owners' self-reports of financial measures) in entrepreneurs (Shelton, Danes, & Eisenman, 2008). Finally, Allen and colleagues' (2000) meta-analysis notes that work-family conflict is positively related to fatigue and physical symptoms of stress. These findings were recently corroborated, as work-to-family conflict was shown to be positively related to objective measures of body mass index (BMI) and cholesterol levels in a sample of 1,134 Dutch employees (Van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009).

Work-Family Balance

Work-family (or work-life) balance is the term used most often by the popular press to refer to the intersection of the work and family roles (Greenhaus et al., 2003). In fact, it is thought by many to be virtuous for one to live a balanced life (Kofodimos, 1993). Work-family

balance is defined as “the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in -- and equally satisfied with -- his or her work and family role” (Greenhaus et al., 2003: 513). This particular conceptualization of work-family balance is seen as a continuum with imbalance at one end and balance at the other and consists of three components of balance: time balance, involvement balance, and satisfaction balance. Time balance refers to an individual’s time being divided equally between the work and family roles whereas involvement balance refers to equal psychological involvement in both roles (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Satisfaction balance refers to an individual gaining equal satisfaction from both roles (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Finally, involvement balance is having an equal level of psychological involvement in the work and family roles.

Frone’s (2003) definition of work-family balance is different from Greenhaus and colleagues’ in that it does not focus on roles being equally attended to. Instead, Frone (2003) defines work-family balance as occurring when there is a “lack of conflict or interference between the work and family roles” (p. 145). It is of interest to work-family researchers that this definition uses the constructs of conflict and facilitation (i.e., interference) to define balance, which points to the “circular nature” of work-family research (McMillan & Morris, 2008). This definition also points to the way in which work-family balance has historically been conceptualized as the absence of work-family conflict (Carlson et al., 2009).

A more recent view of work-family balance addresses the notion that working individuals essentially want to be able to fulfill their commitments to their work and family roles while experiencing satisfaction in doing so (Rapoport, Fletcher, Pruitt, & Bailyn, 2002). Valcour (2007) introduced satisfaction with work-family balance as “an overall level of contentment resulting from an assessment of one’s degree of success at meeting work and family role

demands” (p. 1512). This view of work-family balance looks at the overall level of contentment that results from an individual assessing how successfully he or she is able to handle the sum of demands that come from work and family roles (Valcour, 2007). Work hours and control over work hours were found to be negatively related to satisfaction with work-family balance. Job complexity has been shown as being positively related to satisfaction with work-family balance (Valcour, 2007).

An alternative definition of work-family balance is the “accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his/her role-related partners in the work and family domains” (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007: 458). This definition of balance suggests that balance may be possible in spite of work-family conflict experiences. Also, this definition does not deal with work shaping family and vice versa but rather is concerned with how individuals engage in and meet responsibilities in the work and family domains (Carlson et al., 2009). Work-family balance, as measured by Carlson and colleagues’ (2009) definition and scale, was found to be positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment and accounted for additional variance in these relationships over and above work-family conflict.

Construct Development and Measurement Scale Development Issues

As researchers continue to develop and refine constructs related to the work-family interface, associated measurement challenges remain a concern. Most measures of work-family conflict are based around Greenhaus and Beutell’s (1985) definition that states that work-family conflict is a form of interrole conflict in which the demands of one role (i.e., work or family) are incompatible in some regard with demands in another role. This definition is considered the seminal and most frequently cited construct definition of work-family conflict in the work-family

literature (MacDermind & Harvey, 2006). Underlying this definition is role theory, which most work-family researchers agree is the “broad theoretical umbrella for much of the work-family conflict literature” (Michel et al., 2009: 200). Role theory suggests that what is viewed as suitable behavior within the roles of work and family is based on the expectations of others (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, & Rosenthal, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978). In addition, work-family conflict is generally conceptualized as bidirectional in nature (i.e., work interference with family [WIF] and family interference with work [FIW]) and can be separated into time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict according to Greenhaus and Beutell’s theoretical definition. However, while there is a general agreement among work-family scholars as to what constitutes work-family conflict, there have been a wide variety of scales used to measure the construct (Carlson et al., 2000).

One of the earliest measures of conflict between the work and family roles was developed by Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983). Kopelman and colleagues note that their measure was intended to capture role conflict in terms of “the subjective experiencing of incompatible role pressures by the focal person” (1983: 200). As such, their measure of role conflict in the work and family roles assesses the extent to which a focal person experiences incompatible role pressures that emanate from within the work (or family) domain. Although this measure was created prior to Greenhaus and Beutell’s (1985) seminal article, the conceptual definition does include the notion of time-based and strain-based conflict. However, this measure only assesses conflict in the direction of work interfering with family. The items created by Kopelman et al. to measure role conflict between work and family are listed in Appendix A, Table 1.

An extension to Kopelman and colleagues' scale was developed by Gutek, Searle, and Klepa (1991). These authors adapted the scale from Kopelman et al. (1983) by removing some of the existing measures and adding in items from an unpublished doctoral dissertation so that both WIF and FIW are measured (see Appendix A, Table 2). The purpose for scale development and intent of the study was to test the rational view of work-family conflict against a gender role view explanation for conflict. The rational view states that there is a direct correspondence between one's self-report of work-family conflict and an objective condition (Gutek et al., 1991). For example, as time spent on a role (e.g., number of hours of paid work) goes up, so will perceptions of conflict from that role. On the other hand, the gender role explanation of work-family conflict suggests that gender role expectations play a part in perceptions of conflict. Increases in hours of work in one's sex role domain (i.e., paid work hours for men, hours of housework for women) will not be perceived as an additional burden by the role-holder whereas increases in hours in a domain typically associated with the other sex will lead to greater perceptions of conflict (Gutek et al., 1991).

Although the gender role perspective received less support than the rational view, the results of the authors' two studies lent support to both views. For example, there was no support for Gutek and colleagues' (1991) hypothesis that women are not impacted by increases in hours of housework and men are not impacted by increases in hours of paid work. However, women did report more work interference with family than men, even though both sexes reported roughly the same amount of time in paid work. It is also interesting to note that Gutek et al (1991) found somewhat low correlations (.22 and .34) between hours at paid work and work interference with family. The authors argue that this finding of a low correspondence between the objective measure (i.e., hours at paid work) and subjective measure (i.e., perceptions of

conflict from work to family) is evidence that work-family researchers should not assume that perceptions of conflict always reflect time spent in a role. In other words, it appears that work-family conflict may be a psychological state of mind of the focal person and not entirely a function of objective factors such as hours worked.

Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) also created a scale to assess work-family conflict. Although this scale is not used as often as some other work-family conflict measures, it should be noted that Frone and colleagues' work was the first highly cited structural model that included theoretical hypotheses of WIF and FIW as mediators between stressors and outcomes such as depression (Michel et al., 2009). Frone and colleagues found that family-to-work conflict mediated the relationship between family stressors and depression, although there was not support for work-to-family conflict as a mediator of job stressors and depression. However, work-to-family conflict was shown to cause family-to-work conflict, thus linking work-to-family conflict to depression. The four items created by Frone et al. to measure WIF and FIW are in Appendix A, Table 3.

The scales discussed up to this point have included some that are unidirectional in nature (Kopelman et al., 1983), short (Frone et al., 1992), and extensions of previous scales created for a particular study (Gutek et al., 1991). Others that are used much less in the literature, and thus are not discussed here, are deemed to be too lengthy or utilize only a single item to measure work-family conflict. Netemeyer and colleagues (1996) set out to develop a work-family scale that would have distinct advantages over previously published scales. The authors arrived at a ten-item scale after using multiple samples and several iterations of item purification. Netemeyer and colleagues note that the length of their scale is an advantage because it is more than a one- or two-item scale; it is also much shorter than earlier attempts to measure conflict that resulted in

scales as large as 39 items (e.g., Burke, 1988). The authors also emphasize that their scale encompasses the bidirectional nature of work-family conflict, which provides it with an advantage over scales such as Kopelman et al. (1983). In addition, Netemeyer and colleagues also took steps to assure that their items did not contain potential outcomes of WIF and FIW within the language (e.g., somatic or mental symptoms that occur because of conflict).

More recent work (i.e., Boyar, Carson, Mosley, Maertz, & Pearson, 2006) has attempted to improve Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) measurement. Boyar and colleagues (2006) found that removing items from the original scale resulted in an increase in variance accounted for and a reduction in unexplained error. However, the primary limitation of Netemeyer and colleagues' (1996) scale is that it does not assess the three types of role pressures (strain-based, time-based, and behavior-based) that are emphasized in Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) conceptualization of work-family conflict. Nonetheless, Netemeyer et al.'s scale is one of the more commonly used scales in the work-family literature (Matthews, Kath, & Barnes-Farrell, 2010).

The work-family conflict measure developed by Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2000) is considered by many scholars to be the best measure of capturing all three types of pressures in Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) conceptual definition (Matthews et al., 2010). This scale was developed and validated through the use of five independent samples. In addition to assessing the three pressures of work-family conflict this measure is also bidirectional, taking into account WIF and FIW. As such, Carlson and colleagues' measure of work-family conflict contains six subscales of three items each to assess all three forms of pressure in both directions.

The extensive development and validation of the scale along with the fact that it encompasses the bidirectional nature and three types of pressures of conflict is why Carlson and colleagues' measure is considered to be one of the most theoretically and psychometrically

sound measures of work-family conflict (Matthews et al., 2010). However, a downside to this measure is its length (18 items) since researchers are oftentimes confined to limited amount of space for survey items. Matthews and colleagues (2010) developed and validated a shortened version of Carlson and colleagues' measure. These authors used two studies to assess psychometric, construct, and predictive validity of an abbreviated six item version of Carlson and colleagues' work-family conflict measure. Items for Carlson et al.'s measure along with the abbreviated version researched by Matthews et al. can be found in Appendix 1, Table 5.

As noted above there has been a significant amount of attention paid to work-family conflict during the recent years. However, studies examining work resources that may act as “protective antecedents” of work-family conflict are few, while most prior research has looked at negative antecedents, or causes of work-family conflict (Lu et al., 2010). Therefore, I explore realistic recruitment practices as a form of protective antecedent that may help shield employees from conflict between the work and family domains. Furthermore, research suggests that one way realistic recruitment works is by reducing employees' expectations. On the other hand, there is emerging research on individuals' expectations regarding balancing the work and home roles (e.g., Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010). As such, the current research seeks to examine how realistic recruitment and met expectations impact work-family conflict.

Overview of Realistic Recruitment Practices

Recruitment refers to practices and activities utilized by employers as a means of identifying and attracting potential employees (Breaugh & Starke, 2000). It is during the recruitment phase that potential employees begin to shape their expectations regarding the job and organization. Oftentimes individuals' pre-employment expectations are high. One set of studies (Wanous, 1972; 1973) showed that employees' expectations about a new job were

significantly different from reality, suggesting that individuals tend to hold unrealistically positive expectations about new jobs (Morse & Popovich, 2009). Wanous and colleagues (1992) found that employees typically hold unrealistic expectations regarding new jobs, and when the unrealistic expectations go unmet, the employees become less satisfied with the job and become more likely to voluntarily leave the organization.

Realistic information will be most effective when given to individuals during the recruitment process (i.e., pre-hire) versus after being hired (Breugh, 1983; Phillips, 1998; Wanous, 1980). In addition, because job applicants' expectations are disproportionately distorted toward the positive direction, the practice of organizations providing only positive information during recruitment tends to reinforce job applicants' overly positive and unrealistic expectations (Adeyemi-Bello & Mulvaney, 1995). Therefore, it has been argued that organizations have an ethical imperative to provide potential employees with realistic information about the job for which they are applying (Buckley, Fedor, Carraher, Frink, & Marvin, 1997). Realistic information not only pertains to salary, promotion opportunities, etc. It may also be focused on factors (e.g., opportunity for flexible working hours) that will assist or inhibit employees' attempts to balance their work and family roles. Two ways of providing a realistic recruitment are through realistic job previews, which have generated significant attention in the recruitment literature, and expectation lowering procedures, a more recent addition to the recruitment literature.

Realistic Job Previews

Realistic job previews (RJP) present honest information, which may be positive and negative, to job applicants in an effort to provide them with a realistic view of what it is like to be employed in a certain job and organization (Morse & Popovich, 2009). It is important to note

that RJPs are not always synonymous with negative information (Thorsteinson, Palmer, Wulff, & Anderson, 2004). As a result, RJPs help to align new recruits' expectations with the work experiences they will have in the job, thus making it more likely that expectations will be met (Breaugh & Starke, 2000; Richardson, McBey, & McKenna, 2008). Meta-analyses show that RJPs lower initial expectations about jobs and organizations, increase initial levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, increase job performance, and decrease voluntary turnover (e.g., Phillips, 1998; Premack & Wanous, 1985).

Wanous (1973) suggested that RJPs can function in one of two ways: 1) attrition of poor-fitting individuals during the interview process or before acceptance of the job and 2) through the calibration of expectations during employment. Prior to job acceptance, an RJP can raise stress levels of job candidates due to the somewhat negative information presented in them, which causes the candidates to be more vigilant decision-makers (Wanous & Reichers, 2000). Although Wanous argued that RJPs may function by eliminating poor-fitting individuals from the recruitment process, Bretz and Judge (1998) tested the adverse self-selection hypothesis, that the best qualified applicants are more likely to withdraw from the recruitment process when they are presented with negative information about a job. The results of their study suggests that RJPs may hurt recruitment practices because the applicants judged to be the most qualified were those most turned off by the negative information presented in the RJPs. Furthermore, they found that job candidates were least attracted to those employers who provided negative information about their job openings. However, Coleman and Irving's (1997) study provides evidence to the contrary: they found that the applicants most attracted to a job were the ones who received the RJP containing negative information as opposed to those who only received positive information in a traditional recruitment message. Moreover, a more recent study found no evidence that

higher quality job applicants were affected differently by the favorability of the recruitment message, and realistic recruitment information was found to increase attraction to the organization (Thorsteinson et al., 2004). Therefore, presenting realistic, negative information during recruitment may not be as harmful to organizational attractiveness as Bretz and Judge's (1998) research suggests (Highhouse, Stanton, & Reeve, 2004).

As noted above, the RJP also functions once the individual is in the job because of the calibration of expectations that took place during the recruitment phase. That is, by providing the individual with a realistic preview of what is expected in the job, unrealistic expectations are reduced and employees come to understand what is expected by the organization (Morse & Popovich, 2009). Furthermore, the RJP functions by altering the attributions that new employees make regarding differences they encounter between their expectations and the reality they incur once in the job (Fedor, Buckley, & Davis, 1997). Specifically, if new employees perceive that the organization misled them (i.e., no realistic information was given) they will react in a more negative manner than if the employees attribute an unmet expectation to something other than the organization (Breugh & Starke, 2000). Applied to the work-family context, for example, an RJP may contain realistic information regarding the probability of an employee having to work additional hours outside of the standard business hours of the organization.

Although RJP's have been widely researched, some scholars maintain that RJP's have limitations. For example, prior research has suggested that RJP's, due to the specific information required in them, are costly for organizations to produce and also take time to construct (Morse & Popovich, 2009). Self-selection has also been viewed as a limitation to RJP's. That is, scholars (e.g., Rynes, Bretz, & Gerhart, 1991) have noted that RJP's may cause qualified candidates to self-select out of a job because of the presentation of negative information. Morse and Popovich

contend that the self-selection belief continues throughout realistic recruitment research primarily due to popular belief. Nonetheless, the expectation lowering procedure (ELP) was designed in an effort to overcome the RJP's limitations.

Expectation Lowering Procedures

Expectation lowering procedures (ELP) attempt to adjust an employee's expectations regarding a job by directly targeting the employee's expectations without the use of job-specific details (Buckley, Mobbs, Mendoza, Novicevic, Carraher, & Beu, 2002). Individuals tend to develop unrealistically high expectations, thus the purpose of the ELP is to lower those expectations that do not match up with the reality of the organization, consequently minimizing negative outcomes and increasing job satisfaction (Buckley, Fedor, Veres, Wiese, & Carraher, 1998). Expectation lowering procedures typically have three components (Nyberg, Buckley, Harvey, & Novicevic, 2006). Job candidates are first provided with an explanation of how organizational expectations are formed and the importance of communicating those expectations to employees. Secondly, individuals are told that there is a high likelihood of new employees having unrealistically high expectations followed by a discussion of the possible negative outcomes associated with unrealistic expectations. Finally, candidates are told that oftentimes expectations are not fulfilled, leading to a decrease in job satisfaction and increases in turnover intentions. Nyberg and colleagues (2006) note that concrete examples should be given throughout each stage and that job candidates should think of situations in which they themselves had expectations go unfulfilled.

ELPs are relatively free of job-specific information, whereas RJPs tend to be job specific and contain content related to a particular job (Buckley et al., 1998). Furthermore, an examination of the ELP used by Buckley and colleagues (2002) reveals that ELPs do not contain

information specific to the organization. ELPs are more generalized and help job applicants to recognize the realities they will encounter when entering *any* new job and/or organization, while RJPs are more focused on presenting specific information, both positive and negative, about future co-workers, working conditions, etc. Since RJPs are job specific and require job analyses they may be costly to create due to the rapidly changing nature of most jobs (Buckley et al., 1998). Furthermore, the ELP allows for applicants' expectations to be lowered without presenting overly negative information about the job or organization (Morse & Popovich, 2009). Recent research (i.e., Buckley et al., 2002) suggests that ELPs administered prior to job offers had the greatest impact on the tenure of new employees. It should be noted that ELPs and RJPs are not conceptualized as competing ideas, but rather may be used together as a method of socializing employees (Buckley et al., 1998). Further research suggests that using an RJP-ELP combination may be more helpful than using an ELP alone (Buckley et al., 1998).

Several theoretical perspectives have been linked to realistic job previews and expectation lowering procedures. For example, Wanous (1972) and Porter and Steers (1973) both proposed that expectancy theory may help explain the effects of realistic recruitment practices. Wanous (1973) further noted that expectancies are the underlying mechanism in realistic recruitment as opposed to self-selection. Hom and colleagues' (1998) study supports the notion that the met expectations hypothesis is the mechanism underlying realistic recruitment strategies (Morse & Popovich, 2009). The met expectations hypothesis states that perspective employees should be provided with realistic information of what they will obtain from the employer so as to reduce the amount of unrealistic expectations (Porter & Steers, 1973). Another theoretical perspective that may help explain how realistic recruitment works is that of psychological contracts. De Vos and colleagues (2003) contend that during the first few months of

employment, newcomers evaluate their anticipations in relation to what has actually occurred on the job and in the organization. During this time the perceived promises of a psychological contract, which are oftentimes formed during recruitment (Shore & Tetrick, 1994) are evaluated by the employees. For these reasons, the theoretical perspectives of psychological contracts and met expectations are discussed in the following sections.

Overview of Psychological Contracts

A psychological contract refers to “an individual’s beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that focal person and another party” (Rousseau, 1989: 123). In other words, in the employee-employer relationship, the employee’s psychological contract is comprised of a belief or a perception that a promise has been made between both parties. Because the psychological contract is composed of beliefs or perceptions there is the potential for misunderstanding between the two parties regarding the promises within the contract (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Furthermore, the promises within a psychological contract are defined as “any communication of future intent” (Morrison & Robinson, 1997: 228). Because the psychological contract is a cognition at the individual level, perceptions are the focus of psychological contract research (De Vos et al., 2003; Rousseau, 1989).

One theoretical basis that may help scholars understand psychological contracts is equity theory. Equity theory approaches employee expectations in a more general sense than psychological contracts, but psychological contracts may be considered a “special case” of equity theory (Rousseau, 1989). Psychological contracts are also rooted in social contract theory which states that individuals voluntarily choose to belong to an organized society with constraints and rights (Roehling, 1997). The promises made in a psychological contract are beliefs or perceptions of promises and acceptances of promises. Therefore, both parties may not

necessarily have a common understanding of what the contract entails (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Psychological contract violations occur when one party has the perception that the other party failed to follow through with promises.

Robinson and Rousseau (1994) note that there is a difference between psychological contract violations and unmet expectations. They suggest that employees become dissatisfied and perform worse when unrealistic expectations are unmet. On the other hand, psychological contract violations lead to “responses [that] are likely to be more intense” than those responses to unmet expectations (p. 247). Another way to look at the distinction between the two is that expectations are simply what an employee expects to get from the organization, while the psychological contract entails an employee’s perception of a promise of mutual obligation between the employee and organization (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). For example, a faculty member at a research intensive university may expect tenure in exchange for publishing two journal articles (i.e., unrealistic expectation) and subsequently will feel disappointed when not tenured. On the other hand, a faculty member who perceives that she has been implicitly or explicitly promised (i.e., psychological contract) tenure in exchange for publishing two journal articles will feel angry when not tenured. In addition, scholars emphasize that there is a difference between psychological contract violation and breach as well.

Psychological Contract Breach

Psychological contract breach refers to employees’ perceptions regarding an organization’s failure to fulfill promises or obligations (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). Employees may perceive that a psychological contract has been breached while the organization feels that it has fulfilled the contract. This may be a result of incongruence, which Robinson and Morrison (2000) describe as a situation where the

employee has beliefs about a specific obligation that differ from the belief held by the organization about that same obligation.

Although violation and breach are used synonymously throughout the literature, the two can be distinguished. Breach refers to the cognitive evaluation that the employer has not lived up to its obligations, whereas violation refers to the emotional and affective state that can result from cognition of breach (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). That is, violation is an affective response following a cognition that an employer has not fulfilled its responsibility to the employee (i.e., breach), which is supported by meta-analytic results (Zhao et al., 2007). In addition, breach can be a result of transactional or relational psychological contract content. Relational content is defined by long-term exchanges that are meant to sustain the relationship between the employee and the organization such as personal support. On the other hand, transactional content describes monetary exchanges over shorter periods of time such as a promise to pay a higher salary (Zhao et al., 2007). Zhao et al. (2007) predicted breach of transactional content of psychological contract to have stronger effects on work outcomes than relational content. However, that hypothesis was not supported by the meta-analytic data analysis.

The outcomes of psychological contract breach have been studied extensively and lead to the conclusion that perceptions of breach can be harmful for organizations. For example, Jensen and colleagues (in press) found that breach was positively related to the counterproductive work behaviors of abuse, production deviance, and withdrawal. Bal and colleagues' (2008) meta-analysis indicates that psychological contract breach is negatively related to trust, job satisfaction, and commitment, with the highest correlation being with trust. Furthermore, their analysis showed that age moderated the relationships between psychological contract breach,

affective commitment, and trust such that younger workers' trust and commitment were more affected by breach. A similar meta-analysis found that perceived breach was positively related to turnover intentions and negatively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and in-role performance (Zhao et al., 2007).

A key finding from Robinson and Morrison's (2000) study is that perceived contract breach was less likely when employees interacted with representatives of the organization before being hired. Although "interaction" with organizational representatives does not imply that an ELP and/or RJP was given (in fact, the study did not include ELP or RJP as a variable), this finding does illustrate the plausibility of realistic recruitment practices being used to help form accurate psychological contracts with employees. The authors also emphasize that psychological contract formation begins early on in the recruitment process, which further supports the idea that realistic recruitment may be valuable to the psychological contract formation of employees.

Realistic Recruitment and Psychological Contract Breach

Although individuals form psychological contracts, it is important to note that organizations cannot form their own psychological contracts. However, the organization does provide the context in which the employee's psychological contract is created (Rousseau, 1989). In other words, employees will form a psychological contract based on what they encounter in the organizational environment. And while psychological contracts develop and change over time they begin formation during the recruitment process (Shore & Tetrick, 1994). In fact, it has been empirically shown that the psychological contract forms during recruitment (Rousseau, 1990).

In addition, Rousseau (2001) suggests that the building blocks of psychological contracts are laid during the recruiting practices of pre-employment and allow for employees and

employers to communicate with each other in order to gain a better understanding of the promises to which they are committing. Communication between employee and employer is a means by which perceived contract breach, due to incongruence, may be minimized. Robinson and Morrison's (2000) study shows that pre-hire interaction with organizational representatives led to less perceived contract breach in a sample of 147 recent MBA graduates. Although the authors alluded to realistic job previews in their discussion, pre-hire interaction was not measured by whether employees had been given an RJP but rather by four items assessing the extent to which job candidates interacted with organizational representatives.

However, simply interacting with organizational representatives may not be enough. Recruiters may convey job information to candidates in such a way that only the favorable aspects of the job are presented (Sims, 1994), which can exacerbate the already inflated and unrealistic expectations typically held by new job candidates (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992). This points to the need for realistic recruitment practices as a means of reducing psychological contract breach, a point prescribed to practitioners by Sims (1994) over fifteen years ago. Breugh and Starke (2000) provide a practical example of how the use of realistic information during recruitment may impact perceived psychological contract breach. That is, if an applicant accepts a position after hearing honest information about the job during an RJP or ELP, even if the applicant does not like his or her new job, he or she should not feel as if the employer has not lived up to the terms of the psychological contract since the employer was forthright during the recruitment process.

De Vos and colleagues (2003) treat psychological contracts as a form of sensemaking. Citing Louis (1980), De Vos et al. note that sensemaking allows newcomers to align their expectations with the reality they encounter once inside the organization, "thereby reducing

feelings of unmet expectations or broken promises” (p. 539). They further note that this sensemaking process begins prior to employees actually entering the organization. Prior research suggests that newcomers have limited information regarding their employment contract (Rousseau, 2001), which prompts them to “actively interpret their initial experiences as a basis for predicting future events and for changing their expectations” (De Vos et al., 2003: 539). By providing realistic recruitment, employers may assist potential employees in making sense of the changes they will incur, should they join the organization.

Psychological Contracts and the Work-Family Interface

The traditional view of psychological contracts includes expectations employees develop regarding issues such as tenure or promotion, employment security, and increases in pay from the employer, among other benefits. Although the expectations of employees’ work-life benefits and working arrangements may be explained by psychological contracts, this line of research has been slow to include the work-family interface in its studies (Smithson & Lewis, 2004). It has been suggested that employees now feel more entitlement to flexible working arrangements, and they may perceive that the psychological contract has been broken when employers do not make these arrangements available to them (Smithson & Lewis, 2004). It has been argued that taking one’s desires for work-family balance into account is a primary aspect of psychological contract formation (Coussey, 2000) and that work-family demands of employees, such as flexibility and work hours, will lead to new trends in psychological contracting (Rousseau, 1995). In addition, Blomme and colleagues (2010) measured the psychological contract using a scale that contains work-family balance as one of the 11 dimensions of a psychological contract. Furthermore, although Scandura and Lankau’s (1997) study did not directly measure work-family conflict and psychological contracts, the results of their study suggest that the ability to balance the work and

family roles is becoming an expectation that is included in employees' psychological contracts. Recent research on younger workers suggests that they expect to be able to balance their work and family roles (Ng et al., 2010). Thus, it appears that individuals are expecting to have the ability to balance their work and family lives, should they choose to do so, and that this capability is now becoming part of the psychological contract.

Psychological Contracts vs. Expectations

As mentioned in the previous discussion of psychological contracts, there are differences between contracts and expectations. A scan of the psychological contract literature shows that the terms "expectations" and "promises" are used interchangeably (Montes & Zweig, 2009) and several publications seem to blur the line between these two literatures. For example, one study notes that "the degree to which...expectations are met may be construed to reflect [newcomers'] evaluation of the outcome of their exchange relationship with the organization, emphasizing the powerful role possessed by individual psychological contracts" (Taris, Feij, & Capel, 2006: 257). On the other hand, empirical research supports the notion that unmet expectations and psychological contract breach are separate constructs. For instance, unmet expectations have been found to partially mediate the relationship between psychological contract breach and outcomes (Turnley & Feldman, 2000). However, more recent research suggests that psychological contract breach functions through something other than unmet expectations, namely promises made by the employer (Montes & Zweig, 2009). As such, unmet expectations may be understood as a result of an employee's own misconceptions, whereas psychological contract breach is best understood as a promise that was made by an organizational agent being broken.

However, current research suggests that promises do *not* play a major function in psychological contract breach (Montes & Zweig, 2009). The authors conclude that “the study of psychological contract breach may add little to what is already known on the basis of the expectations literature” and that further study of psychological contract breach’s effects on outcomes may not be of benefit until further study is done on the operationalization of the construct (p. 1256). Nonetheless, as the refinement of the psychological contract breach construct is not the focus of this study, I will proceed with testing the model by using a measure of met expectations. This will allow for future testing of the two models: one using psychological contract breach as a mediator between realistic recruitment and work interference with family, and the other using met expectations to mediate the relationship.

Expectations

Expectancies are an individual’s beliefs about his or her future state of affairs and are used to facilitate thoughts about what is coming and how to prepare for it (Noordewier & Stapel, 2010; Roese & Sherman, 2007). The most common definition of expectancies, as applied to organizational research, comes from the work of Porter and Steers on the met expectations hypothesis (Wanous et al., 1992). Porter and Steers (1973) describe the concept of met expectations as “the discrepancy between what a person encounters on this job in the way of positive and negative experiences and what he expected to encounter” (p. 152). The authors state further that when expectations are not met, the inclination to withdraw from the organization increases, but when congruence between expectations and actual experience exists, satisfaction will increase. It is important to note that not all expectations from the employee’s perspective are included in the met expectations hypothesis. Rather, only those expectations that are related to important aspects of the job or organization are accounted for in the met expectations hypothesis,

excluding those expectations that are deemed as inconsequential (Wanous et al., 1992). Porter and Steers (1973) did not explicitly discuss which met expectations would be deemed important versus non-important. Furthermore, the focus of this study is met expectations related to the work-family interface. As such, it is likely that, while this type of expectation is important to many working adults, there are undoubtedly those who find expectations of this nature inconsequential.

Realistic Recruitment and Expectations

As noted in the earlier discussion of realistic recruitment, expectations are typically developed early in the socialization process such as during recruitment (Buckley et al., 2002). The expectancies of newcomers are seen as a “benchmark indicator” of an employee’s likelihood of early turnover (Morse & Popovich, 2009). When employees’ expectations go unmet, they experience what has been referred to as reality shock (Dugoni & Ilgen, 1981). Buckley and colleagues (1998) point out that once employees experience this reality shock, control theory (c.f. Carver & Scheier, 1981) suggests they will attempt to remedy the gap between their expectations and reality, possibly by leaving the organization (i.e., turnover intentions) or at least reducing their commitment to the organization. As such, previous research suggests that met expectations are significantly related to several organizationally relevant outcomes. Wanous and colleagues’ (1992) meta-analysis indicates that met expectations have high positive correlations with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to remain with the organization, and job survival. Conversely, unmet expectations lead to higher levels of voluntary turnover (Buckley et al., 1998), distress (Nelson & Sutton, 1991), lower commitment (Arnold, 1991), and low job satisfaction (Nelson & Sutton, 1991).

The connection between the realistic recruitment practices of RJP and ELP with expectations is well documented. Phillips' (1998) meta-analysis suggests that RJP are related to the accuracy of initial expectations of employees. One way that RJP are proposed to affect satisfaction is through the lowering of expectations, or what McGuire (1964) calls the vaccination effect (Phillips, 1998). Early work by Wanous (1973) concluded that expectancies underlie the effectiveness of realistic recruitment (Morse & Popovich, 2009). Similarly, Buckley and colleagues (2002) contend that met expectations are most likely the mechanism responsible for the effectiveness of ELPs.

Therefore, in support of previous research, I hypothesize that RJP and ELPs will lower the expectations of employees. More specifically, the use of a RJP or an ELP with content focused on factors relating to work-life balance will lead employees to have their expectations about how their work role will interact with their family role met.

H1: The use of a pre-hire realistic job preview (RJP) containing information about the work-life context will result in greater met expectations.

H2: The use of a pre-hire expectation lowering procedure (ELP) containing information about the work-life context will result in greater met expectations.

Realistic Recruitment, Expectations, and the Work-Family Interface

As noted above, there are several antecedents of conflict from work to family. For example, time demands, social support, and role ambiguity are all considered antecedents of work-non/work conflict (Michel et al., 2009). Furthermore, work-family conflict can lead to negative outcomes for the employee and employer, such as decreases in job satisfaction and increases in turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2000). Current research suggests that recent graduates had more work-home interference when they felt that their pre-employment expectations regarding work-home balance were not fulfilled by the organization for which they

worked (De Vos, Dikkers, & De Hauw, 2009). Given this, it stands to reason that potential employees may benefit from a pre-employment RJP or ELP that specifically focuses on potential work stressors that may lead to difficulties for employees who seek to find balance between the work and family roles. Without explicitly recommending an RJP or ELP, scholars have recently advocated that potential employees be told about working hours and the availability of flexible work hours during the recruitment phase (Blomme et al., 2010).

Realistic recruitment practices tailored toward the work-family interface may aid in reducing perceptions of work-family conflict in multiple ways. Both RJP and ELPs that contain information about working hours, flexibility of work time, requirements of weekend work, and so forth will lower potential employees' expectations regarding when they will be required to work and how flexible the job is in allowing them to take care of family activities during normal working hours. Such realistic recruitment practices will serve to close the gap between expectations and reality (Sims, 1994). As demonstrated above, new employees typically hold unrealistically high expectations for new jobs (Morse & Popovich, 2009), and these unrealistic expectations undoubtedly factor into some recruits' inflated thoughts of the new job offering them the capability to meet work and family demands. By lowering expectations, employees will most likely react with less intense disappointment when the actual outcome does not meet the initial expectations held (van Dijk, Zeelenberg, & van der Pligt, 2003). An ELP or RJP may also be used as a coping mechanism. That is, unpleasant events, such as work interfering with family, may be perceived as not as stressful and may be easier to deal with if they are expected and not surprises (Sims, 1994). Expected negative outcomes are typically less repulsive than unexpected negative outcomes (van Dijk et al., 2003). Based on the outcomes of three empirical studies, Shepperd and McNulty (2002) concluded that individuals felt worse when something unexpected

happened compared to when the expected happened. They summarized their studies noting that “people feel bad when their outcomes fall short of their expectations...” (Shepperd & McNulty, 2002: 87).

Applied to the work-family interface, these studies suggest that employees will feel a stronger affective displeasure when they have high expectations about being able to balance work and family compared to those who have lower expectations, when their job subsequently requires long working hours or inflexible work hours that keeps them from participating in some family role activity. For example, a recent hire who received a traditional recruitment message with only positive information may have high expectations about his or her ability to balance work and family and subsequently, may have high perceptions of work-family conflict when he or she is unexpectedly required to work extra hours at night and has little flexibility in scheduling work hours. However, an employee who received a realistic recruitment message that included open and honest information regarding work hours and flexibility will most likely have somewhat lower expectations of balancing work and family, and thus, less work-family conflict when informed by a superior that he or she must stay late. This is not to say that employees who receive an RJP or ELP will have *no* work-family conflict, but rather they will have *less* perceived conflict, due to their lower expectations, than those who were not given realistic recruitment. By lowering expectations (i.e., related to the work-family interface) the probability of experiencing reality shock is reduced (Irving & Meyer, 1994). Prior work has empirically shown that expectations mediate the relationship between recruitment practices and turnover (Buckley et al., 1998), job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Moser, 2005). Therefore, it is plausible to propose that met expectations will mediate the relationship between realistic recruitment and work interference with family (WIF). It is proposed that WIF is the specific direction of work-

family conflict that will be mitigated by realistic recruitment practices. This is consistent with Byron's (2005) finding that work-domain variables are more strongly related to WIF.

Furthermore, realistic recruitment practices will most likely have an impact on strain-based and time-based WIF. That is, realistic recruitment with a work-family context will likely contain information about human resource policies such as the opportunity for flexible working hours (Blomme et al., 2010) which are not likely to impact behavior-based antecedents such as one worker having the responsibility for other workers (e.g., Dierdorff & Ellington, 2008).

H3: Met expectations related to work-life balance will lead to lower levels of perceived WIF.

H4: The effects of RJP on perceived WIF is fully mediated by met expectations related to work-life balance.

H5: The effects of ELP on perceived WIF is fully mediated by met expectations related to work-life balance.

Moderating Role of Work-Family Centrality

As described above, the realistic recruitment practices of realistic job previews and expectation lowering procedures, when given before the start of a new job and contextualized around the work-family interface, are hypothesized to reduce a) employees' expectations regarding the work-life balance they will achieve in their new job and b) employees' perceptions that their organization failed to uphold the "promises" it made (i.e., psychological contract breach) pertaining to work-life balance. However, there are individual differences variables that may influence these relationships. Work-family centrality is one such variable.

While most adults have several role identities, the salience of those identities vary across roles (Bagger, Li, & Gutek, 2008) and, typically, the work and family roles are the most significant identities for many working adults (Werbel & Walter, 2002). Work-family centrality represents an individual's values regarding the relative importance of the work role or family

role in his or her life (Carr et al., 2008). Values symbolize what one considers to be important and essential to their identity (Posner & Munson, 1979). In their study on work-family centrality Carr and colleagues (2008) cited Paullay et al.'s (1994) definition of work-family centrality as "the belief that individuals have regarding the degree of importance that work plays in their lives" (pg. 225). As such, work-family centrality refers to how important the work role is to an individual as compared to the family role. For example, Carr et al. found that work-family centrality moderated the relationship between work interference with family and job satisfaction, such that the relationship between the two was weaker when an individual valued the work role more so than the family role. The authors contend that the reason for this may be explained by attributions. That is, if an employee places a higher value on the work role then he or she is more likely to attribute the cause of conflict to the family role, instead of the work role, which is the less valued role in this case. Likewise, when an employee values the work role most, it may be that the relationship between realistic recruitment and perceptions of met expectations regarding work-life balance will be stronger. That is, an employee who values the work role the highest may likely attribute some of his or her unmet expectations to the family role; therefore, it is less likely that the employee will feel that his or her employer has failed to meet his or her expectations about balancing work and family. By testing this variable as a moderator, this study is fulfilling Morse and Popovich's (2009) call for research including individual difference variables as moderators of realistic recruitment practices.

H6: Work-family centrality will moderate the relationship between realistic recruitment and perceptions of met expectations of work-life balance, such that the relationship between realistic recruitment and met expectations will be stronger when work is valued more than family.

Outcomes of Work-Family Conflict

The premise of this study is that realistic recruitment will ultimately lead to reduced work-to-family conflict. Therefore, it is appropriate to test for and replicate findings of common outcomes associated with conflict. As noted previously, job satisfaction is often researched in as an outcome in work-family studies, with meta-analyses showing a negative relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Kozek & Ozeki, 1998). Similarly, many studies have shown an inverse relationship between work-family conflict and organizational commitment (e.g., Carr et al., 2008). Last, intention to turnover has been shown to be positively related to conflict between the work and family roles (Allen et al., 2000). Consistent with previous findings, I propose that work interference with family will be negatively related to a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, and positively related to c) turnover intentions.

H7: WIF will be negatively related to a) job satisfaction and b) organizational commitment, and positively related to c) turnover intentions.

Inclusion of Work-Family Balance

As discussed earlier, work-family conflict and work-family balance are conceptually distinct constructs. Recent research demonstrated that work-family balance explained variance beyond that explained by work-family conflict for the outcomes of job satisfaction (+ 9 percent) and organizational commitment (+ 4 percent) (Carlson et al., 2009). However, many researchers work under the faulty assumption that the absence of work-family conflict (i.e., low perceptions of conflict) is equivalent to work-family balance (Carlson et al., 2009; Frone, 2003). Collecting data on both work-family conflict and work-family balance will allow for future tests to validate Carlson and colleagues' finding of an empirical distinction between the two. Accordingly, I plan to also collect data on work-family balance for use in future research.

CHAPTER THREE: DESIGN, METHODOLOGY, AND RESULTS

Empirical Testing

I examined the relationships proposed above using three separate tests. The first study was a limited test of the primary relationships of interest in the model. Hypotheses 1-5, which examine the relationships between realistic recruitment, met expectations, and WIF were tested. This test also allowed me to check the reliability of the two realistic recruitment scales (RJP and ELP), which were modified from previous scales and were retrospective in nature. Study 1 was a field study where participants were recruited from a broad range of industries and occupations using a peer-nominated web-based survey. Study 2 consisted of the same survey items as Study 1 but sampled employees of a school system in the Southeastern United States. The full model was tested with data collected in Study 2. Finally, Study 3 utilized an experimental design to again test the primary relationships (H1 – H4). This study used scenarios, which allowed for the manipulation of realistic recruitment variables and the random assignment of participants to experimental conditions.

Study 1 – Research Design and Methodology

Procedure and Participants

Participants for Study 1 were working adults recruited by undergraduate students enrolled in an upper-level business administration course in a large Southeastern university. The students were given nominal class credit to recruit working adults. Students (N = 44) were trained on the data collection methodology and ethics regarding the study. They were then provided with an e-mail invitation that they distributed to working adults whom they personally knew and whom

also met the eligibility requirements for this study (18+ years of age, working 20 or more hours per week). This data collection technique is similar to those that have been used in recent work-family research studies (e.g., Allen & Armstrong, 2006; Martins et al., 2002; Matthews et al., 2010; Mitchelson, 2009). This type of initial recruitment procedure does not allow for the calculation of a response rate. However, each student was allowed to collect up to five surveys from working adults which provided a maximum possible sample size of approximately 220. A total of 195 surveys were submitted through the web-based survey system. Of the total surveys submitted, several were begun but were not completed. Therefore, 37 responses were removed for excessive missing data resulting in a final sample of 158.

The sex distribution of the sample was 50% female, 40% male, and 10% unreported. Survey participants were primarily White/Caucasian (70%) or Black/African-American (24%), married (55%), and had an average of 1.5 children under the age of 18 living in their home ($SD = 1.07$). Furthermore, the sample was highly educated, with 68% having a college education (Bachelor's = 47%, Masters/Professional = 13%, Doctoral = 8%) and worked in a variety of job types (Professional = 32%, Management = 20%, Administrative = 15%, Technical = 9%). Finally, the average age of the participants was 40 years ($SD = 13.37$; Note: 23% did not report age).

Measurements

All measures were taken from existing studies, and all have demonstrated sound psychometric properties. Each measure (unless otherwise noted) used a 7 point Likert response format ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

Work-Family Conflict. Carlson and colleagues' (2000) work-family conflict scale was used to measure work interference with family (WIF). Only WIF is tested in this study as it stands to

reason that a recruitment mechanism will not directly impact one's perceptions of family interfering with their work (FIW). Furthermore, prior work-family research suggests that individuals tend to experience more WIF than FIW (e.g. Frone, 2003; Lu, Kao, Chang, Wu, & Cooper, 2008). The scale consists of nine items that make up three sub-dimensions of WIF: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based. A sample item was "My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like." Consistent with prior research (e.g., Lu et al., 2010) and Carlson and et al.'s (2000) recommendation, Study 1 used the WIF scale as an aggregate of the three sub-dimensions. The overall Cronbach alpha for WIF equaled .84.

Realistic Job Preview. RJP was operationalized by using a retrospective measure that asked participants to reflect on the extent to which their organization (i.e., their current employer) accurately portrayed their current job with respect to aspects regarding the work-family context. The measure was modified from the retrospective RJP measures used by Templer and colleagues (2006) and Vandenberg and Scarpello (1990). The current measure consisted of 10 items. Participants were asked to think back to when they accepted their current job then rate their level of agreement with each item. All items used the stem "My employer accurately described:" A sample item was "The number of hours you would be asked to work outside of the normal working hours for your organization." The Cronbach alpha for this scale equaled .86.

Expectation Lowering Procedure. ELP was measured in the same way as RJP (i.e., retrospectively). The four items were based on the work of Buckley and colleagues' (1998, 2002) work on ELPs. Using the same prompt and stem used by the retrospective RJP measure, a sample item was "How new employees commonly develop unrealistic expectations about balancing work and family." Cronbach alpha for this measure equaled .85.

Met Expectations. Met expectations regarding the work-family interface were measured using De Vos and colleagues' (2003, 2009) measure of "expectation fulfillment regarding work-home balance." A sample item was "My organization has met my expectations regarding opportunities for flexible working hours depending on my personal needs." This four item scale had an alpha of .84.

Controls. Marital status, sex, and the number of children living in the home were all collected as control variables, as they have been shown in past research (e.g., Allen, 2001) to be potentially related to variables used in the current study. In addition, negative affect was controlled for since it has been shown to be positively related to work-family conflict (Eby et al., 2010; Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008). Negative affect was measured using Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) negative affectivity scale. Ten items (e.g., Upset, Irritable) were presented and participants were asked to indicate the way they feel "on average" about each item. Participants responded to each item using a scale from 1 (*Very slightly/Not at all*) to 5 (*Extremely*). The Cronbach alpha for this scale was .87.

Study 1 – Results and Analysis

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the variables used to test hypotheses in Study 1.

Table 1: Study 1 – Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (N=158)

Variable	Mean	S.D.	WIF	Expectations	RJP	ELP	Negative Affect	Children in Home	Sex	Marital Status
WIF	3.53	1.14	1							
Expectations	5.51	1.10	-.325**	1						
RJP	5.12	.96	-.222**	.414**	1					
ELP	4.45	1.13	-.034	.151	.551**	1				
Negative Affect	1.55	.52	.319**	-.106	-.069	.001	1			
Children in Home	1.56	1.07	.038	.043	-.021	-.063	-.077	1		
Sex (1=male, 2 = female)	1.55	.50	-.035	.084	-.096	-.010	.134	.123	1	
Marital Status	1.84	.81	-.060	.046	.109	-.002	-.016	.154	.074	1

** Sig at .01

WIF = work interference with family; RJP = realistic job preview; ELP = expectation lowering procedure

The hypotheses for Study 1 were tested first with hierarchical multiple regression followed by structural equation modeling (SEM). Hypotheses 1 and 2 predicted that realistic recruitment will lead to employees having their expectations about the work-family interface being met. With sex, marital status, negative affectivity and the number of children living in the home controlled for in Step 1, the results of Step 2 reveal that RJP had a significant ($\beta = .447$; $p < .001$) effect on employees' expectations being met. However, the effect of ELP on met expectations was not significant. Thus, support was found for Hypothesis 1 but not Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 3 predicted that met expectations regarding the work-family interface would lead to a reduction in employees' perception of WIF. After entering the same controls in Step 1 as above, the results of Step 2 show that met expectations does have a significant effect on WIF ($\beta = -.228$; $p < .01$). Finally, Hypotheses 4 and 5 predicted that met expectations would mediate the relationships between realistic recruitment and WIF. Control variables were entered in Step 1, followed by RJP and ELP in Step 2, and met expectations in Step 3. ELP was not significantly related to WIF in either step, thus Hypothesis 5 is not supported. RJP, on the other hand, was significantly related to WIF in Step 2 ($\beta = -.207$; $p < .05$). However, although met expectations was significantly related to WIF in Step 3 ($\beta = -.189$; $p < .05$), the entrance of met expectations into

Step 3 resulted in the relationship between RJP and WIF becoming non-significant ($\beta = -.122$).

Thus, it appears that met expectations provides some level of mediation between RJP and WIF.

Tables 2 - 4 provide regression results for Hypotheses 1 – 5.

Table 2: Study 1 – Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 1 – 2

	<u>Expectations</u>	
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β
<i>Hypotheses 1 – 2</i>		
# of Children in Home	.032	.034
Sex	.090	.129
Marital Status	.034	-.020
Negative Affectivity	-.076	-.059
Realistic Job Preview		.447***
Expectation Lowering Procedure		-.131
R^2	.016	.167
ΔR^2		.151***
F	.559	4.576***
<i>d.f.</i>	(4, 139)	(6, 137)

*** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Table 3: Study 1 – Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 3

	<u>Work Interference with Family</u>	
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β
<i>Hypothesis 3</i>		
# of Children in Home	.044	.052
Sex	-.083	-.062
Marital Status	-.071	-.064
Negative Affectivity	.292***	.275**
Expectations		-.228**
R^2	.092	.142
ΔR^2		.051**
F	3.490**	4.856**
<i>d.f.</i>	(4, 139)	(5, 138)

*** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Table 4: Study 1 – Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 4 – 5

<i>Hypotheses 4 – 5</i>	<u>Work Interference with Family</u>		
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β	Step 3 β
# of Children in Home	.044	.046	.053
Sex	-.083	-.101	-.076
Marital Status	-.071	-.047	-.051
Negative Affectivity	.292***	.284**	.273**
Realistic Job Preview		-.207*	-.122
Expectation Lowering Procedure		.090	.065
Expectations			-.189*
R^2	.091	.122	.151
ΔR^2		.031	.029*
F	3.490**	3.163**	3.466**
<i>d.f.</i>	(4, 139)	(6, 137)	(7, 136)

*** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

An examination of full versus partial mediation was not undertaken using the regression results, as the often-used Baron and Kenny (1986) four-step test of mediation has several limitations (e.g., LeBreton, Wu, & Bing, 2008). As such, I followed James and colleagues' (2006) recommendation of testing mediating hypotheses using SEM.

The first step was to perform a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the *Mplus* software program to assess the fit of the scales. The first CFA included all of the items from each scale. Each item was loaded on its respective factor which resulted in a poor fit (comparative fit index [CFI] = .77; root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .99; standardized root mean square residual [RMSR] = .09). Items with standardized estimates less than .65 were dropped from the analysis. This resulted in one Met Expectations item, four RJP items, and three WIF (i.e., the behavior-based conflict) items being removed. Items removed from analysis are noted as such in Appendix B. The remaining items resulted in an acceptable CFI of .93, which exceeds Bentler's (1992) cutoff of .90 and approaches Brown and Cudeck's (1993) cutoff of .95. Additionally, the RMSEA (.07) and SMSR (.06) levels improved and were within the range

indicating acceptable fit for these two indices (e.g., Bryne, 2001; Williams, Vandenberg, and Edwards, 2009).

The second step was to test the hypotheses in a structural model that included the same control variables used in the regression tests above. The items resulting in good fit for the CFA were used in the structural models. The first model consisted of only the hypothesized paths (i.e., indirect model: RJP→Met Expectations; ELP→Met Expectations; Met Expectations→WIF). The fit statistics for this model were acceptable with CFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, and SMSR = .06. Results for this model were very similar to those obtained using multiple regression. Support for Hypothesis 1 was found, as RJP was significantly related to Met Expectations (t -value = 5.57; $p < .001$). Although ELP was also significantly related to Met Expectations (t -value = -1.65; $p < .10$), it was in the opposite direction as hypothesized which does not support Hypothesis 2. Support was found for Hypothesis 3, as Met Expectations was significantly related to WIF (t -value = -3.46; $p < .01$).

The second SEM contained the same paths as the first, but also included the addition of direct paths from RJP→WIF and ELP→WIF. Again, fit statistics for the model were acceptable and did not vary notably from the first model (CFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, and SMSR = .06). Similar to the first model, Hypothesis 1 (t -value = 5.54; $p < .001$) and Hypothesis 3 (t -value = -2.69; $p < .01$) were supported, but no support was found for Hypothesis 2. Furthermore, the paths from RJP→WIF and ELP→WIF included in the second SEM were not significant. The lack of significance between the realistic recruitment variables (IV) and WIF (DV) may have been viewed as problematic when testing for full mediation using the four-step approach in regression. However, when using SEM, an absence of a direct effect (IV→DV) allows for the possibility of full mediation (James et al., 2006). As such, the absence of significant direct effect between RJP

and WIF, combined with the significant relationships found in Hypotheses 1 and 3, provide support for Hypothesis 4. That is, met expectations related to the work-family interface appear to fully mediate the relationship between RJP and WIF. However, no support was found for Hypothesis 5 since the ELP→Met Expectations relationship in Hypothesis 2 was in the opposite direction as hypothesized. Path significance statistics are provided in Table 5.

Table 5
Structural Equation Modeling Results (Study 1 – RJP and ELP)

		<i>Model 1</i>		<i>Model 2</i>		
		<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>	
Paths Modeled:						
RJP	→	Expectations	.595	5.572***	.593	5.535***
ELP	→	Expectations	-0.185	-1.646°	-0.181	-1.607
RJP	→	WIF			-0.054	.679
ELP	→	WIF			0.098	.363
Expectations	→	WIF	-0.264	-3.461**	-0.253	-2.687**
Overall Fit:						
χ^2 (and d.f.)		309.611 (186 df)		308.722 (184 df)		
CFI		.92		.92		
RMSEA		.07		.07		
SRMR		.06		.06		

***p<.001; **p<.01; °p<.10

As stated above, the relationship between ELP and Met Expectations was in the opposite direction than that which was hypothesized. This may be due to what is described as a suppression effect. A suppression effect is said to exist when the relationship between an independent variable and dependent variable becomes larger when a third variable is included (MacKinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000). More specifically, it appears that the current study contains a case of *negative suppression* where a variable has a positive correlation with criterion but receives a negative beta weight in the regression model (Darlington, 1968; Tzelgov & Henik,

1991). That is, ELP is positively correlated with Met Expectations (.151) but receives a negative beta weight in the regression model. Therefore, ELP acts as a suppressor in that it causes RJP to account for more variance in the RJP→Met Expectations relationship and ELP also takes on a negative direction than that which was predicted. As such, I ran the hypothesized models with RJP only and ELP only to gauge whether RJP would account for less variance in Met Expectations and ELP would operate in its intended direction.

I first ran the RJP only model. In this model RJP accounted for approximately 50% of the variance in Met Expectations as compared to 60% in the combine RJP and ELP model. The fit statistics for the first RJP only model were acceptable (CFI = .91; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .06). Furthermore, Hypotheses 1 and 3 were supported as RJP was significantly related to Met Expectations (t -value = 6.33; $p < .001$) and Met Expectations was significantly related to WIF (t -value = -3.56; $p < .001$). The second RJP only model also had acceptable fit (CFI = .91; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .06) and also provided support for Hypotheses 1 and 3. There was not a significant relationship between RJP and WIF, which suggests that Met Expectations fully mediated the relationship between RJP and WIF.

The ELP only model had good fit (CFI = .98; RMSEA = .04; SRMR = .06) and provided similar results to the RJP only model. In particular, Met Expectations were significantly related to WIF (H3; t -value = -3.56; $p < .001$). However, ELP had a marginally significant relationship with Met Expectations (H2; t -value = 1.893; $p < .10$) in the hypothesized direction. Thus, running the two realistic recruitment variables in separate models allowed for ELP to not act as a suppressor and to function in the predicted direction. Therefore, a second ELP only model was run with a direct path from ELP to WIF. This model also had good fit (CFI = .98; RMSEA = .04; SRMR = .06) and the same results as the first model. The included path from ELP to WIF was

not significant, which also provides for evidence of a fully mediated relationship between ELP and WIF through Met Expectations. Tables 6 - 7 provide the path results for the RJP only and ELP only models.

Table 6
Structural Equation Modeling Results (Study 1 – RJP only)

		<i>Model 1</i>		<i>Model 2</i>	
		<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>
Paths Modeled:					
RJP	→ Expectations	.492	6.332***	.492	6.316***
RJP	→ WIF			-0.008	.937
Expectations	→ WIF	-0.281	-3.561***	-0.277	-2.899**
Overall Fit:					
χ^2 (and d.f.)		265.090 (153 df)		263.083 (152 df)	
CFI		.91		.91	
RMSEA		.07		.07	
SRMR		.06		.06	

***p<.001; **p<.01

Table 7
Structural Equation Modeling Results (Study 1 – ELP only)

		<i>Model 1</i>		<i>Model 2</i>	
		<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>
Paths Modeled:					
ELP	→ Expectations	.169	1.893°	.170	1.900°
ELP	→ WIF			0.405	.686
Expectations	→ WIF	-0.281	-3.557***	-0.287	-3.574***
Overall Fit:					
χ^2 (and d.f.)		141.345 (118 df)		141.181 (117 df)	
CFI		.98		.98	
RMSEA		.04		.04	
SRMR		.06		.06	

***p<.001; **p<.01; °p<.10

Study 2 – Research Design and Methodology

Procedure and Participants

Conflict between the work and family roles is likely to occur in the lives of those who teach because teachers must be present and teach during structured school hours, making traditional family-friendly policies such as flex-time and telecommuting out of the question. Furthermore, teachers often are asked to work during hours outside the typical school day (e.g., grade papers at home). Therefore, Study 2 utilized participants that are employees of a public school district, which is consistent with recent work-family studies that have utilized samples of school district employees (e.g., Bragger et al., 2005; Moon & Roh, 2010). This organization is located in the Southeast United States and employs 525 individuals. An e-mail containing an Internet link to the online survey was sent from the Assistant Superintendent to all employees of the school district. Employees were allowed to complete the survey during the normal workday. In addition, those who completed the survey were entered into a drawing for gift cards to local retail establishments. The initial response rate was 41%. However, after eliminating 34 responses with excessive missing data the final sample was comprised of a 35% response rate to the survey (N = 183). The sample was predominantly White/Caucasian (87.4%), female (77.6%), and married (77%). Average age the respondents was 41.31 ($SD=10.85$; Note: 14.1% of respondents did not report age). Respondents also had an average of almost two children (1.98; $SD=1.11$) age 18 or younger living in their home. Furthermore, the sample was very highly educated with 92.4% having a bachelor's degree or higher (Masters = 48.6%; Doctorate = 5.5%). Finally, the sample consisted of primarily faculty/teaching employees (76.5%) and an average organizational tenure of 7.4 years.

Measurements

Study 2 used the same survey items for WIF ($\alpha = .86$), RJP ($\alpha = .92$) Met Expectations ($\alpha = .82$), and control/demographic variables (negative affectivity $\alpha = .87$) found in Study 1. The retrospective ELP measure used the same items as in Study 1 but added two additional items. Using the same prompt as Study 1 (i.e., “My employer accurately described:”) an example of a new item is “...how employees react when their expectations about work-life balance go unmet.” The alpha for this scale was .93. Additional scales included in Study 2 are included below. All scales utilized a 7 point Likert response format ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

Job Satisfaction. Judge and colleagues (1998) five items job satisfaction scale, which is a shortened version of Brayfield and Rothe’s (1951) measure, was used. A sample item was “I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.” The alpha for this scale was .88.

Organizational Commitment. Consistent with prior research (e.g., Carr et al., 2008; Choi, 2008), I used the shortened nine-item version of Mowday, Steers, and Porter’s (1979) scale to measure organizational commitment. A sample item was “I talk up my employer as a great organization to my friends.” This scale had an alpha of .88.

Turnover Intentions. The following two items modified from Orvis et al. (2008) were used to measure turnover intentions: “It is likely that I will actively look for a job outside my present employer next year” and “I will probably look for a new job outside my present employer in the next year or so.” These two items had an alpha of .97.

Work-Family Centrality. Carr and colleagues’ (2008) work-family centrality scale was used to measure this construct. A sample item was “the major satisfaction in my life comes from my work rather than my family.” The alpha for this scale was .81.

Job Type. An independent sample *t*-test revealed that teachers and staff differed significantly in their levels of WIF and Met Expectations. Therefore, job type (1 = faculty, 2 = staff) was used as a control variable.

Table 8 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the variables used to test hypotheses in Study 2.

Table 8: Study 2 – Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (N=183)

Variable	M	SD	WIF	JobSat	Expectations	OrgCommitment	W-F Centrality	RJP	ELP	Turnover
WIF	3.65	1.22	1							
JobSat	5.62	1.19	-.522**	1						
Expectations	4.73	1.37	-.442**	.456**	1					
OrgCommitment	5.31	1.00	-.269**	.667**	.471**	1				
W-F Centrality	2.12	.91	.109	.041	.069	.145	1			
RJP	4.40	1.25	-.429**	.403**	.604**	.460**	.061	1		
ELP	3.67	1.25	-.315**	.292**	.505**	.412**	.062	.805**	1	
Turnover	2.57	1.92	.209**	-.538**	-.287**	-.542**	-.028	-.292**	-.217**	1

** Sig at .01

WIF = work interference with family

RJP = realistic job preview

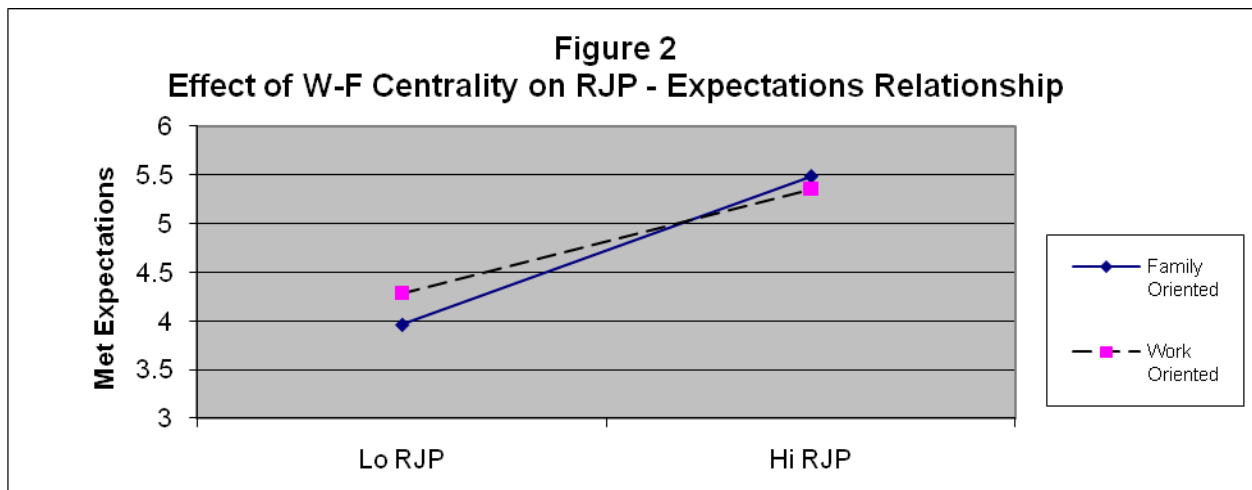
ELP = expectation lowering procedure

Study 2 – Results and Analysis

The first step was to run a CFA including all of the items for each measure. The first CFA resulted in poor fit (CFI = .82; RMSEA = .07; RMSR = .07). Those items with low standardized estimates (<.65) were removed from the analysis and the fit statistics were computed again. The result was improved fit with CFI = .91, RMSEA = .07, and RMSR = .05. Items removed from analysis are noted as such in Appendix B. Based on results from Study 1, the decision was made to test RJP and ELP in two separate models to avoid the suppression effect that was evident in Study 1. Only those items that remained in the CFA were used in the structural models.

The RJP only model was run first. The fit statistics for the first model were slightly below what is normally considered “acceptable” fit (CFI = .88; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .10). Hypothesis 1 was supported in that RJP was significantly related to Met Expectations (t -value = 12.79; $p < .001$). Met Expectations was also significantly related to WIF (t -value = -6.732; $p < .001$) providing support for Hypothesis 3. Furthermore, Hypothesis 7 was supported as WIF was significantly related to a) organizational commitment (t -value = -4.88; $p < .001$), b) job satisfaction (t -value = -7.034; $p < .001$), and c) turnover intentions (t -value = 3.267; $p < .01$). The second RJP only model contained a path between RJP and WIF and had slightly better fit statistics than the first model (CFI = .89; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .09). Hypothesis 1 was supported as it was in the first model. However, Hypothesis 3, which predicted that met expectations would lead to less WIF, received only marginal support (t -value = -1.92; $p < .10$). Furthermore, there was a significant relationship between RJP and WIF (t -value = -3.54; $p < .001$) which suggests that Met Expectations does not fully mediate the relationship between RJP and WIF. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is not supported in Study 2 as it was in Study 1. Hypothesis 6

predicted that work-family centrality would interact with RJP to influence Met Expectations, such that RJP would have a stronger effect on Met Expectations in individuals high in work-family centrality (i.e., work-oriented). This hypothesis received support, albeit moderate (t -value = -1.837; $p < .10$). Specifically, individuals who received high levels of RJP (i.e., above the mean score for RJP), regardless of whether they were work-oriented or family-oriented, were more likely to have their expectations regarding the work-family interface met as compared to those who received low levels of RJP. However, for individuals who received low levels of RJP, those who were family-oriented appeared to have their expectations met less than those who were work-oriented. That is, not receiving an RJP (or receiving only a minimal RJP) led family-oriented individuals to have fewer met expectations as compared to work-oriented individuals. Figure 2 shows the interaction between RJP and work-family centrality.



Finally, the outcomes of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions were tested as outcomes of WIF. These organizationally relevant outcomes have been shown to be significantly related to WIF in recent meta-analyses (e.g., Allen et al., 2000). The current study sought to replicate those findings. Specifically, it was hypothesized that organizational commitment and job satisfaction would be negatively related to WIF while turnover intentions would be positively related to WIF. All three outcomes of WIF were significant in the RJP and ELP models, providing support for Hypothesis 7a-c. Path significance statistics for the RJP only models in Study 2 are provided in Table 9.

		<i>Model 1</i>		<i>Model 2</i>	
		<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>
Paths Modeled:					
RJP	→ Expectations	.668	12.79***	.647	12.02***
RJP	→ WIF			-.317	-3.54***
Expectations	→ WIF	-.431	-6.732***	-.183	-1.92°
WIF	→ Org Comm	-.351	-4.880***	-.351	-4.87***
WIF	→ Job Sat	-.464	-7.034***	-.462	-6.97***
WIF	→ Turnover	.240	3.267**	.239	3.25**
RJPxCentral	→ Expectations			-.152	-1.837°
Overall Fit:					
χ^2 (and d.f.)		1103.183 (594 df)		1091.640 (593 df)	
CFI		.88		.89	
RMSEA		.07		.07	
SRMR		.10		.09	

***p<.001; **p<.01; °p<.10

Next I ran the ELP only models. Like the RJP only models, the ELP only models' fit statistics were a little below the threshold for acceptable fit (first model: CFI = .88; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .10). The relationship between ELP and Met Expectations was significant (*t*-value

= 8.554; $p < .001$) which provided support for Hypothesis 2. Similarly, Met Expectations was significantly related to WIF (t -value = -6.039; $p < .001$) which provided support to Hypothesis 3. Upon adding in a direct path from ELP to WIF, the model again had somewhat acceptable fit statistics (CFI = .89; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .10). In the second model both Hypotheses 2 and 3 were supported at $p < .001$. However, the direct path from ELP to WIF was significant (t -value = -1.782; $p < .10$), meaning that there is not full mediation and Hypothesis 5 was not supported. Hypothesis 6 predicted that work-family centrality would interact with ELP to impact Met Expectations. However, this hypothesis received no support. Lastly, the outcomes of organizational commitment (t -value = -4.90; $p < .001$), job satisfaction (t -value = -6.95; $p < .001$), and turnover intentions (t -value = 3.25; $p < .01$) were all significantly related to WIF providing support for Hypothesis 7. Path significance for the ELP only model can be found in Table 10.

Table 10
Structural Equation Modeling Results (Study 2 – ELP only)

		<i>Model 1</i>		<i>Model 2</i>	
		<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>t-value</i>
Paths Modeled:					
ELP	→ Expectations	.528	8.554***	.518	8.298***
ELP	→ WIF			-.140	-1.782°
Expectations	→ WIF	-0.410	-6.309***	-.320	-3.87***
WIF	→ Org Comm	-.351	-4.866***	-.353	-4.90***
WIF	→ Job Sat	-.463	-7.003***	-.461	-6.95***
WIF	→ Turnover	.239	3.255**	.239	3.25**
ELPxCentra	→ Expectations			-.052	-.433
Overall Fit:					
χ^2 (and d.f.)		1115.278 (594 df)		1112.162 (593 df)	
CFI		.88		.89	
RMSEA		.07		.07	
SRMR		.10		.10	

*** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; ° $p < .10$

Study 3 – Research Design and Methodology

Procedure and Participants

Similar to Study 1, the current study utilized a peer nomination sampling procedure, which has been employed in recent work-family research (e.g., Matthews et al., 2010). Undergraduate students in upper level business administration courses in a large Southeastern university recruited working adults to take the survey. The students were able to earn nominal course credit for having a working adult take the survey on their behalf. A working adult is anyone who is age 18 or older, works an average of 20+ hours per week, and is not a full-time college student. The undergraduate students ($N = 300$) were trained on the data collection methodology and ethics regarding the study. They were then provided with an e-mail invitation that they distributed to working adults whom they personally knew and whom also met the eligibility requirements for this study. Students in two courses ($N = 98$) were allowed to have up to two working adults take the survey on their behalf while students in three courses ($N = 202$) were allowed to have one working adult take the survey for them. Therefore, while this data collection method does not allow for a traditional response rate to be calculated, the maximum possible sample size was approximately 398. A total of 332 surveys were completed during Time 1. Of those, 231 completed Time 2. Therefore, the final sample of 231 represents 58% of the approximate maximum sample size that could have been obtained.

The sex of the final sample was approximately even with 54.5% female, 41.6% male, and 3.9% unreported. A majority of the survey participants were White/Caucasian (87.9%), married (68%), and had an average of 1.6 children under the age of 18 living in their home ($SD = .96$). Additionally, a large proportion of the sample had a college education (Bachelor's = 46.3%, Masters/Professional = 19%). Moreover, several different job types were represented by the

sample (Professional = 32.9%, Management = 34.6%, Administrative = 19.9%, Technical = 11.7%). Finally, the average age of the participants was 42.6 years ($SD = 13.34$; 9% did not report age).

Procedure and Recruitment Manipulation

This study consisted of a two-part online survey. The Time 1 survey included measures for demographic variables and the same expectations regarding the work-family interface measurement used in Studies 1 and 2. Time 2 included a realistic recruitment condition, follow-up scenario, manipulation check, scenario realism check, and measures of expectations and anticipated WIF. Upon starting the Time 2 survey participants were randomly assigned to one of four recruitment conditions: RJP (N=59), ELP (N=58), RJP/ELP combination (N=55), or Control (N=59).

The instructions given to all participants regardless of recruitment condition were as follows:

Below is a brief scenario describing the experience of someone who is in the process of obtaining a new job. We would like for you to imagine that you are the person in the scenario. Please read the scenario carefully and respond to the questions that follow.

Each recruitment condition contained the following prompt:

You recently interviewed for a position as an account representative at Lakeland Industries. Before accepting the position you were asked to drop by the Human Resources (HR) office at Lakeland Industries. At that time, an HR representative told you the following:

Appendix C provides the language used for all four conditions. In all four conditions, the participants began by reading and accepting the informed consent form. Then each participant included their telephone number. Telephone numbers were used to match responses from Time 1 and Time 2. Furthermore, 10% of the participants were contacted to check that they did in fact

take the survey (and not the undergraduate student). Next, all participants were given the instructions noted above and were then presented the condition to which they were randomly assigned (preceded by the prompt). Following the recruitment message, the next page of the survey consisted of a scenario example where work interfered with family. The scenario is as follows:

... You have now been working for Lakeland Industries for six (6) months and there have been instances where your work has interfered with your family life. For example, you had to miss your child's school play because Lakeland's strict 8:00 a.m. – 5:00 p.m. policy didn't allow for you to leave the office during the workday. You also were forced to miss your family's annual summer trip to the lake, as you had to travel overnight to a client's office. Furthermore, there have been times when you've had to cancel evening plans with your spouse, family, and/or friends because a client in a different time zone needed your assistance (via phone) well after your normal workday was supposed to be over.

Participants then completed survey items for the measurements listed below.

Measurements

Demographics and Controls. Study 3 included the same demographic and control items used in Study 1. Following prior experimental research in work-family (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003), only those control variables that were significantly correlated with WIF were used in the regression analysis (sex, number of children in the home).

Met Expectations. During Time 1 expectations regarding the work-family interface were measured using the same De Vos and colleagues' (2003, 2009) measure of "expectation fulfillment regarding work-home balance" used in Study 1. However, the wording of each item was modified to reflect how participants believe organizations should act in relation to meeting employees' expectations regarding work-family balance. A sample item was "I believe organizations should provide opportunities for flexible working hours depending on employees' personal needs." During Time 2 participants were instructed to respond to the same expectations

(modified for future tense) as if they were the individual in the scenarios. A sample item was “This organization would meet my expectations regarding opportunities for flexible working hours depending on my personal needs.” Cronbach’s alpha for Time 1 was .69 and .88 for Time 2. It is important to note that the results of Met Expectations during Time 1 and Time 2 were not used to calculate difference scores. Prior research (e.g., Irving & Meyer, 1995; Irving & Montes, 2009; Yao, Ma, & Yue, 2010) suggests there are methodological limitations associated with using difference scores in met expectations research. For instance, one of the components of a difference score for met expectations (e.g., pre-entry or post-entry) may correlate highly with the outcome variable of interest, thus leading the overall difference score index to be correlated with the outcome variable also (Irving & Meyer, 1995). For that reason, Met Expectations at Time 1 were used only as a control variable in the regression equations.

Work-Family Conflict. Participants were asked to respond to WIF items based on how they would feel if they were the person in the scenarios. As such, a measure of anticipated work-family conflict (AWFC) was used to gauge WIF. AWFC is conceptualized as an outcome expectation, where outcome expectations are beliefs regarding the likely outcomes of decisions (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Westring & Ryan, in press). Six WIF items similar to Westring and Ryan’s (in press) recent empirical work were used. These items are essentially tense-modified versions of the time-based and strain-based dimensions of Carlson et al.’s (2000) work-family conflict scale. A sample item was “I would have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I would have to spend on work responsibilities in this job.” The alpha for this scale was .87.

Manipulation Check and Scenario Realism. Manipulation check items were modified from prior experimental recruitment research. Three items were used from Saks (1989) and a sample item

was “I found out a lot of the negative characteristics of the account representative job in this study.” Additionally, four manipulation check items were modified from Gaugler and Thornton (1990) and a sample item was “I was told only *good* things about the job.”

Scenario realism was measured using four items from Fedor, Davis, Maslyn, and Mathieson (2001). A sample item for scenario realism was “This situation could happen, or has happened, to me.” All items for the manipulation check and scenario realism used a 7 point Likert response format (*strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*). Scenario realism had an alpha of .70. Furthermore, the mean realism score was 4.78, indicating that on average participants responded that they *agree* that the situations presented in the vignettes were realistic.

Table 11 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the variables used to test hypotheses in Study 3.

Table 11: Study 3 – Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations (N=231)

Variable	Mean	S.D.	WIF	Expectations (T1)	Expectations (T2)	Children in Home	Sex
WIF	4.76	1.21	1				
Expectations (T1)	5.36	.933	.240**	1			
Expectations (T2)	2.79	1.37	-.498**	-.135*	1		
Children in Home	1.62	.958	.145*	.074	-.083	1	
Sex (1=male, 2 = female)	1.57	.497	.216**	.206**	-.097	-.064	1

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

Study 3 – Results and Analysis

Manipulation Checks

The three manipulation check items from Saks (1989) were summed into a single measure while the four items from Gaugler and Thornton (1990) were treated separately in the manipulation check analysis. The results of a one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences

($p < .001$) between the four conditions. Tukey HSD results suggest that the RJP condition scenario differed significantly ($p < .01$) from the ELP condition scenario regarding the mean of the summated manipulation check scale. Similarly, RJP, ELP, and RJP/ELP conditions all differed significantly ($p < .001$) from the Control condition. There was no significant difference between the RJP/ELP combination condition and RJP condition, which is to be expected since the combination condition contains the exact same RJP condition text (in addition to ELP text). However, the RJP/ELP combination condition did differ significantly ($p < .001$) from the ELP condition. The mean of the summated manipulation check measure for the four conditions are as follows: RJP (4.99), ELP (4.32), RJP/ELP combination (5.30), Control, (4.07).

ANOVA results for the single items provide support that the notion that the four conditions were manipulated successfully. For example, the item “I was told some of the *bad* things about the job” had a significantly different mean for the Control (3.17) condition as compared to the RJP (5.27; $p < .001$), ELP (4.20; $p < .01$), and RJP/ELP (5.28; $p < .001$) conditions. This is important because the Control condition contained no negative information about the job, while the RJP condition contained what many participants may have viewed as specific negative information (e.g., “account representatives must adhere to an 8:00am – 5:00pm work schedule”) and the ELP condition contained general negative information (e.g., “[employees] often [have] unrealistic expectations about working conditions, work hours, etc...”). Along similar lines, the Control condition mean (3.54) for the item “I was told *both positive and negative* things about the job” were significantly different from RJP (5.34; $p < .001$), ELP (4.29; $p < .05$), and RJP/ELP (5.33; $p < .001$) means for the item.

Together, the significant mean differences on the summated scale and individual scale items suggest that the conditions were manipulated as intended. One caveat to this is the finding

that the mean for RJP/ELP (5.30) combination *did* differ significantly ($p < .001$) from the ELP (4.32) condition for the summated scale mean. This is perplexing because the RJP/ELP combination contains the same ELP wording in addition to the RJP wording. Although it is speculative, it may be that the specificity of the RJP wording included in the RJP/ELP combination condition was enough to cause respondents to feel that they had received considerable negative information about the account representative job in the scenario.

Regression Results

To test Hypotheses 1-5 I used multiple hierarchical regression. In Step 1 sex, number of children living in the home, Time 1 expectations, and scenario realism were entered as control variables, with Met Expectations as the dependent variable. The realistic recruitment conditions were entered as independent variables in Step 2. Conditions were coded using the dummy variable system advocated by Cohen and Cohen (1983). Therefore, the RJP, ELP, and RJP/ELP combination conditions were entered in Step 2. There was no need to enter the Control condition because it was represented implicitly. That is, the Control condition was represented in the dummy variable system when a case had scores of 0, 0, 0 for the other three conditions. Neither RJP nor ELP was significantly related to Met Expectations, providing no support for Hypotheses 1 and 2. Furthermore, the RJP/ELP combination was not a significant predictor of Expectations being met.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that those individuals who had their expectations regarding the work-family interface met would have lower perceptions of WIF. Using the same control variables mentioned above, the results of Step 2 of the regression equation suggest that Met Expectations are significantly related to WIF ($\beta = -.441$; $p < .001$). This provides support to Hypothesis 3. Finally, Hypotheses 4 and 5 predicted that the realistic recruitment techniques

would have an effect on WIF completely mediated through Met Expectations. The control variables were entered into Step 1 and realistic recruitment conditions into Step 2. The only realistic recruitment condition significantly related to WIF was RJP ($\beta=-.165$; $p<.05$). However, when Met Expectations was entered into Step 3, RJP still had a moderate significant relationship with WIF ($\beta=-.128$; $p<.10$), while Met Expectations was strongly related to WIF ($\beta=-.422$; $p<.001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is not fully supported, as there is possibly another mediating mechanism between RJP and WIF. Furthermore, RJP did not even have a significant relationship with Met Expectations (H1) which further casts doubt on the potential for Hypothesis 4 to be supported. Tables 12 – 14 provide regression results for Hypotheses 1 – 5.

Table 12: Study 3 – Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 1 – 2

<i>Hypotheses 1 – 2</i>	<u>Expectations</u>	
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β
# of Children in Home	-.076	-.073
Sex	-.070	-.077
Scenario Realism	.139*	.155*
Expectations – Time 1	-.103	-.095
Realistic Job Preview		.086
Expectation Lowering Procedure		-.074
RJP/ELP Combination		.120
R^2	.047	.077
ΔR^2		.030°
F	2.639	2.534*
<i>d.f.</i>	(4, 216)	(7, 213)

* $p<.05$ ° $p<.10$

Table 13: Study 3 – Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 3

	Work Interference with Family	
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β
<i>Hypothesis 3</i>		
# of Children in Home	.144*	.111°
Sex	.179**	.148*
Scenario Realism	-.097	-.036
Expectations – Time 1	.188**	.143
Expectations – Time 2		-.441***
R^2	.117	.302
ΔR^2		.185***
F	7.147***	18.598***
d.f.	(4, 216)	(5, 215)

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05; °p<.10

Table 14: Study 3 – Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 4 – 5

	Work Interference with Family		
	Step 1 β	Step 2 β	Step 3 β
<i>Hypotheses 4 – 5</i>			
# of Children in Home	.144*	.136*	.105
Sex	.179**	.188**	.155**
Scenario Realism	-.097	-.108°	-.043
Expectations – Time 1	.188**	.186**	.145*
Realistic Job Preview		-.165*	-.128°
Expectation Lowering Procedure		.042	.011
RJP/ELP Combination		-.112	-.061
Expectations			-.422***
R^2	.117	.154	.318
ΔR^2		.037*	.164***
F	7.147***	5.525***	12.357***
d.f.	(4, 216)	(7, 213)	(8, 212)

***p<.001; **p<.01; *p<.05; °p<.10

CHAPTER FOUR: INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Discussion of Study 1

The current study provides initial support for the proposed effects of realistic recruitment on perceptions of WIF. This study contributes to the body of work-family literature by integrating employee recruitment research. Specifically, the realistic recruitment practices of RJP and ELP were proposed to be “protective antecedents” (Lu et al., 2010) of work-family conflict. That is, the use of a work-family contextualized RJP and/or ELP may be seen as a protective antecedent as they are likely to *reduce* perceptions of work-family conflict, as opposed to the often researched “negative antecedents” (e.g., work stressors) that have been shown to have positive relationships with work-family conflict. Overall, the findings of Study 1 can be taken as initial support for the positive impact of realistic recruitment on employees’ perceptions of WIF.

Based on the literature on realistic recruitment (e.g., Morse & Popovich, 2009) and met expectations (e.g., Porter & Steers, 1973), it was hypothesized that the realistic recruitment practices of RJP and ELP would lead to a higher likelihood of employees having their expectations met. In particular, I predicted that an RJP or ELP framed in terms of the work-family interface would lead employees to having their expectations related to the work-family interface met. Support was found for the relationship between RJP and met expectations. However, ELP did not have a significant impact on employees’ met expectations in the initial model. Interestingly, the relationship between ELP and employee met expectations, although non-significant, was opposite of the hypothesized direction (t -value = -1.49). Upon consulting the literature, ELP may have been acting as a suppressor in the original model, causing RJP’s

effect to be inflated and ELP's effect to be diminished and in the opposite direction as hypothesized. Therefore, the decision was made to re-run the analysis with each realistic recruitment variable having its own model predicting Met Expectations and WIF.

The RJP only model provided results consistent with the initial model that included both RJP and ELP. Namely, RJP was significantly related to Met Expectations, Met Expectations was significantly related to WIF, and the relationship between RJP and WIF was non-significant. The ELP only model also provided similar results. Without RJP in the model, ELP had a marginal ($p < .10$) significant relationship with Met Expectations, Met Expectations was significantly related to WIF, and the relationship between ELP and WIF was non-significant.

When employees in the current study had their expectations regarding the work-family interface met, they had lower perceptions of WIF. It is important to note that the paths between the realistic recruitment variables and WIF in this study were non-significant. This finding, along with those of significant paths between realistic recruitment \rightarrow Met Expectations and Met Expectations \rightarrow WIF, provides support for Met Expectations fully mediating the relationship between realistic recruitment and WIF. Although the relationship between RJP and Met Expectations was stronger than the relationship between ELP and Met Expectations, together these initial results suggest that the realistic recruitment practices of RJP and ELP may be effective protective antecedents that can lower employees' perceptions of work interfering with family.

Study 1 is not without limitations. First, my data are cross-sectional in nature, as all participants completed the survey at one point in time with all scale items on the same survey. As such, causal conclusions cannot be considered legitimate. However, the two realistic recruitment independent variables (RJP and ELP) were worded in such a way so that participants were asked

to “think back to when [they] accepted [their] current job” and recall the degree (if any) to which their present employer gave them an RJP or ELP. Thus, it is highly unlikely that present perceptions of WIF or expectations regarding the work-family interface could *cause* an RJP or ELP. Nonetheless, current perceptions of WIF may have confounded participants’ recall of how they were recruited. Future research may benefit from using a longitudinal design where employees are given a realistic recruitment prior to entry into the organization, then given a survey with WIF and expectations at a later time.

Another limitation of Study 1 is the sole reliance upon self-report measures. In particular, both RJP and ELP were assessed using a retrospective measure. Some scholars (e.g., Golden, 1992) suggest that retrospective accounts should not be used in organizational research as they are often not valid due to such factors as inaccurate recall. Others (e.g, Miller, Cardinal, & Glick, 1997) maintain that retrospective accounts should not be rejected if the measure is reliable. The retrospective measures of RJP and ELP were modified from prior research (Templer et al., 2006; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990) that utilized reliable retrospective measures of RJP. As noted earlier, both realistic recruitment measures exhibited acceptable alphas (RJP = .86; ELP = .85).

Because of the peer-nomination sampling procedure used in the study, it is uncertain how representative my sample is of any particular population. Also, the sample is predominantly Caucasian/White (70%), which Casper and colleagues (2007) note is typical in work-family research, but limits what we know about work-family issues in other racial and ethnic groups. Nonetheless, the sample was somewhat evenly composed of both sexes and contained adults from multiple organizations and various job types.

Discussion of Study 2

Study 2 sought to replicate the results of the primary relationships tested in Study 1 along with additional hypotheses regarding outcomes of WIF and the moderating role of work-family centrality. Two separate models were run, one for RJP and one for ELP, to test the hypotheses in Study 2. The RJP only model provided strong support for the relationship between RJP and Met Expectations ($p < .001$) but only marginal support for the effect of Met Expectations on WIF ($p < .10$) when the direct path from RJP→WIF was included. Furthermore, the direct path was significant at $p < .001$, suggesting that there may be another mechanism besides Met Expectations accounting for the relationship between RJP and WIF. Likewise, the ELP only model provided support for the relationships between ELP and Met Expectations ($p < .001$) and Met Expectations and WIF ($p < .001$), but also had a moderately significant ($p < .10$) ELP→WIF direct path. Therefore, the results of Study 2 regarding the primary relationships (Hypotheses 1-5) were not completely consistent with those of Study 1. That is, Study 1 suggests that Met Expectations completely mediate the relationship between both realistic recruitment practices and WIF, while Study 2 indicates that full mediation most likely does not exist.

The current study provides little support to the moderating effect of work-family centrality. Whether an individual was work-oriented or family-oriented had no bearing on the influence of ELP on Met Expectations. However, those individuals who were family-oriented appeared to have their expectations met less when they received little to no RJP. Finally, both models suggested that WIF leads to increases in turnover intentions and decreases in job satisfaction and commitment to the organization.

Study 2 has limitations as well. Like Study 1, the current study relied solely on cross-sectional data and self-report measures. Future research might attempt to gather measures of WIF

from employees' spouses and/or significant others. Also, while the current study gathered responses from employees in seven different schools in one school district, the empirical findings of the study are limited in that they are only generalizable to similar school districts in the United States. Furthermore, the sample consisted primarily of female faculty members, further limiting the generalizability of the empirical findings.

Discussion of Study 3

The purpose of Study 3 was to test the primary relationships (Hypotheses 1-5) using a different method from Studies 1 and 2. As noted above, there are limitations in using a retrospective account of realistic recruitment. Therefore, Study 3 sought to use an alternate method of empirically testing the effects of realistic recruitment of WIF. Specifically, an experimental design in which realistic recruitment was operationalized through written vignettes was used instead of the self-report retrospective realistic recruitment measures. Contrary to the met expectations hypothesis, Study 3 suggests that RJP and ELP are *not* significantly related to met expectations. That is, there was not a significant relationship between those participants who were randomly assigned to the RJP, ELP, or RJP/ELP combination conditions and met expectations regarding the work-family interface. When expectations were met, those individuals reported that they would anticipate less WIF. However, it is unknown (in the context of this study) what led participants to respond that the organization in the vignettes would meet their expectations.

Study 3 also shows a significant negative relationship between RJP and WIF, providing support for the overarching research purpose of whether realistic recruitment can help alleviate perceptions of work-family conflict. Although the regression results do not substantiate the prediction that Met Expectations fully mediate the relationship between realistic recruitment and

work-family conflict, nevertheless the significant relationship between RJP and WIF provides a basis from which to build future research on realistic recruitment as a protective antecedent of work-family conflict.

This study is not without limitations however. First, it is feasible that certain characteristics of the scenarios influenced the results of the study. For example, each condition had participants imagine that they had accepted a position as an “account representative” in an organization. Some participants may have had preconceived notions regarding the role/job of account representative, which in turn could have influenced their responses to survey items. Second, two conditions (i.e., RJP and RJP/ELP combination) told participants what type of work (e.g., visiting with clients in person) the account representative job entails while two other conditions (i.e., ELP and Control) did not. However, this limitation may have been somewhat reduced by having “working adults” as participants instead of college undergraduate students. That is, the working adults were asked to play a role that was hopefully somewhat familiar to them since they have prior work experience (Greenberg & Eskew, 1993). Also, the follow-up vignette where participants were given a situation in which work interfered with family life may not have resonated with all participants. For example, participants were told that they had to miss their child’s school play because of work. This example may not be relevant to those individuals who do not have children in real life. Therefore, responses to survey items may have been different if alternate versions of the follow-up scenario had been used.

Another limitation may be the operationalization of the dependent variable WIF. I instructed participants to envision themselves in the role of account representative at Lakeland Industries and subsequently anticipate how they would respond based on the condition they were assigned to. As such, I measured *anticipated* WIF rather than the participants’ actual WIF.

However, this limitation may not be of great importance as Greenberg and Eskew (1993) note that many experimental studies in the organizational sciences ask participants to indicate the likelihood of their response to a role-played situation.

Table 15 provides a summary of the Hypotheses and their support across all three studies.

Table 15: Results of Studies 1, 2, & 3	<u>Study 1</u>	<u>Study2</u>	<u>Study 3</u>
H1: The use of a pre-hire realistic job preview (RJP) containing information about the work-life context will result in greater met expectations.	Supported	Supported	Not Supported
H2: The use of a pre-hire expectation lowering procedure (ELP) containing information about the work-life context will result in greater met expectations.	Supported	Supported	Not Supported
H3: Met expectations related to work-life balance will lead to lower levels of perceived WIF.	Supported	Supported	Supported
H4: The effects of RJP on perceived WIF is fully mediated by met expectations related to work-life balance.	Supported	Partial Support (Full Mediation Not Supported)	Partial Support (Full Mediation Not Supported)
H5: The effects of ELP on perceived WIF is fully mediated by met expectations related to work-life balance.	Supported	Partial Support (Full Mediation Not Supported)	Not Supported
H6: Work-family centrality will moderate the relationship between realistic recruitment and perceptions of met expectations of work-life balance, such that the relationship between realistic recruitment and met expectations will be stronger when work is valued more than family.	--		--
	RJP	Supported	
	ELP	Not Supported	
H7: WIF will be related to		Supported	
a) job satisfaction (-)	--	Supported	--
b) organizational commitment (-)		Supported	
c) turnover intentions (+)		Supported	

CHAPTER FIVE: IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Prior research on the interface of work and family has largely focused on the negative outcomes of WIF and the antecedents that cause WIF to increase (e.g., Byron, 2005). Despite the extensive amount of attention that has been placed on work-family conflict, fewer studies have focused on work and/or family resources that may be seen as protective antecedents of work-family conflict (i.e., those that lessen conflict). The purpose of the current research was to examine if realistic recruitment practices could act as protective antecedents of WIF. Utilizing literature on work-family conflict, role theory, realistic recruitment, and met expectations, a theoretical model was conceptualized and empirically tested using three studies in a multimethod approach. The results of the current research have implications for researchers and managers. An examination of these relationships is important, as research reveals that millennials (i.e., those born in or after 1980) have high expectations when it comes to work-life balance (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). Correspondingly, a recent study using a sample of over 23,000 individuals from the millennial generation suggests that younger workers do in fact have expectations of being able to balance their work and family roles (Ng et al., 2010).

Research Implications

The realistic recruitment practices of RJP and ELP were found to lead to met expectations in both field studies (i.e., Studies 1 & 2). More specifically, an RJP or ELP containing a work-family context was significantly related to participants' expectations regarding the work-family interface being met in Study 1 and Study 2. Conversely, this relationship between realistic recruitment and Met Expectations was not present in the experimental study

(i.e., Study 3). The discrepancy in these findings may be due to various reasons. For example, responses to the retrospective accounts of realistic recruitment used in Studies 1 and 2 may have been influenced by participants' present beliefs of whether their expectations are being met. That is, if a person currently feels that his or her expectations about balancing work and family are being met, that belief could possibly distort their recall of the recruitment they received. An avenue for future research may be to provide actual RJPs and ELPs to new recruits in an organization, similar to that done by Buckley and colleagues (2002). New recruits may be given an RJP or ELP contextualized to the work-family interface with subsequent surveys asking the new recruits about whether their expectations had been met and how they perceive work interfering with their family life.

Despite the lack of support of a realistic recruitment→met expectations relationship in Study 3, it should be noted that empirical results across all three studies showed that participants reported reductions in perceptions of WIF when their expectations regarding the work-family interface were met. As such, it is evident that having employees' expectations met is helpful in that they are likely to have less work-family conflict. Due to the absence of a significant relationship between RJP and/or ELP and met expectations in Study 3, future research could benefit from an exploration of additional antecedents of met expectations related to the work-family interface. These antecedents may be both at the individual level, such as a family supportive supervisor (e.g., Hammer et al., 2009), or organizational level, such as an overall climate of work-family support (e.g., Thompson et al., 2004).

Yao and colleagues' (2010) research suggests that RJPs will have positive effects on work attitudes and behaviors, but that those positive effects will likely occur through mechanisms other than reduced expectations. Consequently, future research may also look at

other mechanisms that may help mediate the relationship between realistic recruitment and WIF. All three studies in the current manuscript provided some level of support to the overarching research question as to whether realistic recruitment is a valid tool to help reduce employees' perceptions of work-family conflict. While Study 1 provided evidence of met expectations completely mediating the relationship between realistic recruitment and WIF, Studies 2 and 3 provided only partial support, suggesting that there are mechanisms accounting for the relationship between RJP and/or ELP and reductions in WIF.

Finally, it should be noted that there are several methodological advantages despite the aforementioned limitations. For instance, the current study utilizes an experimental design, fulfilling Casper et al.'s (2007) call for more experiments in work-family research. Casper and colleagues' review of work-family research over the past 24 years (1980-2003) showed that only 2% of work-family studies have utilized an experimental design. During the same timeframe only 17% of work-family studies used structural equation modeling as the data analysis technique. The current research utilized structural equation modeling in two of the empirical studies.

Practical Implications

The impetus for the current research arose out of a recognition that not all organizations are in a position to offer work-family policies. The positive benefits of work-family policies, such as flexible work hours, have been touted in recent academic research (e.g., Kossek & Michel, 2010). Furthermore, the popular press has given significant attention to work-family policies, leading to the cultural expectation that progressive organizations offer such policies (Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, in press). However, not all companies are in a position to offer such policies. This may be due to factors such as the type of work or the lack of funds to

implement such policies. The use of realistic recruitment techniques was proposed as a way to lessen employees' perceptions of work-family conflict without the explicit use or implementation of work-family policies. While the implementation of work-family policies can be expensive (Thompson & Aspinwall, 2009), an RJP and/or ELP with a work-family context can be executed relatively inexpensively.

Taken as a whole the empirical results of all three studies suggest that realistic recruitment is one way in which WIF may be reduced. While the current study does not support a blanket statement that all organizations should put realistic recruitment techniques into practice, it does suggest that such an implementation could serve to reduce the perceptions of work interfering with family life, and thus, the negative outcomes (e.g., decreases in job satisfaction) that can result. Realistic recruitment practices are not completely void of financial costs, and the RJP, as it is more specific in nature, is more costly than the ELP (Morse & Popovich, 2009). However, they are undoubtedly more economical to create and implement when compared to cost-intensive work-family policies (e.g., on-site childcare). Finally, the current results show that, if realistic recruitment practices do produce a reduction in employees' perceptions of WIF, then such practices would not only serve the interest of the individual employee but also of the organization.

Future Research

Future work-family research will fill several gaps in the literature. As Lu and colleagues (2010) have indicated, most studies have focused on the negative antecedents, or stressors, that are related to increases in work-family conflict, while fewer studies have sought to examine protective antecedents. Following the direction of the current study, future research should to continue to look at protective antecedents that may aid employees in reducing perceptions of

work-family conflict. For example, preliminary analysis of data on 477 working adults indicates that exercise is negatively related to work-family conflict, with the relationship being completely mediated through a) increases in self-efficacy and b) decreases in psychological strain. Further analyses and theory building are need to be done in this line of research, but early results indicate that regular exercise may be a protective antecedent in reducing work-family conflict.

Another protective antecedent that may be a fruitful area to research is financial health. That is, does an individual or couple's financial health (or hi/lo materialism) affect work-family issues? This issue was briefly touched upon by Martins and colleagues (2002) when they tested financial resources as a moderator of work-family conflict and career satisfaction (hypothesis not supported). However, they conceptualized financial resources as being able to afford a variety of services (e.g., nanny/child care, maids) and operationalized their measure by dividing total household income by number of individuals in the household. Researchers may look at bad debt (e.g., car payments, credit debt) as a measure of financial strain that may be an antecedent or moderator of work-family conflict. Alternately, a measure of materialism (e.g., Richins, 1987) may be used rather than asking participants for information regarding their finances. The status of an individual or couple's financial health may fit best theoretically as a moderator between perceived work demands, perceived family demand, work hours, or some other work and/or family variable and not as a true antecedent. If so, it may be that better financial health (of the individual/couple) will moderate the relationship among work and/or family variables and work-family conflict such that better financial health weakens the relationship (i.e., reduces work-family conflict). A practical implication, should support be found for this relationship, is that organizations may provide access to personal finance counseling as a benefit to employees.

Along similar lines, spiritual well-being may act in a protective fashion in moderating the relationship between work variables and work-family conflict. For example, prayer or meditation may be used in order to reduce stress at work or home (Zellars & Perrewe, 2003). Although spirituality can be a significant factor in coping with workplace stress, there have been few empirical studies of this relationship (Csiernik & Adams, 2002). Furthermore, there is virtually no work-family research that empirically tests spirituality and work-family conflict. Following the resource drain approach (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), spirituality may provide an intrinsic resource or ability that allows an individual to better meet the demands of the work or family roles.

Taken together, empirical examination of the protective benefits of exercise, financial health, and spirituality would contribute to work-family research by going beyond simply looking at those things that cause, or increase, work-family conflict and seeking to find ways to reduce work-family conflict.

Recent critical reviews of work-family research (Casper et al., 2007; Chang et al., 2010) found many issues that need to be addressed in future research. These issues revolve largely around a) sampling, b) negative vs. positive view, and c) methods.

Both Chang and colleagues (2010) and Casper and colleagues (2007) placed considerable emphasis on discussing the types of individuals that have been included in samples in work-family research. The most recent review indicates that a vast majority of work-family studies continue to use samples comprised of individuals from the traditional family (i.e., married with children) while ignoring the population of single and same-sex parent families. Future research should seek to include those who are in non-traditional family settings in order to empirically examine whether current work-family theories and policies (e.g., family-friendly benefits) are

applicable to those outside the traditional family. Furthermore, future research should incorporate a study utilizing a sample of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and or transsexual (LGBT) individuals. This sample possibly faces unique discrimination and/or stigmatization issues in the workplace (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). For example, an individual's level of disclosure may account for variance in that person's assessment of how satisfied with their own work-family balance they are. That is, has the individual disclosed his/her sexual orientation to only close coworkers, or has disclosure been made to each person in his/her immediate work group, including his/her superior? Furthermore, does sexual identity (i.e., how much one identifies with being LGBT) moderate this relationship, much like role salience or work-family centrality moderates many work-family relationships?

Along similar lines, Casper and colleagues (2007) pointed out in their review that most work-family studies used samples primarily consisting of Caucasians (72%). As such, these reviewers argue that researchers know very little about work-family issues of African-Americans, Hispanics, and other racial and ethnic populations. As discussed earlier, all three studies in this manuscript had samples that were a majority A) Caucasian/white, B) married, and C) had 1.5 children living in the home. While this is consistent with prior research it is also a limitation, as noted by Casper and colleagues' (2007) review of work-family literature. That is, because of these common sample characteristics we know very little about work-family issues as they pertain to diverse racial and ethnic groups and non-traditional families. Although recent research (e.g., DelCampo et al., 2011) has begun to include samples beyond those that are predominantly Caucasian, future research should emphasize the use of samples containing individuals from broad racial and ethnic backgrounds. Furthermore, cross-cultural samples, such as Lu and colleagues' (2010) comparison of Taiwanese and British employees, should be

employed to test whether work-family findings using Western samples will generalize to other cultures.

As noted earlier, researchers have also called for examination of the positive side of the work-family interface (e.g., Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Work-family enrichment, defined as the degree to which experiences in one role enhance the quality of life in the other role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), is viewed as the positive side of the work-family interface because it posits that the two roles may actually benefit each other rather than conflict with each other. However, work in this area is sparse when compared to that in work-family conflict. A recent meta-analysis on work-family enrichment included only 29 empirical studies between 1995-2008 on the topic (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). The meta-analytic results suggest that work-family enrichment is a significant predictor of the outcomes of job satisfaction, commitment to the organization, and turnover intentions, much like work-family conflict but in the opposite directions. Therefore, a fruitful line of future research may be to ascertain what the antecedents of enrichment are. The current study sought to examine a protective antecedent that organizations may use to reduce work-family conflict. Along the same lines, future research may look at antecedents, such as flexible work schedules, that may lead to work-family enrichment. For example, recent research found that supervisors' work-family enrichment led to greater levels of work-family enrichment in their subordinates (Carlson et al., 2011). However, work-family enrichment research is in its infancy, and there are many opportunities to develop and test theoretical models of antecedents and outcomes of enrichment (Shockley & Singla, 2011).

While the current study does focus on the conflict perspective, it does so in a manner that looks at how work-family conflict may be reduced, as opposed to the conflict perspective which has sought to examine determinants of conflict (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Nonetheless,

future research ought to examine the positive of work-family (e.g., balance, enrichment). The current paper addresses this with the data collections of Study 1 and 2 including the newest and most theoretically informed measure of work-family balance (Carlson et al., 2009). While the idea of work-family “balance” is often promoted in the popular press (Greenhaus et al., 2003) as something organizations should help individuals accomplish, there is very little empirical support that having employees with a balanced life benefits the organization or the employees (Carlson et al., 2009). This gap may be filled by empirically testing organizationally and individually relevant outcomes of work-family balance. Furthermore, future research may extend the current studies by testing whether realistic recruitment is a significant predictor of balance in individuals. Indeed, Carlson and colleagues (2009) contend that organizational “programs that help workers negotiate reasonable and acceptable role-related expectations” (p. 1481) would most likely be welcomed by employees. It is reasonable to believe that realistic recruitment would fall under the broad program umbrella that Carlson and colleagues mention. For that reason, it is logical to predict that realistic recruitment may also assist employees in balancing their work and family roles.

An overwhelming majority (94%) of the work-family conflict studies evaluated in Casper and colleagues’ (2007) review used cross-sectional survey designs for gather data, thus making the determination of causality difficult. Future work-family research should utilize longitudinal designs in an effort to help researchers determine some degree of causality. For example, work-family conflict has consistently been shown to be an antecedent of job dissatisfaction (e.g., Allen et al., 2000). However, it is possible that being dissatisfied with one’s job may lead to conflict between the work and family roles (e.g., through strain-based conflict).

Work in this area should also utilize experimental studies in future research.

Experimental (2%) and quasi-experimental (6%) designed studies were scarce in Casper and colleagues' (2007) review of work-family studies, a concern also noted in the most recent review of work-family studies (Chang et al., 2010). For instance, Greenhaus and Powell (2003) used an experimental design where participants were randomly assigned to one of 16 different conditions where pressures from role senders (e.g., superior, spouse) were manipulated. This experimental study allowed the researchers to understand what led participants to decide if they were going to participate in the work role or family role and ultimately the direction ($W \rightarrow F$; $F \rightarrow W$) of interference between the those two roles. Because the mere presence of a family-friendly benefit does not imply that employees will utilize that benefit (e.g., Eaton, 2003), future experimental studies make seek to understand under what circumstances an employee would choose to utilize a family-friendly benefit.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Work-Family Conflict Measures

Appendix B: Measures

Appendix C: Realistic Recruitment Condition Scenarios

APPENDIX A
Work-Family Conflict Measures

Table 1
Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly (1983)

<p>My work schedule often conflicts with my family life.</p> <p>After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.</p> <p>On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.</p> <p>My family dislikes how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am home.</p> <p>Because my work is demanding, at times I am irritable at home.</p> <p>The demands of my job make it difficult to be relaxed all the time at home.</p> <p>My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with my family.</p> <p>My job makes it difficult to be the kind of spouse or parent I'd like to be.</p>

5 point Likert response format ("strongly agree" to "strongly disagree")

Table 2
Gutek, Searle, & Klepa (1991)

<p><i>Work Interference with Family</i></p> <p>*After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.</p> <p>*On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.</p> <p>*My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am home.</p> <p>*My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with my family/friends.</p> <p><i>Family Interference with Work</i></p> <p>I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.</p> <p>My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.</p> <p>My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.</p> <p>My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.</p>
--

5 point Likert response format ("strongly agree" to "strongly disagree")

*adapted from Kopelman et al. (1983)

Table 3
Frone, Russell, & Cooper (1992)

<p><i>Work Interference with Family</i></p> <p>How often does your job or career interfere with your responsibilities at home, such as yard work, cooking, cleaning, repairs, shopping, paying the bills, or child care? How often does your job or career keep you from spending the amount of time you would like to spend with your family?</p> <p><i>Family Interference with Work</i></p> <p>How often does your homelife interfere with your responsibilities at work, such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, or working overtime? How often does your homelife keep you from spending the amount of time you would like to spend on job or career-related activities?</p>

5 point frequency-based response scale

Table 4
Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian (1996)

<i>Work to Family Conflict</i>
The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.
Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.
Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.
<i>Family to Work Conflict</i>
The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.
I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.
Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.
My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.
Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties

7 point Likert response format ("strongly disagree" to "strongly agree")

Note: Boyar et al. (2006) does not note which items were removed

Table 5
Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams (2000)

<i>Time-based work interference with family</i>
My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities
*I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities
<i>Time-based family interference with work</i>
The time I spend on family responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities.
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.
*I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.
<i>Strain-based work interference with family</i>
When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.
*I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.
<i>Strain-based family interference with work</i>
Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.
*Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.
Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.
<i>Behavior-based work interference with family</i>
The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.
Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.
*The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.
<i>Behavior-based family interference with work</i>
The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.
*Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.
The problem-solving behavior that work for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.

5 point Likert response format (“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”)
*items included in Matthews et al.’s (2010) abbreviated version

APPENDIX B
Measures

Table 1
Expectation Fulfillment Regarding Work-Home Balance

Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on your personal needs
Respect for your personal situation
A flexible attitude concerning the correspondence between your work and private life
×The opportunity to decide for yourself when you take your vacation
×items removed from Study 1 analysis <i>Source: De Vos, Buyens, & Schalk (2003)</i> <i>De Vos, Dikkers, & Hauw (2009)</i>

Table 2
Work-Family Balance (Psychological Contract subdimension)

The possibility for flexible working hours
Policies that support working parents
The opportunity to work part-time
The possibility to arrange the work schedule so that family obligations can be met
<i>Source: Blomme, van Rhee, & Tromp (2010)</i>

Table 3
Perceived Psychological Contract Breach

Almost all the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept so far (reversed)
I feel that my employer has come through in fulfilling the promises made to me when I was hired (reversed)
So far my employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me (reversed)
I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions
My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal
<i>Source: Robinson & Morrison (2000)</i>

Table 4
Job Satisfaction

I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work
^Each day of work seems like it will never end (reverse scored)
I find real enjoyment in my work
I consider my job rather unpleasant (reverse scored)
^items removed from Study 2 analysis <i>Source: Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger (1998)</i>

Table 5
Organizational Commitment

^I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help <i>company name</i> continue to succeed.
I talk up <i>company name</i> as a great organization to my friends.
^I would accept almost any type of job in order to keep working with <i>company name</i> .
I find my values and the values of <i>company name</i> are very similar
I am proud to tell others that I work here.
My choice to work for <i>company name</i> inspires the best in me in the way of job performance.
I am glad that I chose to work at <i>company name</i> over other organization I was considering at the time.
^I care about the fate of <i>company name</i> .
<i>Company name</i> is the best of all organizations for me to be employed.
^items removed from Study 2 analysis Source: Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979)

Table 6
Work-Family Centrality

^In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be work-oriented rather than family-oriented.
^The major satisfaction in my life comes from my work rather than my family.
The most important things that happen to me involve my work rather than my family.
^Work should be considered central to life rather than family.
Overall, I consider work to be more central to my existence than family.
^items removed from Study 2 analysis Source: Carr, Boyar, & Gregory (2008)

Table 7
Work-Family Balance

I am able to negotiate and accomplish what is expected of me at work and in my family.
I do a good job of meeting the role expectations of critical people in my work and family life.
People who are close to me would say that I do a good job of balancing work and family.
I am able to accomplish the expectations that my supervisors and my family have for me.
My co-workers and members of my family would say that I am meeting their expectations.
It is clear to me, based on feedback from co-workers and family members, that I am accomplishing both my work and family responsibilities.
Source: Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska (2009)

Table 8
Realistic Job Preview

Prompt: Thinking back to when you accepted your current job, how accurately did your employer describe the following: ** Stem for each item: My employer accurately described
× - the amount of work you may have to take home
- the number of hours you would be asked to work outside of the normal working hours for your organization
- the degree to which your working hours are or are not flexible
× - the opportunity to work from home
×^ - the amount of overnight travel required for the job
^ - the flexibility you do or do not have regarding when you can take vacation days
^ - the degree to which you are allowed to leave during the work day to attend to family matters
- the good points and the bad points of the job
×^ - the kind of work
- the amount of work
**only included in Study 2 ^items removed from Study 2 analysis ×items removed from Study 1 analysis
<i>Source: adapted from Templer et al (2006) and Vandenberg & Scarpello (1990)</i>

Table 9
Expectations Lowering Procedure

Prompt: Thinking back to when you accepted your current job, how accurately did your employer describe the following: ** Stem for each item: My employer accurately described
- how new employees commonly develop unrealistic expectations about balancing work and family
- the negative outcomes (e.g., dissatisfaction) that may result from employees having unrealistic expectations about being able to balance work and family
- the importance of new employees having realistic expectations about balancing work and family
- the “reality shock” that employees may experience when unrealistic expectations about their job are not met
** - how employees react when their expectations about work-life balance go unmet
** - my employer encouraged me to think about how I have reacted in the past when my expectations about work-life balance were not met (<i>does not use same stem as other items</i>)
**only used for Study 2
<i>Source: adapted from Buckley et al. (1998, 2002)</i>

Table 10
Work-Family Conflict

<i>Time-based work interference with family</i>
My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities
I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities
<i>Strain-based work interference with family</i>
When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.
I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.
<i>Behavior-based work interference with family</i>
×^The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.
×^Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.
×^The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.

×items removed from Study 1 analysis

^items removed from Study 2 analysis

Source: Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams (2000)

APPENDIX C
Realistic Recruitment Condition Scenarios

RJP Condition

...Lakeland Industries is an industry leader in sales and service of business computer software. Founded in 1975 in Oxford, MS, Lakeland Industries has offices in 20 locations within the United States and Canada and provides service to over 60% of *Fortune 500* companies in addition to thousands of small businesses in North America.

At Lakeland Industries, we strive to lead in the invention, development, manufacture, sales, and support of the most advanced business software technologies, including software in the areas of customer relationship management, accounting, human resources, and product life cycles. We translate these advanced technologies into value for our customers through our professional solutions, services, and consulting.

The position you are taking is an account representative job. Lakeland Industries consistently pays market competitive salaries to account representatives, as compared to similar positions in our geographical area. We also provide employees with a comprehensive health insurance plan and match employee contributions to their 401(K) retirement plan.

In this job approximately 75% of your time at work will be spent in the office talking on the phone and/or e-mailing with clients. The other 25% of your time will be spent travelling to visit with clients (day-trips and overnight). Because this job entails significant interaction with clients of Lakeland Industries, account representatives must adhere to an 8:00am – 5:00pm work schedule in order to be available to clients. Therefore, with the exception of a one hour lunch break, account representatives are typically not allowed to come and go from the office as they please. Dress code during workdays spent inside the Lakeland Industries office is business casual.

There may be times when you are asked to work before/after the normal 8:00am – 5:00pm workday. For example, interaction with a client in a different time zone may require you to come in early or stay late. Furthermore, it is the policy of Lakeland Industries to:

- A) not allow employees to work from home
- B) not allow more than two account representative employees to be gone on personal leave (e.g., vacation) at one time.

These policies often lead to complaints among account representatives. However, the company has these policies in place to assure clients that there will always be an adequate staff available to assist them...

ELP Condition

... Lakeland Industries is an industry leader in sales and service of business computer software. Founded in 1975 in Oxford, MS, Lakeland Industries has offices in 20 locations within the United States and Canada and provides service to over 60% of *Fortune 500* companies in addition to thousands of small businesses in North America.

At Lakeland Industries, we strive to lead in the invention, development, manufacture, sales, and support of the most advanced business software technologies, including software in the areas of customer relationship management, accounting, human resources, and product life cycles. We translate these advanced technologies into value for our customers through our professional solutions, services, and consulting.

The position is an account representative job. Lakeland Industries consistently pays market competitive salaries to account representatives, as compared to similar positions in our geographical area. We also provide employees with a comprehensive health insurance plan and match employee contributions to their 401(K) retirement plan.

When a person enters an organization, he or she often has unrealistic expectations about working conditions, work hours, etc... There is generally a set of mutual expectations about what the organization will do for the employee and what the employee will do for the organization. In some cases, these expectations do not match. We want your expectations about this position at Lakeland Industries to be realistic.

When you think about someone else doing this account representative job, it may not seem that bad to you. However, once you are the one actually in the job, your perspective may be quite different. This may lead you to have a "reality shock" when you realize there is a difference between how you thought the job might be and what it is like in reality. This "reality shock" may lead you to be dissatisfied with your job or have conflict between your job and your family life, for example. Please consider your expectations about this job and consider the possibility that you may have unrealistic expectations regarding this job.

Here is an example of a time when my own expectations were not aligned with those of the organization I worked for. Once I took a job and had very high expectations. The job was as a sales representative for a large *Fortune 500* company. I had lofty thoughts of having a flexible schedule and scheduling travel for sales calls when it was convenient for my personal schedule. However, once I was in the job I realized quickly that I had to travel Monday through Wednesday of each week and always be in the home office on Fridays for departmental meetings. My expectations were not met. This began to cause conflict between my work and family, which led to me being dissatisfied with my job and having thoughts of quitting. I did not stay in that job very long...

Do you have any examples of a time when you had high expectations that were not met?

RJP and ELP Combination Condition

... Lakeland Industries is an industry leader in sales and service of business computer software. Founded in 1975 in Oxford, MS, Lakeland Industries has offices in 20 locations within the United States and Canada and provides service to over 60% of *Fortune 500* companies in addition to thousands of small businesses in North America.

At Lakeland Industries, we strive to lead in the invention, development, manufacture, sales, and support of the most advanced business software technologies, including software in the areas of customer relationship management, accounting, human resources, and product life cycles. We translate these advanced technologies into value for our customers through our professional solutions, services, and consulting.

The position is an account representative job. Lakeland Industries consistently pays market competitive salaries to account representatives, as compared to similar positions in our geographical area. We also provide employees with a comprehensive health insurance plan and match employee contributions to their 401(K) retirement plan.

When a person enters an organization, he or she often has unrealistic expectations about working conditions, work hours, etc... There is generally a set of mutual expectations about what the organization will do for the employee and what the employee will do for the organization. In some cases, these expectations do not match. We want your expectations about this position at Lakeland Industries to be realistic.

In this job approximately 75% of your time at work will be spent in the office talking on the phone and/or e-mailing with clients. The other 25% of your time will be spent travelling to visit with clients (day-trips and overnight). Because this job entails significant interaction with clients of Lakeland Industries, account representatives must adhere to an 8:00am – 5:00pm work schedule in order to be available to clients. Therefore, with the exception of a one hour lunch break, account representatives are typically not allowed to come and go from the office as they please. Dress code during workdays spent inside the Lakeland Industries office is business casual.

There may be times when you are asked to work before/after the normal 8:00am – 5:00pm workday. For example, interaction with a client in a different time zone may require you to come in early or stay late. Furthermore, it is the policy of Lakeland Industries to:

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- B) not allow more than two account representative employees to be gone on personal leave (e.g., vacation) at one time.

These policies often lead to complaints among account representatives. However, the company has these policies in place to assure clients that there will always be an adequate staff available to assist them.

When you think about someone else doing this account representative job, it may not seem that bad to you. However, once you are the one actually in the job, your perspective may be quite

different. This may lead you to have a “reality shock” when you realize there is a difference between how you thought the job might be and what it is like in reality. This “reality shock” may lead you to be dissatisfied with your job or have conflict between your job and your family life, for example. Please consider your expectations about this job and consider the possibility that you may have unrealistic expectations regarding this job.

Here is an example of a time when my own expectations were not aligned with those of the organization I worked for. Once I took a job and had very high expectations. The job was as a sales representative for a large *Fortune 500* company. I had lofty thoughts of having a flexible schedule and scheduling travel for sales calls when it was convenient for my personal schedule. However, once I was in the job I realized quickly that I had to travel Monday through Wednesday of each week and always be in the home office on Fridays for departmental meetings. My expectations were not met. This began to cause conflict between my work and family, which led to me being dissatisfied with my job and having thoughts of quitting. I did not stay in that job very long...

Do you have any examples of a time when you had high expectations that were not met?

Control Group Condition

...Lakeland Industries is an industry leader in sales and service of business computer software. Founded in 1975 in Oxford, MS, Lakeland Industries has offices in 20 locations within the United States and Canada and provides service to over 60% of *Fortune 500* companies in addition to thousands of small businesses in North America.

At Lakeland Industries, we strive to lead in the invention, development, manufacture, sales, and support of the most advanced business software technologies, including software in the areas of customer relationship management, accounting, human resources, and product life cycles. We translate these advanced technologies into value for our customers through our professional solutions, services, and consulting.

The position is an account representative job. Lakeland Industries consistently pays market competitive salaries to account representatives, as compared to similar positions in our geographical area. We also provide employees with a comprehensive health insurance plan and match employee contributions to their 401(K) retirement plan.

VITA

Russell Wayne Clayton

EDUCATION

Master of Education – Administration & Supervision (*Higher Education Administration*)
May 2006
Middle Tennessee State University – Murfreesboro, TN

Bachelor of Science – Business Administration (*Marketing*)
August 2000
Auburn University – Auburn, AL

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Primary: Work-Family Interface
Secondary: Leadership, Management History

JOURNAL PUBLICATIONS

- Clayton, R. W., & Barton, H. (forthcoming). Rhona Rapoport: A critical biography of a pioneering work-family researcher. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*.
- Novicevic, M., Clayton, R. W., & Williams, W. A. (forthcoming). Barnard's model of decision making: A historical foundation of image theory. *Journal of Management History*.
- Humphreys, J. H., Williams, W. A., Clayton, R. W., & Novicevic, M. M. (forthcoming). Towards the augmenting role of authenticity: Xenophon as leadership theorist. *Management & Organizational History*.
- Humphreys, J. H., Haden, S. P., Novicevic, M. M., Clayton, R. W., & Gibson, J. W. (2011). Lillian McMurry of trumpet records: Integrity and authenticity in the charismatic, constructive narcissist leader. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 18, 40-55.
- Winkel, D. E., & Clayton, R. W. (2010). Transitioning between work and family roles as a function of boundary flexibility and role salience. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76, 336-343.
- Robinson, R. K., Jackson, W. T., Franklin, G. M., & Clayton, R. W. (2010). The changing legal environment for employers: Implications for small businesses. *Journal of Business and Entrepreneurship*, 22, 91-109.

Simmons, L. L., & Clayton, R. W. (2010). The impact of small business b2b virtual community commitment on brand loyalty. *International Journal of Business and Systems Research*, 4, 451-468.

Bynum, L. A., Clayton, R. W., Hayek, M., Moeller, M., & Williams, W. (2009). Chandler as a biographer: content thematic analysis of Chandler's biography of Henry Varnum Poor. *Journal of Management History*, 15, 272-283.

Novicevic, M. M, Buckley, M. R., Clayton, R. W., Moeller, M., & Williams, W. A. (2009). Commemorating Chandler through the lens of his revisionists. *Journal of Management History*, 15, 313-322.

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Evans, W. R., Pane, S., Clayton R. W., & Novicevic, M. N. *History of Management Thought about Social Responsibility*. To be Presented at the 2011 Annual Conference of the Academy of Management, San Antonio, TX.

Williams, W. A., & Clayton, R. W. *Searching for Sartrean Authenticity in Leaders Described in Xenophon's Works*. Presented at the 2010 Annual Conference of the Southern Management Association, St. Pete Beach, FL.

Humphreys, J. H., Haden, S. P., Novicevic, M. M., Clayton, R. W., & Gibson, J. W. *Lillian McMurry of Trumpet Records: Integrity and Authenticity in the Charismatic, Constructive Narcissist Leader*. Presented at the 2010 Annual Conference of the Academy of Management, Montreal, QC.

***Recipient of the Sage Leadership Award for best leadership paper in management history

Winkel, D. E., & Clayton, R. W. *What Leads to Transitions Between the Work and Family Domain?* Presented at the 2009 Annual Conference of the Southern Management Association, Asheville, NC.

Clayton, R. W., & Barton, H. *Rhona Rapoport: A Critical Biography of the Pioneering Researcher of Work-Family Balance*. Presented at the 2009 Annual Conference of the Academy of Management, Chicago, IL.

Novicevic, M., Clayton, R. W., Williams, W. A., & Moeller, M. *Barnard's Model of Decision Making: A Historical Foundation of Image Theory*. Presented at the 2009 Annual Conference of the Academy of Management, Chicago, IL.

Clayton, R., & Williams, A. *A Model of Antecedents and Outcomes of Work-Life Enrichment*. Presented at the 2009 Annual Conference of the International Academy of Business and Public Administration Disciplines, Memphis, TN.

Williams, A., & Clayton, R. *The Effects of Virtual Technology on Team Processes*. Presented at the 2009 Annual Conference of the International Academy of Business and Public Administration Disciplines, Memphis, TN.

Simmons, L. & Clayton, R. *The impact of small business B2B virtual community commitment on brand loyalty*. Presented at the 2008 Annual Conference of The PhD Project - Information Systems Doctoral Student Association, Toronto, ON.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Principles of Management (MGMT 371)

January 2010 – May 2010: University of Mississippi

August 2009 – December 2009: University of Mississippi

January 2009 – May 2009: University of Mississippi

August 2008 – December 2008: University of Mississippi

Management of Strategic Planning (MGMT 493)

January 2011 – May 2011: University of Mississippi

August 2010 – December 2010: University of Mississippi

July 2010: University of Mississippi

April 2010: University of Mississippi

– guest lecturer

subject taught: strategic leadership

Compensation Management (MGMT 494)

June 2009: University of Mississippi

– guest lecturer

subjects taught: strategic analysis and contextual factors of compensation;
contextual influences on compensation practice

University Seminar (UNIV 1010)

August 2006 – March 2007: Middle Tennessee State University

- three sections

College Algebra (MAT 155)

May 2006 – August 2006: Draughons Junior College

SERVICE

Doctoral Student Representative, Executive Committee – Management History Division of the Academy of Management, 2010 – 2011

Ad Hoc Reviewer, *Journal of Management History*, 2009, 2010, 2011

Ad Hoc Reviewer, *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*, 2011

Ad Hoc Reviewer, *Journal of Business and Management*, 2010

Seminar Speaker (Topic: Personal Finance), Pi Beta Phi Sorority, 2010
Discussant, Southern Management Association Annual Conference, St. Pete Beach, FL, 2010
Reviewer, Southern Management Association Annual Conference, St. Pete Beach, FL, 2010
Reviewer, Academy of Management Annual Conference, Montreal, QC, 2010
Session Chair, Southern Management Association Annual Conference, Asheville, NC, 2009
Discussant, Southern Management Association Annual Conference, Asheville, NC, 2009
Reviewer, Southern Management Association Annual Conference, Asheville, NC, 2009
Reviewer, Academy of Management Annual Conference, Chicago, IL, 2009
Discussant, International Academy of Business and Public Administration Disciplines, Memphis, TN, 2009
Distance Learning Committee – Middle Tennessee State University – 2005 - 2007
Tennessee Advancement Resources Council (TARC) – 2005 – 2007

HONORS

Random Acts of Kindness Faculty Award – from the Student Alumni Association (U. of Mississippi), 2011
BusinessWeek Instructor Usage Award – from *Bloomberg BusinessWeek*, 2010 – 2011
University of Mississippi Summer Research Fellowship, 2009
Presenter, Department of Management Colloquium, University of Mississippi, 2009 “The Current State of Research in Work-Family Conflict”
Participant, Academy of Management “Half-Way There” Pre-Dissertation Consortium, Chicago, IL, 2009
Participant, Academy of Management Doctoral Consortium, Anaheim, CA, 2008
Participant, Southern Management Association Doctoral Consortium, St. Pete Beach, FL, 2008
Eagle Scout Award – Boy Scouts of America

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

Academy of Management
Southern Management Association

WORK EXPERIENCE

July 2005 – July 2007: Middle Tennessee State University
Development Director - College of Education & Behavioral Science and the College of Continuing Education & Distance Learning

- Plan and implement all fundraising activities for both colleges by working closely with academic deans and faculty
- Solicit alumni and friends for scholarship donations
 - Over \$60,000 raised in new scholarships for fiscal year 2006
- Conduct face-to-face meetings with alumni and potential donors

September 2003 – July 2005: Vanderbilt University

Associate Director of Development – School of Engineering

- Solicited alumni to join Fred J. Lewis Society (Dean's Club; \$1,000+ giving/year)
 - Gained 16 new members in multi-year pledges from January 2004 to April 2005
- Solicited alumni for scholarship donations
 - Secured pledge for \$100,000 scholarship
- Solicited alumni for planned gifts
 - Documented bequest of \$600,000 for scholarships
- Conducted personal on- and off-campus meetings with alumni and donors
- Researched prospective donors

August 2000 – August 2003: Auburn University

Development Coordinator – College of Business

- Solicited donors for and maintained Shareholders' Club (Dean's Club; \$1,000+ giving/year)
 - Gained 26 new members from January 2002 to August 2003
- Managed annual budget of \$176,000
- Coordinated special events for current and prospective donors and faculty
- Researched prospective donors
- Interacted with and entertained Auburn University alumni and faculty at special events and during office visits