

# WORK AND FAMILY CONFLICT: A COMPARISON BETWEEN AMERICAN AND MEXICAN WOMEN

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## ABSTRACT

*Although many believe that work and family conflict (WFC) is a social issue, its scope is ample due to its causes and consequences. In the organizational ground, WFC has been found to affect important outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover. Additionally, there is a need to validate the structures that have been proposed and assess their validity in other settings. This study proposed a model where both dimensions of work and family conflict--work interfering with family and family interfering with work--mediated the effect of four life roles (i.e. career, parent, marital, and homecare) in three organizational outcomes (satisfaction, turnover intention, and commitment). The findings in this study give support to the relationship between the parental role and family interfering with work for the Mexican sample. In addition, homecare role was found to be related with family interfering with work (FIW) conflict in the U.S. sample. I also found support in the relationship between work interfering with family (WIF) and both turnover intention and commitment. On the other hand, the relationship between FIW and job satisfaction as well as turnover intention was supported in the Mexican sample.*

**JEL:** M12, M14, M15, M54

**KEYWORDS:** work and family conflicts, organizational behavior, cross-cultural studies

## INTRODUCTION

Demographic changes in the workforce, as well as greater family involvement by men have increased interest in employees' quality of life (Pleck, Lamb, & Levine, 1986). Specifically, and according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), the participation of United States (U.S.) women in the labor force increased from 43.3% in 1970 to 63.1% in 2006. Similarly, more Mexican women have also been entering the workforce, with an increase in participation from 17.6% in 1970 to 37.5% in 2004 (e-mexico, 2008). This change translates into more employees having family responsibilities, not only women who enter the workforce, but also men who now share these responsibilities.

In light of these recent changes and their importance for both family and work life, there has been a great deal of research devoted to work to family conflict (WFC) (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). Role conflict is a very important issue as it relates to individual productivity, job satisfaction, commitment, and employee turnover. These, in turn, directly and indirectly affect the productivity of organizations (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002).

While the majority of the research in work and family conflict has been conducted in the United States, globalization and the increasing diversity of the workforce reinforce the importance of considering cultural differences in the WFC model (Aryee, Fields, & Luk., 1999; Hill, Chongming, Alan, & Maria, 2004; Posthuma, Joplin, & Maertz, 2005). It is particularly worthwhile to study the WFC model in the U.S. and Mexico not only because of their geographical proximity, but also because they are members of the same trading bloc, and there are significant Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) interests between these two countries. In addition, even though the U.S. and Mexico are close in the feminism/masculinism dimension (Hofstede, 2001); there is evidence to support the idea that differences in the workplace between these two countries may be strong (Segrest, Romero, & Domke-Damonte, 2003).

According to Eby et al. (2005), “gender is deeply [ingrained] in [work and family] relationships” (p. 181). Research has shown that not only gender differences but also gender role issues are fundamental for a full understanding of WFC. The latter includes variables such as gender identity, sex role attitudes, and role salience (Lobel and St. Claire, 1992). Moreover, gender role issues underline the finding that women have the primary responsibility for childcare and household tasks (Lundberg and Frankenhaeuser, 1999), even when in dual-earning marriages (Lewis and Cooper, 1987). Furthermore, women are much more prone than men to adjust their work in order to satisfy family demands (Karambayya and Reilly, 1992).

The purpose of this research is to understand the differences in role salience between the U.S. and Mexico, specifically between women in the U.S. and women in Mexico. In addition, an important part of this research is to understand whether national differences exist in the WFC model. This may lead to human resources (HR) policies that incorporate such differences in international business.

In the following section, I will review the literature that is relevant to this topic. The third section of this research is devoted to the methodology. In the final section in this paper, I will present my conclusions to the results of the analysis of the data. Each of the hypothesized relationships will be explored and assessed according to the statistical methods proposed in the methodology section. These results will be discussed in the final section, which will provide a conclusion as well as limitations and future research.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

The concept of work and family conflict (WFC) has been of interest to a variety of academic disciplines including the health, sociology, psychology, social psychology, management, organizational behavior, and industrial organization disciplines (Eby et al, 2005). In the following sections, the basic concepts and research that are relevant to this study will be introduced. I begin by defining roles, role conflict, and then specifically work and family conflict. The significance of this study will be highlighted by explaining the outcomes of WFC. The causes or antecedents of WFC will be explained in order to understand how WFC is created. On the same line, a review of the influence that culture has in the model of WFC will be offered.

Several definitions have been used for the term ‘role’. For the purpose of this study, I will use the definition proposed by Robbins and Judge: “A set of expected behavior patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit” (2007, p. 304). According to Robbins and Judge, life would be easy if we could choose and play only one role (2007). However, people play a variety of roles in life: man-woman, son-daughter, friend, parent, spouse, student, professional, or a member of any type of organization. The disparity in role expectation as well as the conflict in timing may create role conflict (Robbins and Judge, 2007; Amatea, Cross, Clark, and Bobby, 1986; Eby et al., 2005). This brings us to the definition of role conflict. Role conflict is defined by Robins and Judge (2007) as “a situation in which an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations” (p. 307).

Initially, WFC was conceptualized as a unidimensional construct or global measure (Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983; Bedeian, Bruke and Moffet, 1988). However, more recent studies have found a better fit when the conflict is divided in two separate constructs: work interfering with family conflict (WIF) and family interfering with work conflict (FIW) (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrin, 1996; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Eby et al. 2005).

Netemeyer et al. (1996) based their research on the premise that WIF and FIW are “distinct but related forms of interrole conflict” (p.401). According to Netemeyer et al. (1996), “the general demands of a role refer to the responsibilities, requirements, expectations, duties, and commitments associated with a given role” (p.401). The authors define WIF (WFC) as “ a form of interrole conflict in which the general demands of time devoted to, and strain created by the job interfere with performing family-related

responsibilities” (p.401). In other words, the responsibilities of the career role get in the way of fulfilling the responsibilities of the roles at home. FIW (FWC) on the other hand is “a form of interrole conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the family interfere with performing work-related responsibilities” (p.401). This means that the roles at home are hindering the accomplishment of the tasks at work.

### Outcomes

The outcomes or consequences of WFC are an important subject for different fields (e.g. psychology, sociology, health, business, etc); hence, each of these disciplines has contributed to this topic. However, for management research, a stronger focus should be taken on the outcomes that affect directly and indirectly the performance of the organizations such as turnover, commitment, absenteeism, productivity, job satisfaction, and deviant workplace behavior (Robbins & Judge, 2007). This research will concentrate in job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention.

The importance of job satisfaction is highlighted by its influence on a number of outcomes such as job performance, productivity, turnover, and organizational involvement and commitment among other things (Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999). All of these factors significantly affect the performance of organizations (Boyar, Maertz, Mosley, & Carr, 2008, Huselid, 1993, Harter et al., 2002). According to Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton (2000) review, and to the literature review from Eby et al. (2005), job satisfaction has been the most studied criteria within work attitudes (about 36% of the studies in WFC). The majority of the studies surveyed have found a negative relationship between these two factors. That is, when WFC is more intense, job satisfaction decreases (Netemeyer et al., 1996; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, Rabinowitz, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1989).

Organizational commitment has been a major focus of research (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky et al., 2002). Low organizational commitment has been found to have a strong relationship with other organizational outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, and decreased work effort (Joiner and Bakalis, 2006). Netemeyer et al. (1996) found a negative relationship between WFC and organizational commitment. This means that as WFC increases organizational commitment decreases. Moreover, Lyness and Thompson (1997) examined three different dimensions of commitment and found that WFC was negatively related to affective commitment, positively related to continuance commitment, and not related to normative commitment.

The previous two outcomes (i.e. job satisfaction and commitment) may cause an employee to leave the workforce. Each time a firm loses an experienced worker, male or female, its performance, and stability may be affected (Cascio, 1991). Allen et al. (2000) found a positive relationship between turnover and WFC and that this relationship is twice as strong as the relationship between Job Satisfaction and WFC. In a later study, Nissly (2004) also found that employees with high WFC would stay for shorter amounts of time, and/or leave the organization. Moreover, Carr, Boyar, & Gregory (2008) used a survival analysis in order to gauge the relationship between WFC and retention. The findings from Carr et al. (2008) revealed that “with decreasing work–family centrality, WIF has a very strong effect on organizational retention, reducing retention almost 200%. However, when work–family centrality is higher, the effect of increases in WIF on organizational retention is lower (1%)” (p. 256-257).

### Antecedents/Predictors

Research has also explored the antecedents also called predictors of WFC (Eby et al., 2005). These are factors that cause, increase, or decrease WFC. Furthermore, predictors can be classified as being either internal or external predictors. Internal predictors are those factors that are inherent in the individual,

whereas external predictors are factors in the environment such as cultural, economic, and political factors.

Eby et al. catalogued 966 predictors. Among the predictors that have been studied in the work domain are unpredictability in work routine (Fox and Dwyer, 1999), number of hours worked (Carlson and Perrew, 1999; Greenhaus, Bedeian, and Mossholder, 1987) and frequency of working weekends or rotating shifts (Shamir, 1983); all these were found to have a positive relationship with WFC.

In regard to the family domain, the number of children (Behson, 2002, Carlson, 1999), concern about child care (Buffardi and Erdwins, 1997; Fox and Dwyer, 1999), tension with family or spouse (Carlson and Perrew, 1999; Fox and Dwyer, 1999), high involvement in family- salient family role (Carlson and Perrew, 1999; Williams and Alliger, 1994) , and lack of family support (Carlson and Perrew, 1999) have all been found to have a positive relation with WFC.

### Relievers

On the other hand, there are factors that are considered relievers, since they diminish work conflict by reducing the effects of the conflict (e.g. personal strategies), family demands (e.g. family support, organizational support, delegating), and professional demands (e.g. organizational support, supervisor support, delegating).

### Life Role Salience Scale

Eby et al. (2005) suggest that in order to understand WFC, there is a need to go beyond analyzing simple role membership, and look at richer constructs such as role salience (e.g. Matsui, Tsuzuki, & Onglatco, 1999; Amatea et al., 1986), role involvement (Carlson and Perrew, 1999; Williams and Alliger, 1994) and life role values (Carlson and Kacmar, 2000; Amatea et al., 1986). According to Reitzes and Mutran (1994), individuals define who and what they are depending on the roles they play. Moreover, Noor (2004) posits that individuals can play a variety of roles and hold various identities, although not all at the same salience level. “Role salience or importance-also known as role centrality (Martire, Stephens, & Townsend, 2000), role commitment (Brown, Bifulco, & Harris, 1987), and personal involvement (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1995)-is said to provide individuals with meaning, self-worth, and purpose” (Noor, 2004, p.391). As mentioned earlier, the more roles and the less compatible they are, the higher the level of role conflict (Robbins and Judge, 2007). Hence, we need to measure how many roles the individual is actually involved in.

### Culture

Culture as defined by Hofstede (1994) is “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one category of people from another” (p.1). According to Hofstede (1994), these categories go from “nation, region, or ethnic group...women versus men (gender culture), a social class, profession or occupation (occupational culture), a type of business, a work organization or part of it (organizational culture) or even family.” (p.1)

The most cited study on cultural differences is that of Hofstede (1980) (Munro-Smith, 2003; Ali and Alshawi, 2004). Hofstede collected over 116,000 questionnaires from IBM employees in 40 different countries from 1967 to 1971. Hofstede found four cultural dimensions: masculinity, power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance. These dimensions have been used to explain differences in strategy as well as the behaviors of workers. For definitions on these dimensions, please refer to Hofstede (2001).

There has not been much research on the influence of culture on role expectations. Most of the published research has focused on specific countries and has used samples from the US, Europe, and Asia. Very few studies have undertaken a cross-cultural testing of the role conflict model (Eby et al., 2005; Allen et al., 2000). One of the first studies to test the differences in work interfering with family conflict (WIF) and family interfering with work conflict (FIW) in two different cultures was that of Aryee et al. (1999). Aryee et al. used the model of Frone et al. (1992) and tested it in Hong Kong. The authors explained the differences in the model with the cultural differences in family centrality. In Confucianism societies, family is considered the fundamental unit of society. Specifically, while the reciprocal paths between WIF and FIW are the same for the U.S. employees, for the Hong Kong employees, the path from WIF to FIW is significantly stronger than the other way around. This may be because the interference of work on family may threaten the well-being of the family identity. In addition, because of the importance of the family, family issues may not be perceived to interfere with work responsibilities.

This finding is in agreement with research done by Yang, Chen, Choi, and Zou, Y. (2000) who showed the differences in perceived family demands in American and Chinese employees: the former showing a higher perception than the latter. Additionally, for Chinese workers, work demands had a stronger effect on WFC.

Hill et al. (2004) is another one of those few studies to undertake a cross-cultural test of the role conflict model. Hill et al. adapted the model of Frone et al. (1992) and studied 48 countries using the IBM 2001 Global Work and Life Issues Survey. The main purpose of Hill et al. was to prove that the model was generalizable to different cultures. Differences among the cultures were mentioned but not discussed. Gender differences were also explored, but only at large, in the global perspective, and not specifically by country group.

Segrest, Romero, and Domke-Damonte (2003) studied the differences in U.S. and Mexican culture focusing on gender discrimination. This study is particularly relevant to my research since it describes gender difference beyond the masculinity dimension. The difference between Mexico and the U.S. in the masculinity dimension is not very significant. However, once the influences from the other dimensions are considered regarding gender roles, the difference is magnified.

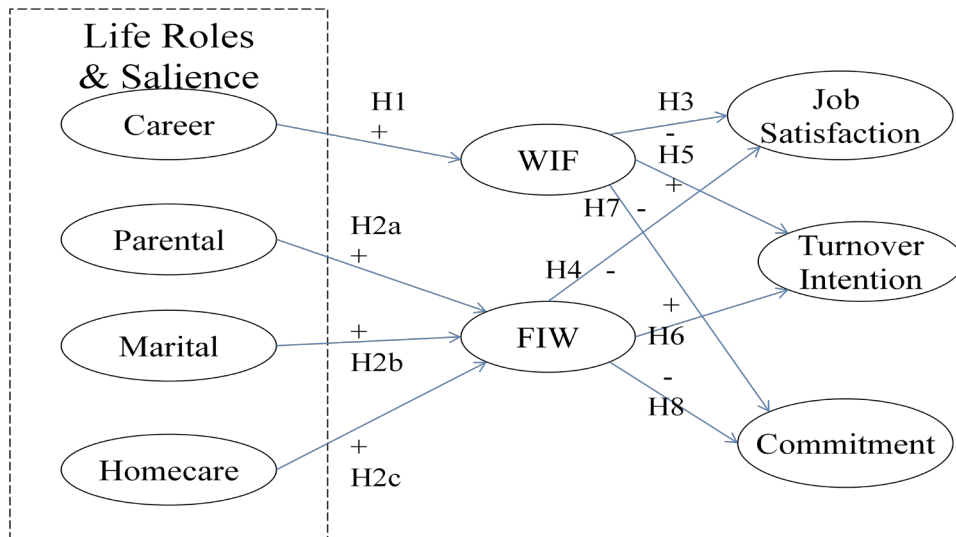
### Structural Model and Hypotheses

Based on the previously reviewed literature, this study proposes the following hypotheses (refer to the model in Figure1). The first four hypotheses are proposed according the definitions proposed by Netemeyer et al. (1996). Hypotheses three to eight are proposed in accordance to the previous studies presented in the literature review. Due to the differences between the U.S. and Mexico, exposed in the culture arena, I expect that nationality will have an effect on the value and commitment of career role as well as the different family roles. Although the WIF model has been proven generalizable across nations (Netemeyer et al., 2004; Hill et al., 2004), I also expect that the relationship between both WIF and FIW will behave different according to the nationality.

- Hypothesis 1 Career role is positively and significantly related with WIF, but not with FIW.*
- Hypothesis 2a Parental role salience will be positive and significantly related with FIW.*
- Hypothesis 2b Marital role salience will be positive and significantly related with FIW.*
- Hypothesis 2c Homecare role salience will be positive and significantly related with FIW.*
- Hypothesis 3 WIF will be negative and significantly related with Job Satisfaction.*
- Hypothesis 4 FIW will be negative and significantly related with Job Satisfaction.*
- Hypothesis 5 WIF will be positive and significantly related with Turnover Intention.*
- Hypothesis 6 FIW will be positive and significantly related with Turnover Intention.*
- Hypothesis 7 WIF will be negative and significantly related with Commitment.*

- Hypothesis 8* FIW will be negative and significantly related with Commitment.  
*Hypothesis 9a* Career role salience of the U.S. women will be significantly different than the career role salience for Mexican women.  
*Hypothesis 9b* Parental role salience of the U.S. women will be significantly different than the parental role salience for Mexican women.  
*Hypothesis 9c* Marital role salience of the U.S. women will be significantly different than the marital role salience for Mexican women.  
*Hypothesis 9d* Homecare role salience of the U.S. women will be significantly different than the homecare role salience for Mexican women.

Figure 1 Proposed Model



*Hypothesis 10* -There will be a significant difference between the U.S. data model and the Mexican data model. This model represents the relationships of the latent variables as proposed in the hypotheses. The ovals represent latent variables and the lines represent the expected relationship (paths) of the variables studied. A positive sign in the hypothesis number represents direct relationship, while a negative sign represent inverse relationship.

## METHODS

### Measurement Model

The survey for this study is composed of several previously tested scales. The first scale is based on the forty questions from the Life Role Salience Scales (LRSS) (Amatea et al, 1986). The LRSS evaluates four major life roles: occupational, marital, parental, and homecare. These roles were assessed in two dimensions: value and commitment. This scale has been tested in different samples and cultural sets and has yielded acceptable reliability scores (Chi ching, 1995; Kerpelman and Schvaneveldt, 1999; Cinamon and Rich, 2002; and Franco, Sabattini, and Crosby, 2004).

The second part of the survey assesses the items related with FIW and WIF. From the existing separate measure, Netemeyer et al. (1996) has been the most cited (over 250 according to Google Scholar). This scale has been used and further tested by many authors and has obtained acceptable reliability (Frone, Yardley, and Markel, 1997; Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002; Netemeyer et al., 2004). Additionally to the original scale, the indicators used by Boyar et al (2006) to measure intention to turnover were also included.

The next section assesses affective commitment from Allen and Meyer (1990). This scale has also been used with reliable results by other authors (Lyness and Thompson, 1997, Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnysky 2002; Chen and Francesco, 2003; Dunham, Grube, & Castañeda, 1994). The fourth section surveys different aspects of satisfaction. For this study, I will use Quinn and Shepard's (1974) general measure as well as Oshagbemi's (1999) proposed multi-item measure. The final part of this instrument consists of various demographic data as well as education level and experience from the subjects surveyed.

Additionally to the studied latent constructs. I will be using four control variables. I will use the number of hours worked per week as a control variable for work interfering with family conflict as this variable has been found to be significantly related to work and family conflict (Carlson & Perrew, 1999; Eby et al., 2005). Marital status and number of children will be used as control variables for family interfering with work conflict. Both these variables have been found to have a strong influence in the perception level of work and family conflict (Carlson and Perrew, 1999; Behson, 2002; Eby et al., 2005). Another important variable is responsibility help. This variable has been found to reduce the perception of conflict in work and family conflict (Zahrly and Tosi, 1989; Carlson and Perrew, 1999; Eby et al., 2005). This last variable will be used as a control variable for both WIF and FIW.

To assure equivalence of the measures in the Spanish and the English versions, a standard translation and back-translation procedure will be performed (Brislin, 1980). This procedure has been used by several studies (Netemeyer et al., 2004; Van de Vijver and Leung, 1997). The survey was translated to Spanish by a native Mexican, and revised by two additional native Mexicans who are also fluent in English. The Spanish version was back translated by a native Spanish speaker, with early education in the US. The outcomes of these translations were revised by a native Spanish-speaking professor with postgraduate education in the U.S.

### Data Collection

The data was collected in Southeast Region of USA, and in the Northeast and central Mexico. There were two different media to collect the surveys: on line, and hardcopy. The United States surveys were distributed and collected by students in a University from South Texas. In Mexico, the surveys were distributed in two *maquiladoras* and then collected principally from the north and center of Mexico.

Of the original sample (721), a number of surveys were not used in this study due to several reasons. Since this research is comparing women, we could not use those surveys completed by men, which was 48 percent. From the remaining 52 percent (375), eleven percent was incomplete (41), and about 59 percent were single women without children. The final sample ( $n$ ) was 153: 81 surveys collected in Mexico, and 72 surveys collected in the US.

### Assessment of the Model

The data collected does not pass the normality assumption for covariance-based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM). Additionally, the final sample size was 153, which can be considered small for CB-SEM. These restrictions invite us to use PLS-SEM, which is a robust technique that has been used successfully despite these two problems (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009).

For the assessment of the construct validity, I conducted Factor Analysis employing the SPSS software (SPSS Inc., 2007). This analysis was done using the complete sample; including both México and United States sub samples. Although the scales have been used successfully in previous research, it is appropriate to test them with the data collected for this study. According to Hair et al. (1998), the loadings for the indicators on the construct should exceed the threshold of 0.7 to pass the validity of the

measurement model. However, there has been previous research that supports using loadings above 0.5 when there are additional indicators to support the latent variable (Chin, 1998; Hrivnak, 2009). Only those indicators that passed this threshold were retained.

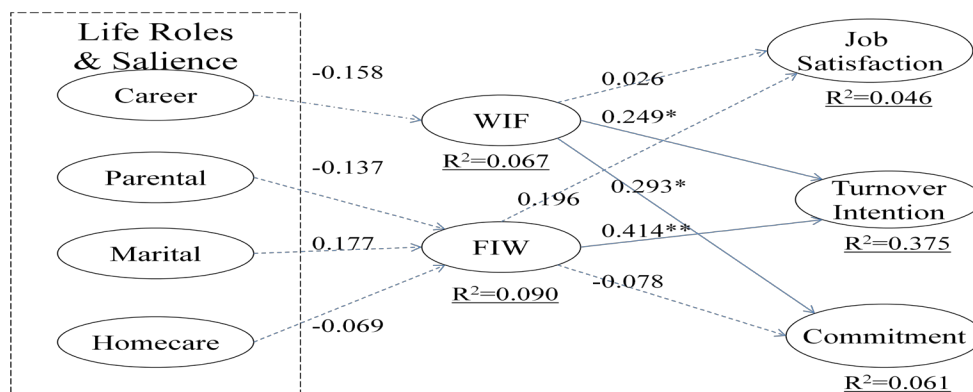
Once we have assessed the reliability of the factor structure we may continue with the evaluation of the internal consistency. The most common measure that has been used for internal consistency is Cronbach’s alpha. The internal consistency was high, showing alpha coefficients ranging from 0.78 to 0.90 (well above Hair’s et al. [1998] threshold of 0.70). Henseler et al. (2009) also propose looking at the composite reliability. According to these authors, cronbach’s alpha has the assumption that all indicators are equally reliable. PLS on the hand, gives a more reliable composite by prioritizing according to the reliability of the indicators. The gauge for this measure is similar to that of cronbach’s alpha. These measures were improved from those generated through cronbach’s alpha.

Structural Model Evaluation

Once we have evaluated the outer model as reliable and valid we can proceed with the evaluation of the structural (i.e. inner) model. The most common criteria for the assessment of structural models are the R<sup>2</sup> or variance explained of the endogenous variables, and the path coefficients. This study will assess the work and family conflict model using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS). There is a number of software compatible with this technique that can be used for the assessment of a model. SmartPLS (Ringle, Wende, and Will 2005), was selected because it permits simultaneous testing of hypotheses using both single- and multi-item measurements (Hennig-Thurau, Henning, Sattler, 2007).

I will begin by presenting the results for the model with the complete data set in Figure 2. According to Chin (1998) an R<sup>2</sup> above 0.67 is substantial, at 0.33 it is considered moderate, and 0.19 is weak (p.323). In the opinion of Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics (2009), a lower variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) may be acceptable when only a few exogenous latent variables are used to explain that construct. Figure 2 presents the values for the first criterion in the assessment of the model (i.e. R<sup>2</sup>). As we can see, the R<sup>2</sup> for intention to turnover (0.375) can be considered acceptable at the moderate level. On the other hand, the explained variance for satisfaction and commitment are below the weak threshold. However, as mentioned above, due to the few number of exogenous variable used to explain the model, these score may be considered acceptable.

Figure 2: Model Results for the Complete Sample



*This model portrays the results from the SEM study. The bold lines represent significant relationships; dotted lines represent paths that resulted non-significant. The numbers in the paths represent the β, the value below the dependent variables represent the variance explained. \* p < 0.5; \*\* p < 0.01*



The second criterion to evaluate the model is the estimates of the path coefficients. The values of the path coefficients should be appraised in sign and magnitude, as well as significance (Henseler et al., 2009). Table 1 shows the results for the path coefficients for the complete sample model and the model for the subgroups of the United States (US) and Mexico (MX). We can see in Figure 2 as well as in Table 1 the path loadings and significance for each of the hypotheses (paths) that we had postulated.

Table 1: Hypotheses Assessment

Hypotheses	Expected	All		US		MX		Comparison
	Sign	B	SD	$\beta$	SD	$\beta$	SD	p-value
H1: Career -> WIF	-	-0.144	0.175	-0.292	0.304	0.241	0.245	0.092
H2a: Parental -> FIW	-	-0.138	0.114	-0.274	0.304	<u>-0.304*</u>	0.146	Not supported
H2b: Marital -> FIW	-	0.178	0.127	0.268	0.214	0.152	0.131	Not supported
H2c: Homecare -> FIW	-	-0.069	0.108	<u>-0.302**</u>	0.116	0.163	0.097	<u>0.012</u>
H3: WIF -> Satisfaction	-	0.027	0.135	0.197	0.217	-0.158	0.237	Not supported
H4: FIW -> Satisfaction	-	0.196	0.128	0.239	0.300	<u>0.358*</u>	0.174	Not supported
H5: WIF -> Turnover	+	<u>0.249*</u>	0.110	<u>0.403**</u>	0.140	0.072	0.153	<u>0.042</u>
H6: FIW -> Turnover	+	<u>0.415***</u>	0.107	0.150	0.144	<u>0.673***</u>	0.126	<u>0.002</u>
H7: WIF -> Commitment	+	<u>0.293*</u>	0.125	<u>0.428**</u>	0.156	0.254	0.266	Not supported
H8: FIW -> Commitment	+	-0.079	0.139	0.057	0.173	-0.088	0.248	Not supported

*This table shows the values of the paths according results from the SEM study for the complete sample and each of the subsamples.*

*For each of these groups the  $\beta$  and standard deviation is given. Those underlined represent significant relationships*

*The last column represents the p-value of the expected difference for each of the two subsamples.*

*\* p < 0.5; \*\* p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001*

It is important to point out that the life roles are measured from high to low. In other words the higher the score, the weaker the value of the role. The same is true for commitment, the higher the score; the less committed the employee feels toward his/her organization. For H1, the path from Career to WIF is found to have the correct sign, but it is not significant. The influence that parental role has on FIW (H2a) had also the correct sign, but no significant relationship. The FIW Marital role relationship (H2b) also failed to achieve significance. Homecare role, expected to be positively related with FIW as well (H2c), was found to have the correct sign but not significant. H3 and H4, which are the influence of WIF and FIW with job satisfaction, were expected to have a negative sign, the results show WIF was not significantly related with job satisfaction in any of the subsamples. However, FIW was found to be significantly related to job satisfaction in the Mexican sample with a p value of 0.04 in the opposite direction as expected.

The influence of both WIF and FIW with intention to turnover were expected to be positive (H5 and H6). Both these hypotheses were supported; the first at a confidence level of below 0.05 and the latter with a p-value of below 0.001. The last two hypotheses were the influence of WIF and FIW to commitment (H7 and H8). H7 was found to have the opposite sign, but failed to achieve significance. On the other hand H8 portrayed a negative relationship (correct sign), in this case with a significant p-value of below 0.05.

The original ninth set of hypotheses predicted a significant difference in each of the life roles between the US and MX sample. Mann Whitney U test and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were used to test the difference in the subsamples. Mann Whitney is a non-parametric test, which combines and sorts the data of both samples assigning ranks to all cases and then counting the times that a score from group one come before a score of group two. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test compares the observed cumulative distribution functions for both samples. When the maximum absolute difference is significantly large, the two distributions of the two samples are considered different. Table 2 portrays the results for both the tests. As we can see, all roles with the exception of marital (9c) were considered significantly different. Career role difference was the most significant (9a), followed by homecare (9d) and finally parental role

(9b). The MX sample tends to hold stronger (lower value) each of the life roles found to be significantly different.

Table 2: Comparison of Role Salience for US and MX

	Career	Parental	Marital	Homecare
Mann-Whitney U	1700	2097.5	2880.5	2089
Wilcoxon W	5021	5337.5	5508.5	5410
Z	-4.459	-2.973	-0.13	-3.092
Significance	0.000	0.003	0.897	0.002
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	2.515	1.539	0.724	1.753
Significance	0.000	0.018	0.671	0.004

*This table shows the results for the test of similarity between each of the roles. The rows titled as significance show the p-value for each of the roles in each of the tests. \* p < 0.5; \*\* p < 0.01; \*\*\* p < 0.001*

In regards to the expectation of the US model to differ significantly from the MX model (H10), I used the method proposed by Henseler et al. (2009) to test this hypothesis. These authors suggest to test the difference in models with the output of bootstrapping generated by the PLS software. Bootstrap was generated for each of the subsamples. Each path in the model was subject to the analysis proposed by Henseler et al. (2009) by using 100 path loadings for each subsample. The results for this analysis are shown in Table 1. Three paths resulted with significant differences in the two subsamples H2c (p = 0.012), H5 (p = 0.042) and H6 (p = 0.002) giving support to H10.

Moreover, Table 3 presents the results for the R squares of the three models (i.e. complete sample, US sample and MX sample). The variance explained for turnover in the model with the complete had a value of 0.375. However, for the US sample the explained variance loses some of its strength to 0.257. On the other hand, in the model with the MX sample the variance explained increases to 0.531. In other words, for the Mexican sample, FIW and WIF explain over twice as much of the variance in turnover than does the US sample.

Table 3: Results of the Model

	ALL			US			MX		
	AVE	Composite Reliability	R <sup>2</sup>	AVE	Comp. Reliab.	R <sup>2</sup>	AVE	Comp. Reliab.	R <sup>2</sup>
WIF	0.719	0.927	0.039	0.740	0.934	0.130	0.707	0.923	0.072
FIW	0.708	0.906	0.090	0.691	0.899	<u>0.233</u>	0.715	0.909	<u>0.204</u>
Satisfaction	0.560	0.828	0.046	0.232	0.368	0.153	0.586	0.841	0.069
Turnover	0.770	0.930	<u>0.375</u>	0.736	0.917	<u>0.257</u>	0.786	0.936	<u>0.531</u>
Commitment	0.600	0.857	0.061	0.579	0.845	<u>0.215</u>	0.550	0.829	0.039

*This table shows the results for the dependent variables from the SEM study for the complete sample and each of the subsamples.*

*AVE represents the average variance extracted for each of the dependent variables.*

*The composite reliability is gauged as cronbach's alpha.*

*The variance explained values (R<sup>2</sup>) that are underlined are those that meet the threshold of above 0.67 as substantial, at 0.33 as moderate, and 0.19 as weak*

Moreover, while the R<sup>2</sup> for the FIW did not reach the explanation to be deemed as weak with the complete sample, once split the R<sup>2</sup> for both the US sample (0.233) and the MX samples (0.204) increased and were considered to have a weak explanation. In the same vein, commitment with an R square of 0.061, did not reach the level of weak explanation with the complete sample. However, after separating the samples the R<sup>2</sup> for US sample increased to 0.215, which deems the explained variance as weak.

We should also point out the differences in the path values and significance as portrayed in Table 1. For the complete sample model, the only paths that were considered significant were both WIF and FIW to intention to turnover, and WIF to commitment. However the values and significance change once the data is split in the US and MX subgroups. For the first Hypotheses (H1) there is a change in sign from the US sample and the MX example, although none of these paths is considered significant. The path between parental role and FIW (H2a) was found to be non-significant in the complete sample, non-significant as well for the US sample, but not so for the MX sample. The path for H2a was found to be significant at the 0.05 level for the MX sample, in the expected direction ( $\beta = -0.304$ ). Even so, when the two results were compared with a t statistic method, there was not enough support to deem them as significantly different.

Continuing with the influence of the marital role to FIW (H2b), while the path coefficient for the US sample was about fifty six percent higher than the MX sample ( $\beta = 0.268$  vs.  $\beta = 0.152$ ), none of these two were found to be significant. Although the influence of homecare with FIW role (H2c) had been found to be insignificant, the results when splitting the sample gave a surprising finding. The US sample shows this path as significant at the 0.01 level, with the correct sign ( $\beta = -0.302$ ). The MX sample had ( $\beta = 0.163$ ), but the significance was questionable with a p value of 0.096 and with the opposite direction. However the t-test did reveal a significant ( $p = 0.003$ ) difference in these two samples for this particular path (H2c).

The complete sample model revealed no significant relationship in the path from WIF to satisfaction (H3), and the same was true for the two subsamples. Additionally, the t-test revealed no significant difference in this path between subsamples. The path from FIW to satisfaction (H4) had been deemed insignificant for the complete model, it remained insignificant for the US sample, but gained significance in the MX sample with path coefficient of 0.358 at a 0.05 level. However, this relationship was positive as opposed to the predicted negative relationship.

The fifth hypothesis, the path from WIF to intention to turnover was supported with a path coefficient of 0.249 in the right direction and with a p-value of 0.026. For the US sample, the path strength increased to 0.403 and with a p value of 0.005, while for the MX sample it lost both strength and significance. The influence from FIW to intention to turnover, H6, was supported in both sign and significance with a path coefficient of 0.415 and p value of less than 0.000. After the sample was split, the US lost strength and significance while the MX sample showed an improved strength and significance with a path coefficient of 0.673. Furthermore, the t-test comparing these two results supports a significant difference with a p value of 0.007. The last two hypotheses are the relationships of WIF and FIW with the outcome of commitment (H7 and H8). Hypothesis 7 was in the correct sign for the complete sample and the MX sample while in the opposite direction for the US sample, nevertheless, in none of these settings were the paths found to be significant. On the other hand, hypothesis eight was found to be significant with the complete sample, the path showed an improved strength and significance with the US sample and lost significance with the MX sample.

In summary, H5, H6, and H8 were supported for the complete sample. H2c, H5, and H8 were supported for the US sample. H2a, H4, and H6 were supported for the MX sample. Furthermore, the method proposed by Henseler et al. (2009) revealed that there is a significant difference between H2c, H5, and H6, supporting H10. In regard to the difference in roles for each subsample: 9a, 9b, and 9d were also supported.

## CONCLUSION

The present research proposed a model where both dimensions of work and family conflict--work interfering with family and family interfering with work--mediated the effect of four life roles (i.e. career, parent, marital, and homecare) in three organizational outcomes (satisfaction, turnover intention, and

commitment). The findings in this study give support to the relationship between the parental role and family interfering with work for the Mexican sample. In addition, homecare role was found to be related with and the family interfering with work (FIW) conflict in the U.S. sample. I also found support in the relationship between work interfering with family (WIF) and both turnover intention and commitment. On the other hand, the relationship between FIW and job satisfaction as well as turnover intention was supported in the Mexican sample. It appears that the family interfering with work conflict has a stronger effect on organizational outcomes than the work interfering with family for the Mexican sample. In contrast, the U.S. sample demonstrated that work interfering with family and not family interfering with work had an effect on organizational outcomes. This may be explained by the value placed in family in the Mexican culture. Perhaps Mexican women are more willing to quit their job than American women are when their family responsibilities hinder their ability to perform well at work. In addition to this, there may be a society and family pressure to return to their traditional role of taking care of the house while the man in the house is the breadwinner.

Another interesting finding was that of the WIF conflict not affecting job satisfaction in any of the samples. This could be explained through Herzberg motivation-hygiene theory. Work interfering with family can be considered as a hygiene factor by merit of the original factors proposed by Herzberg (e.g. company policy and administration, work conditions, and personal life). The next question would be if work interfering with family has been recurrently related with organization outcomes in other populations why does the Mexican sample not show the same behavior. In other words, why does WIF conflict not affect Mexican women while it does affect employees from other nations? One possible explanation could be that there are less job opportunities in México than in the U.S. so Mexican women are appreciative of the opportunity. We could also retake the family support network in the Mexican society where in the case of having more responsibilities at work, a family member would step in and assist in these activities (e.g. taking care of children). Moreover, given that 24-hour domestic service can be easily accessible in México, it may be easier for Mexican women to alleviate the stress of this conflict.

### Limitations and Future Research

No study is free of limitations or possible improvements. The first limitation of this study is the size of the sample. Although the total number of surveys collected was over 700, only those of women that were married and/or had children were included. Additionally, the surveys were collected mainly from south Texas and north of Mexico. This may present a bias on regional culture for each of the countries.

Future research could overcome this limitation by collecting a greater number of surveys in diversity of regions in each country in order to have a better representation the national population. In addition, it would be interesting to understand the differences between men in both countries. Furthermore, comparing the difference in gender in each population may also bring light to understand different HR policies required in each setting. In addition, this study could be extended to include more nationalities and assess the differences they present in the WFC model. This research studied the effect of different life roles mediated with both dimensions of work and family conflict, in organizational outcomes. It could be interesting to assess the effect of the life roles directly into the organizational outcomes. Even more, comparing the effect of different HR policies in different countries may serve as guide for implementing only those that have an important effect in each country rather than applying same policies in all countries. This study is of interest to academics in the fields of organizational behavior (OB) and human resources (HR), as it expands knowledge on the WFC model, which has not been tested in conjunction with role salience. Furthermore, the WFC model has not been tested in the Mexican and U.S. comparative context. This research is also relevant to HR managers since this study may be used as a tool to design policies that are more effective as well as more family oriented. This research is also of interest to managers in organizations, as it will help in understanding how WFC influences the outcomes of an

organization. Finally, women activists will also be interested in this study because it aids in the advancement of women in their careers.

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