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SUPPORTIVE ORGANIZATIONS, WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT AND JOB BURNOUT IN LOW AND HIGH HUMANE ORIENTATION CULTURES

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Abstract

The present study draws on the work-family and cross-national management literature to examine the relationships between Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions (FSOP), work-family enrichment, and job burnout across five countries with different cultural backgrounds: Malaysia, New Zealand, France, Italy, and Spain. Using a combined sample of

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980 employees, we find support for a partial mediation model in which FSOP is positively associated with work-family enrichment, which in turn is negatively related to job burnout.

Given our focus on support, we test the moderating role of the cultural value humane orientation, that is the extent to which a society values altruism, kindness, and compassion.

The five countries in our sample offer variation in their country-level scores as determined by the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004). We found that individuals from cultures that scored higher in “as is” humane orientation (i.e., scores for actual practices) experienced lower job burnout when FSOP increased. This pattern was reversed when considering “should be” humane orientation (i.e., scores for ideal values). The implications for the work-family and the cross-national management literature, and for practice, are discussed.

Keywords: *Work-family enrichment; family supportive organizational perceptions; burnout; cross-national studies; humane orientation; GLOBE.*

Individuals around the world are increasingly engaged in simultaneous demanding work and family roles. Engagement in multiple roles may facilitate the transfer of resources across roles, a process leading to work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

However, engagement in multiple roles also means that demands in each role accumulate, increasing the likelihood of job burnout (i.e., exhaustion and diminished interest in work; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). In this context, support received at work is one of the most critical resources that may help employees cope with demands (Hobfoll, 1989). In this study, we adopt a positive perspective (Roberts, 2006) building on the premise that resources can accumulate and expand rather than be fixed and scarce (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974) and examine the role of work-family enrichment in preventing job burnout, and of organizational support in fostering work-family enrichment. Work-family enrichment is an important

construct benefiting employees and organizations as it is associated with positive job (Carlson, Kacmar, Zivnuska, Ferguson, & Whitten, 2011), family (Carlson, Hunter, Ferguson, & Whitten, 2014), and health outcomes (Haar & Bardoel, 2008; Russo, 2015). Job burnout is also an important construct closely associated with depression, mental health, physical health and work performance (Maslach et al., 2001), and also one that can easily cross over between colleagues and negatively affect job performance (Westman & Bakker, 2008).

Knowledge on the relationships between Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions (FSOP; Allen, 2001), work-family enrichment, and job burnout is currently hampered by the limited empirical examination of work-family enrichment (i.e. 87.7% of the empirical cross-national work-life studies identified in a recent review examined work-family conflict and only 3.4% examined work-family enrichment; Shockley, Douek, Smith, Yu, Dumani, & French, 2017). In addition, findings have been inconsistent. For example, it has been hypothesized that FSOP is positively associated with work-family enrichment and negatively associated with burnout, but tests of the potential mediating effect of work-family enrichment are lacking (Haar & Roche, 2010). The relationship between FSOP and work-family enrichment, in particular, is unclear: Wayne, Casper, Matthews, and Allen (2013) found that work-family enrichment mediates the influence of FSOP on organizational commitment whereas other studies found no significant relationship between FSOP and WFE or between FSOP and FWE (Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012).

Importantly, these relationships have mostly been studied in single national contexts (e.g., Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012; Wayne et al., 2013), whereas a growing body of research pointed out that culture, at the country level, may influence the work-life interface in

important ways (Kossek & Ollier-Malaterre, 2013; Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017; Ollier-Malaterre, Valcour, Den Dulk, & Kossek, 2013; Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009; Shockley et al., 2017). One cultural dimension, in particular, has been identified as theoretically important to study perceptions of support (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004; Ollier-Malaterre & Goñi-Legaz, 2017; Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009). *Humane orientation*, the degree to which a society encourages and rewards being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), is likely to influence the relationship between support perceptions and work-family enrichment because individuals' expectations for support are higher in high (vs. low) humane orientation societies (Powell et al., 2009). In this paper, we examine the moderating role of humane orientation in the relationships between FSOP, work-family enrichment, and job burnout, because HO is the most theoretically relevant cultural dimension to the study of support. We also strive to create new knowledge in a context where the vast majority of research focuses on individualism-collectivism and gender egalitarianism, leaving the rich potential of cross-cultural frameworks largely untapped (Gelfand, 2007; Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017, 2018; Shockley et al., 2017).

We collected data from employees across 5 countries with variations in HO scores, that is Malaysia, New Zealand, France, Italy, and Spain. We built on GLOBE's measure of HO because it is the most reliable to date and GLOBE is the only large-scale project that has provided country scores enabling theoretical sampling (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012; Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & De Luque, 2006; Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2018). GLOBE measured HO "as is" and "should be" scores: "as is" scores reflect the actual practices reported by respondents in a country (e.g., how much people *are* altruistic in the country), whereas "should be" scores reflect the ideal values that

respondents uphold (e.g., how much people *should be* altruistic in the country).

Paradoxically, these scores are typically negatively correlated (Gupta & Hanges, 2004). Thus, the same country can score low on the “as is” measure and high on the “should be” measure.

Reviews of cross-national management research have pointed out that knowledge can only accumulate if researchers adopt a theory-driven choice of scores and detail which scoring they use (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2018; Shockley et al., 2017). Therefore, we acknowledge the theoretical difference in “as is” and “should be” constructs and theorize about both sets of scores in our study to test potential differences.

Taking a positive lens (Roberts, 2006), this study makes several important contributions to the work-family literature. First, this study clearly shows that FSOP is positively related to work-family enrichment and facilitates the preservation and transfer of resources across domains. The finding that FSOP fosters work-family enrichment lends support to the view that resources are not necessarily scarce and fixed; they can accumulate and expand (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Second, our results show that work-family enrichment is negatively associated with job burnout and that the relationships between FSOP and burnout are better understood by a partial mediation of work-family enrichment. Empirically testing the mediating role of work-family enrichment between FSOP and job burnout fills a research gap in the work stress literature that draws on the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001; Odle-Dusseau et al, 2012). Third, our study contributes an important contextualization of these relationships given the impact of HO on expectations for social support in a given country: it extends cross-national work-family research by identifying the moderating role of HO in these relationships. This contribution matters in a context where the positive side of the work-family interface has been much scarcely examined in cross-national studies (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault,

2017). Moreover, these findings bring back an important cultural dimension, HO, in the cross-national work-life literature, and open up avenues for future research. Lastly, this study develops rigorous hypothesizing and testing of both practices and values (“as is” and “should be” scores), paving the way for more systematic cross-national management research.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions and Work-Family Enrichment

Employee perceptions of social support in the workplace are a major predictor of positive work and family outcomes (Allen, 2001; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Russo, Shteigman, & Carmeli, 2016). In fact, social support perceptions are likely to predict work and life outcomes better than work-life programs such as child care and flexible work policies (Batt & Valcour, 2003). Specifically, Kossek et al. (2011) found that content-specific workplace support (including FSOP and family supportive supervisor behaviors) is more strongly related to work-family outcomes than generic perceptions of workplace social support. Accordingly, we focus on FSOP, which is defined as the “global perceptions that employees form regarding the extent to which the organization is family-supportive” (Allen, 2001: 414). FSOP captures employees’ perceptions of the degree to which they receive instrumental support, informational support, and emotional support from their employers regarding their family commitments and needs (Jahn, Thompson, & Kopelman, 2003).

The meta-analyses that have been conducted on FSOP have mostly examined work-family conflict (Kossek et al., 2011) and job-related outcomes (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013). However, as above mentioned, the relationships between FSOP and work-family enrichment are unclear, as some studies found no significant relationship (Ode-Dusseau et al., 2012)

while other studies found work-family enrichment mediates the influence of FSOP on organizational commitment (Wayne et al., 2013).

We draw on the COR perspective (Hobfoll, 1989), which posits that individuals strive to acquire, protect, and develop resources that favor the attainment of the goals they value. COR is pivotal in explaining work-family enrichment processes, in which individuals transfer valuable resources back and forth across domains (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), because COR proposes that individuals develop new resources or enrich resources by investing other resources to protect themselves from environmental threats (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018).

Enrichment is bidirectional: work-to-family enrichment (WFE) occurs when resources gained at work are transferred to the family domain; family-to-work enrichment (FWE) occurs when resources gained in the family are transferred to the work domain. Enrichment can improve individuals' effectiveness at work and in the family while also enhancing their overall system functioning and quality of life (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Both directions are significant predictors of well-being (Hunter, Perry, Carlson, & Smith, 2010). According to Carlson et al. (2006), the resources gained through daily work-family experiences can be classified into three dimensions for WFE (i.e., development, affect, and capital) and for FWE (i.e., development, affect, and efficiency). Examples are skills and perspectives (development), positive emotions (affect), economic, social or health assets (capital), and a greater focus on what one is doing (efficiency). Importantly, the environment in which an individual is embedded may influence work-family enrichment by favoring the experience of either positive or negative resource gains (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012).

Social support has two major functions in the COR framework: it serves to protect existing available resources and to enable individuals to obtain new resources (Siu et al., 2015). Thus, consistent with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), we hypothesize that FSOP will facilitate the preservation and transfer of resources across domains, and therefore FSOP will be positively related to both directions of enrichment. Regarding WFE, we argue that the perception of working in a family-supportive organization can foster greater WFE both through instrumental and affective processes (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). When employees perceive the organization to be family-supportive, they may be more inclined to disclose their family-related problems to their colleagues and supervisors and to seek help. Thus, they may experience affective and capital “gains” at work, such as positive mood, useful advice and/or a sense of fulfillment. Such resources may be transferred to the family domain and enable them to perform better and be more satisfied at home (i.e., work-to-family enrichment) (Carmeli & Russo, 2016; Wayne et al., 2013).

Regarding FWE, we contend that FSOP can facilitate FWE because seeing that one’s family life is valued and accepted in their workplace may increase the salience of the family role for employees who perceive their organization to be family supportive. According to COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), in order to develop and gain more resources, people utilize resources that they possess or call on resources that are available in their environment. Perceiving that it is acceptable to have a life outside of work may loosen the boundaries between work and family, thus enabling a greater transfer of resources from the family to the work (Matthews, Barnes-Farrell, & Bulger, 2010). Moreover, they can experience psychological safety that could encourage them to transfer at work the resources gained/developed in the family. Enrichment can occur when affect, skills, behaviors, and values from the family domain are transferred to the work domain (Hanson, Hammer, &

Colton, 2006). For instance, employees experiencing a good mood in their family may transfer positive affect to work (i.e., the affective path of FWE) when they perceive their family domain is valued in the workplace. Thus:

H1: FSOP is positively related to (a) WFE and (b) FWE.

FSOP and job burnout

The present study focuses on the two core dimensions of job burnout: emotional exhaustion and cynicism (Euwema, Kop, & Bakker, 2004), following prior studies (e.g., Innstrand, Langballe, Espnes, Falkum, & Aasland, 2008; Roche & Haar, 2013)¹. *Emotional exhaustion* refers to the feelings of being drained and depleted and of having used up one's physical, cognitive and emotional resources; while *cynicism* (or depersonalization) captures the attitude of being excessively detached and disengaged from various aspects of one's job (Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach & Jackson, 1996).

COR theory applied to stress (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001) implies that burnout results from a combination of three stress conditions: a) resources are threatened, b) resources are lost or c) there is a lack of resource gain following significant resource investment. Burnt-out individuals may enter a spiral of losses, in which each loss leads to further depletion of resources and thus less successful handling of loss threats of. Resource depletion interferes with the potential ability to reverse loss spirals by engaging in gain cycles (Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson & Laski, 2015). In this paper, we argue that working in a family supportive organization may reduce burnout because employees may perceive emotional

¹ We omit the third job burnout dimension– personal accomplishment – because it is a function of the other two (Maslach et al., 2001). In their meta-analysis, Swider and Zimmerman (2010) highlighted the personal accomplishment dimension as a positive construct that overlaps with self-efficacy, while the two other dimensions are clearly detrimental. Maslach et al. (2001) further contend the links between exhaustion and cynicism are well established, although “the subsequent link to inefficacy is less clear” (p. 405).

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support, flexible working arrangements, and practical aid in the form of work-family programs as valuable resources (Allen, 2001), which may buffer them from emotional exhaustion and cynicism through two mechanisms. First, resources availability from the organization may buffer individuals from loss spirals (Westman et al., 2015). For instance, an employee might find that acceptance of flexible work forms in his or her organization provides a resource that compensates for heavy investment in an intense work project; his or her repository of resources can be refilled. Second, these resources may also provide the impetus for a “resource caravan” process (Hobfoll, 2011) that reduces employees' likelihood to burnout. For instance, perceptions that using an Employee Assistance Program (EAP) is acceptable may enable an employee to actually seek assistance from the EAP and identify useful sources for further advice and support, that is access additional resources. Thus:

H2: FSOP is negatively related to (a) emotional exhaustion and (b) cynicism.

Work-family enrichment and job burnout

There have been consistent reports of positive associations between work-family enrichment and enhanced mental health (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010; Russo, 2015), as well as negative associations with psychological distress (Haar & Bardoel, 2008) and burnout (Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts, & Pulkkinen, 2006; Innstrand et al., 2008). In line with the COR theory (Hobfoll et al., 2018), we argue that work-family enrichment may predict burnout, rather than the opposite (as argued in Brauchli et al., 2017), because work-family enrichment may trigger a resource gain spiral, generating a surplus of mental and physical resources which compensates for the potential losses experienced in demanding working conditions (Innstrand et al., 2008; Robinson et al. 2015). For instance, learning new skills at work and transferring them to one's family roles (i.e., WFE) may buffer individuals from emotional exhaustion and cynicism because it facilitates the development of additional resources in the

family. Likewise, the family may provide individuals with resources such as esteem, social support, opportunities for self-growth, and flexibility that may help them to perform better across other life domains (i.e., FWE) (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Thus, family resources may prevent emotional exhaustion and cynicism by providing instrumental aid (e.g., social support) or by enhancing individual abilities (e.g., opportunities for self-growth) and positive emotions (Demerouti, Bakker, & Voydanoff, 2010). For instance, parents building up leadership skills and experience at home and mobilizing them at work are more likely than parents not transferring these resources to avoid job burnout because these skills and experience may help them to manage stress at work (Lu, Siu, Chen, & Wang, 2011) and to be viewed by their own supervisors as effective leaders (Dumas & Stanko, 2017). In sum, we argue that WFE and FWE may reverse resource loss spirals and initiate gain cycles (Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson & Laski, 2015), thus filling up individuals' repository of resources (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) and thereby decreasing their vulnerability to stress (McNall et al., 2010; Russo, 2015). Thus:

H3: (a) WFE and (b) FWE are negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

H4: (a) WFE and (b) FWE are negatively related to cynicism.

Work-family enrichment as a mediator

The relationships between FSOP, work-family enrichment, and job burnout have been scarcely investigated. We build here again on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), and on the findings that WFE mediates the relationship between FSOP and organizational commitment (Wayne et al., 2013) and between Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviors (FSSB) and thriving at work (Russo, Buonocore, Carmeli, & Guo, 2018), to hypothesize that WFE mediates the relationships between FSOP and job burnout as well. We underpin our

reasoning in the “resource caravan” argument (Hobfoll, 2011). Perceiving support may trigger a resource gain spiral enhancing not only WFE but also FWE: perceiving support at work makes the work and family domain more compatible and thus facilitates the transfer of resources from one domain (e.g., work) to the other domain (e.g., family). This process of developing new resources through work-family enrichment is likely, in turn, to reduce job burnout. This reasoning is consistent with Crain and Hammer’s meta-analysis (2013), which found that family-specific support received at work is often a critical antecedent in studies where work-family enrichment serves as a mediator (i.e., Baral & Bhargava, 2010; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012; Russo et al., 2018). Thus:

H5: WFE and FWE mediate the relationship between FSOP and (a) emotional exhaustion and (b) cynicism.

Humane orientation as a moderator

A growing body of research points out that national culture, which is defined as the set of beliefs, values and norms shared by individuals who have a common historical experience (Hofstede, 1980; Schooler, 1996) has a strong influence on the ways in which individuals engage in their multiple roles (Allen, French, Dumani, & Shockley, 2015; Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017; Spector, Allen, Poelmans et al., 2007). Therefore, calls have been issued to develop culture-sensitive theories for the work-family interface (Powell et al., 2009) and to enhance the generalizability of findings and theories across cultural contexts (Spector, Liu, & Sanchez, 2015).

In the work-life field, very little of the developed theory on cultural dimensions has been tested. Only two cultural dimensions, i.e. individualism/collectivism and gender egalitarianism, have been examined in depth (see Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017 and

2018 and Shockley et al., 2017 for reviews). However, another cultural dimension, HO, has been identified as influencing expectations for social support (Ollo-López & Goñi-Legaz, 2017; Powell et al., 2009;). HO may moderate the relationships between social support and the two directions of work-family enrichment because social support is more likely to be manifested in cultures in which care and generosity towards one another are emphasized (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). In addition, social support is likely to be valued and acknowledged as a useful resource in such cultures (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004).

HO refers to altruism, kindness, compassion, and generosity towards others, as opposed to self-sufficiency and self-enhancement (House et al., 2004, Javidan & Dastmalchian, 2009; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). HO is distinct from but correlated with agreeableness (Schlösser, Frese, Heintze et al., 2012) and from need for affiliation (van Emmerik, Gardner, Wendt & Fischer, 2010). It is correlated with cultural constructs that promote compassion and emphasize groups over individuals such as institutional and in-group collectivism (Kabasakan & Bodur, 2004). It is also correlated with values that promote compassion and conformity (Schlösser et al., 2012), such as religiosity (the degree to which a religion plays a central role in the lives of societal members) and authoritarianism (the degree to which members of a society emphasize obedience, discipline, power, and submission to authority).

Actual HO practices and HO ideal values tend to differ in cultures, as indicated by the negative correlation between GLOBE “as is” and “should be” measures ($r = -.32, p < .05$, Gupta & Hanges, 2004). A possible interpretation of the negative correlation between practices (“as is”) and values (“should be”) is that in societies with higher (vs. lower) practices scores, the desire for incremental HO is smaller. Indeed, societies in the lowest

quartiles of HO practices have the strongest upward aspirations for HO (Javidan et al., 2006). This aligns with the principle of diminishing marginal utility (Maseland & Van Hoorn, 2009): the value individuals attach to the achievement of an objective (e.g., to be supportive of each other) decreases as the objective is attained (i.e., high “as is” scores). By contrast, the objective is valued highly when individuals are far from achieving it (i.e., low “as is” scores). Because of the complex relationships between cultural values and practices (House et al., 2004; Javidan et al., 2006), cross-national scholars have called for systematic theorizing including both constructs. Therefore, we theorize about both the “as is” and “should be” scores, which is a new and original attempt in the work-family field.

Regarding cultural practices, individuals in cultures that score high on the HO “as is” dimension are encouraged to demonstrate kindness and compassion towards others (House et al., 2004). In cultures with a high humane orientation, other people such as family, friends, community and even strangers are important, as people take responsibility for each other’s well-being and individuals are urged to provide social support to others (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). Given that they witness encouragements and rewards pertaining to behaving in an altruistic way, we expect that individuals living in higher HO “as is” cultures will expect more support from their organizations and will acknowledge the social support they perceive to be available more, compared with individuals who have not been socialized in a society that rewards such behaviors. Therefore, it is likely that support will more efficiently buffer individuals from emotional exhaustion and cynicism. In addition, individuals living in high HO “as is” cultures are likely to be more familiar with a resource that they perceive as being representative of their culture, such that it will come easier to them to leverage that resource and to facilitate its transfer from one domain to the other (i.e., enrichment), compared with

individuals who have not experienced the pervasiveness of caring behaviors as a core part of their culture (Powell et al., 2009).

Turning to cultural values instead of practices, we believe that FSOP will be particularly beneficial for individuals in cultures that score low on HO “should be” scores. The reason for this is that organizational support sends a strong signal in societies in which generosity and sensitivity towards others are not valued much (House et al., 2004). In such cultures, higher FSOP may be of particular psychological value, as it may signal to employees that the organization cares for them despite the broader cultural norms that put less emphasis on altruism. Therefore, employees in low HO “should be” cultures may be more motivated to take advantage of such resources and transfer them across domains. They may also acknowledge their perceptions of support more, such that these perceptions may have a stronger effect on their emotional exhaustion and cynicism. Because these GLOBE scores reflect an either-or theoretical underpinning, we do not expect them to interact together and hypothesize these interactions distinctly. Thus:

H6: The relationship between FSOP and work-family enrichment varies as a function of HO, such that the positive relationship between FSOP and enrichment is (a) stronger in high HO “as is” cultures and (b) weaker in high HO “should be” cultures.

H7: The relationship between FSOP and emotional exhaustion varies as a function of HO, such that the negative relationship between FSOP and emotional exhaustion will be (a) stronger in high HO “as is” cultures and (b) weaker in high HO “should be” cultures.

H8: The relationship between FSOP and cynicism varies as a function of HO, such that the negative relationship between FSOP and cynicism will be (a) stronger in high HO “as is” cultures and (b) weaker in high HO “should be” cultures.

METHOD

Samples and procedures

Data were collected from 5 countries that provide interesting variations in HO scores: New Zealand, Malaysia, France, Italy, and Spain. Altogether, these countries provide a higher standard deviation (0.67 “as is” and 0.51 “should be”) than the 62 countries in GLOBE’s total sample (0.25)². The authors personally collected data from 4 of the countries, using their networks as well as HR associations and alumni networks to generate the broadest range of employees and organizations; while a research assistant native to Malaysia collected data from that country. We targeted individual respondents (as opposed to organizations) and followed snowball sampling principles (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981) by asking recruited participants to encourage participation in the research through their own networks. As a result, respondents worked in different organizations from various sectors (including private, public and not-for-profit organizations), although the Malaysian sample was largely composed of employees working in the public sector. The only requirement for inclusion in the study was to be employed in a full-time job so that a fixed context could be provided for comparison between our samples. In countries where English is not the first language, surveys were translated and back-translated by two professional translators (Brislin, 1980). The co-author responsible for data collection in a given country worked with the translators to reconcile the differences.

Table 1 shows the descriptive data of the combined sample as well as the 5 individual samples. Overall, the combined sample includes 980 employees with an average age of 37.8 years. Gender was evenly split (51% female), and the majority were married (73%) and

² This study is part of a larger study of work-family issues (anonymized) that included an additional two samples. In these samples, a shorter survey instrument was required, and the variables used in the present study were not collected.

parents (60%). ANOVA analysis showed no significant difference by marital status, but by age ($F=40.1$, $p=.000$), gender ($F=3.8$, $p=.005$) and parental status ($F=6.9$, $p=.000$). Overall, the Italian sample was the oldest, with Malaysia being the youngest; the most female sample was the French one and the least was the Italian one; France had the highest proportion of parents and New Zealand the lowest.

Measures

Except where noted, all items were coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. All measures achieved adequate reliability within each country sample (all $\alpha > 0.70$). While we combined the 5 samples for the overall analyses, we also provide the individual construct reliabilities by country, following Table 1 order, namely Malaysia, New Zealand, France, Italy and Spain. We follow common recent approaches (e.g., Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Culpepper, 2013; Jang, Shen, Allen, & Zhang, 2018) and mean center the items at the country mean and then calculate reliabilities at the total and individual country level respectively.

Family Supportive Organizational Perceptions. FSOP was measured using the 6-item measure by Booth and Matthews (2012), which is based on Allen's (2001) original 14-item scale. The items were preceded by the question "To what extent do you agree that each of the following statements represents the philosophy or beliefs of your organization?" All items captured lack of family support; for example: "It is assumed that the most productive employees are those who put their work before their family life". We reverse-scored them so that a higher score indicates higher FSOP ($\alpha= 0.96$) [by country $\alpha= .82, .83, .81, .80$ & $.82$].

WFE and FWE were measured using the six-item version by Kacmar, Crawford, Carlson, Ferguson, and Whitten (2014), which is based on that of Carlson et al. (2006) and coded on a scale from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. Questions follow the stem “My involvement in work/family...”, and sample items are “Helps me to understand different viewpoints, and this helps me be a better family member” (WFE, $\alpha= 0.83$) [by country $\alpha= .95, .94, .93, .92$ & $.93$], and “puts me in a good mood, and this helps me be a better worker” (FWE, $\alpha= 0.96$) [by country $\alpha= .97, .94, .95, .90$ & $.95$].

Emotional Exhaustion and Cynicism were measured using five items for each dimension from Maslach and Jackson (1981), which were coded from 1=never to 5=always. A sample item for emotional exhaustion is “I feel emotionally drained by my work” ($\alpha= 0.79$) [by country $\alpha= .88, .87, .76, .84$ & $.82$] and a sample item for cynicism is “I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything” ($\alpha= 0.72$) [by country $\alpha= .82, .76, .79, .77$ & $.79$].

Humane Orientation was assessed by using GLOBE’s country scores (“as is” and “should be”) for HO (House et al., 2004). A sample item for “as is” is “In this society, people are generally: very sensitive toward others – not at all sensitive toward others”; a sample item for “should be” is “In this society, people should be encouraged to be: very concerned about others – not at all concerned about others”. A dichotomous approach is typically found in the work-family literature (e.g., Spector et al., 2004, 2007). However, some argue that the GLOBE measures are superior (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; Spector et al., 2015) because they offer a range of scores and a sliding scale, although such scores at the country-level do not account for variations in cultural beliefs within countries. Scores for the “as is” (practices) HO were: New Zealand (4.32), Malaysia (4.87), Italy (3.63), France (3.40) and

Spain (3.32); and those for “should be” (values) were: New Zealand (4.49), Malaysia (5.51), Italy (5.58), France (5.67) and Spain (5.69).

Control variables. We controlled for two variables that are important for work-family experiences (Carlson et al., 2006): (1) gender (1=female, 0=male) and (2) parental status (1=parent with children, 0=no children). The reason for this is that women and parents have been found to be more sensitive to organizational support for family because they have greater care responsibilities (Byron, 2005; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Haar & Spell, 2004; Rothausen, 1999). Hence, we expect the relationship between FSOP, work-family enrichment, and job burnout to be stronger for women and parents. Following Bernerth and Aguinis (2016), we tested models without the control variables, and the results remained largely unchanged.

Measurement Models

To confirm the separate dimensions of the various study measures in the combined sample, our analysis included CFA using AMOS 25.0. Following methodologists (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Williams, Vandenberg & Edwards, 2009), we assessed the CFA based on (1) the comparative fit index ($CFI \geq .90$), (2) the root-mean-square error of approximation ($RMSEA \leq .08$), and (3) the standardized root mean residual ($SRMR \leq .10$). We conducted a separate CFA in each sample and then combined them. The hypothesized measurement model included five factors – FSOP, WFE, FWE, emotional exhaustion and cynicism – and the overall analysis showed a good fit to the data across each individual country sample: Malaysia: $\chi^2(199) = 304.6$ ($p = .000$), $CFI = .938$, $RMSEA = 0.070$ and $SRMR = 0.088$; New Zealand: $\chi^2(199) = 511$. ($p = .000$), $CFI = .935$, $RMSEA = 0.066$ and $SRMR = 0.061$; France: $\chi^2(199) = 306.5$ ($p = .000$), $CFI = .937$, $RMSEA = 0.063$ and $SRMR = 0.067$; Italy: $\chi^2(199)$

= 389.5 ($p = .000$), CFI = .929, RMSEA = 0.064 and SRMR = 0.080; and Spain: χ^2 (199) = 259.5 ($p = .000$), CFI = .963, RMSEA = 0.049 and SRMR = 0.068. The overall analysis on the combined sample showed a good fit to the data, thus meeting minimum requirements: χ^2 (199) = 759.4 ($p = .000$), CFI = .951, RMSEA = 0.054 and SRMR = 0.049. We tested 2 alternative models, and our analysis confirmed that the hypothesized model was the best fit (see Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Table 2 shows the measurement analysis.

Shockley et al. (2017) noted that less than 30% of cross-cultural studies test for measurement invariance; and we, therefore, conducted just such an analysis to ensure that respondents had the same interpretation of meaning across cultures (Spector et al., 2015). We used a multi-group CFA, which is a global CFA with all data combined, in which each country is a distinct group (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The CFA for all 5 country samples was analyzed simultaneously, and the RMSEA fit statistics between each country were compared. In a multi-group CFA, scores outside the established thresholds indicate the measures are not the same across the countries and therefore comparative analysis should not be conducted. Thus, there are five groups in the multi-group analysis representing respondents from each country. Cheung and Rensvold (2000) suggested the RMSEA fit statistic to examine measurement invariance with multi-group CFAs because that measure is not affected by the complexity of the structural model (Meade & Kroustalis, 2006). Our model supported measurement equivalence, as the difference in RMSEA across the samples was very small: the unconstrained model RMSEA was .028 and the measurement weights model RMSEA was .030, for a RMSEA difference of .002. This value is below the established critical value (Cheung & Rensvold, 2000). As such, the CFA holds across each country – including the Malaysian sample (dominated by public sector respondents) – making comparative analysis possible. The ICC(1) for emotional exhaustion (0.53) and cynicism

(0.48) were large and suggest job burnout is heavily influenced by country, while the ICC(K) values of 0.82 and 0.85 indicate the items have strong stability across the countries (LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

Analysis

Hypotheses were tested using MLwiN (version 2.30) to account for the nested structure of our data (i.e., respondents within countries) (Bliese & Hanges, 2004). We centered control variables to the grand mean, and FSOP, WFE, and FWE were centered at the country level following Yang et al. (2012). We conducted mediation effects first and then ran moderation effects. We included both HO moderators ("as is" and "should be") and their interactions into the models simultaneously. In total four models were run (WFE, FWE, emotional exhaustion, and cynicism).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the variables in the combined sample are shown in Table 3.

Table 3 shows that for the within-country correlations, FSOP is negatively correlated to both job burnout dimensions ($r = -0.18$ to emotional exhaustion and $r = -0.24$ to cynicism, both $p < .01$) and FSOP is positively correlated to both enrichment dimensions ($r = 0.18$ to WFE and $r = 0.13$ to FWE, both $p < .01$). For the between-country correlations, FSOP is also negatively correlated to both job burnout dimensions ($r = -0.13$ to emotional exhaustion and $r = -0.65$ to cynicism, both $p < .01$) but only significantly correlated to FWE ($r = 0.46$, $p < .01$).

WFE and FWE are positively correlated with each other in the within-country ($r = 0.41, p < .01$) and between-country ($r = .076, p < .01$). WFE and FWE are negatively correlated with both job burnout dimensions ($r = -0.31$ WFE to emotional exhaustion, $r = -0.37$ WFE to cynicism, $r = -0.10$ FWE to emotional exhaustion, $r = -0.11$ FWE to cynicism, all $p < .01$) in the within-country correlations, but with significant and different directions at the between-country level ($r = 0.38$ WFE and emotional exhaustion, $r = -0.42$ WFE and cynicism, $r = 0.48$ FWE and emotional exhaustion, $r = -0.49$ FWE and cynicism, all $p < .01$). Burnout dimensions are positively correlated with each other within-country ($r = 0.58, p < .01$) and between-country ($r = 0.51, p < .01$).

HO (“as is”) is positively correlated with FSOP within-country ($r = 0.15, p < .01$) and between-country ($r = 0.33, p < .01$), with FWE within-country ($r = 0.10, p < .01$) and with both WFE ($r = 0.52$) and FWE ($r = 0.33$, both $p < .01$) between-country. FSOP is also positively correlated with emotional exhaustion ($r = 0.15, p < .01$ within-country and $.87, p < .01$ between-country) and cynicism ($r = 0.08, p < .05$ within-country and $.12, p < .01$ between-country). Finally, HO (“should be”) is negatively correlated with FSOP ($r = -0.29, p < .01$ within-country and $r = -.62, p < .01$ between-country) and emotional exhaustion ($r = -0.08, p < .01$ within-country and $r = -.48, p < .01$ between-country), and with cynicism only between-country ($r = -.13, p < .01$).

A summary of the analysis results (Table 4) provide support for the positive direct effects of FSOP on WFE and FWE (H1a and 1b), as well as for the negative direct effects of FSOP on emotional exhaustion and cynicism (H2a and 2b). Specifically, Table 4 shows that FSOP was positively related to WFE (path coefficient = $.21, p < .001$), FWE (path coefficient = $.11, p < .01$), and negatively related to emotional exhaustion (path coefficient = $-.14, p <$

.001), and cynicism (path coefficient = $-.24, p < .001$). Table 4 also shows the mediation effects with each mediator separately and then together. We find that WFE and FWE were negatively related with emotional exhaustion when they are entered separately into the model (path coefficient = $-.28, p < .001$ and $-.11, p < .01$, respectively). When entered together, WFE was the dominant mediator, fully canceling out the influence of FWE (reducing the path coefficient to $.01, non-significant$). WFE and FWE were negatively related with cynicism when they are entered separately into the model (path coefficient = $-.38, p < .001$ and $-.12, p < .01$, respectively). Again though, the influence of FWE became non-significant when the model included WFE, as WFE dominated and cancelled out the effect of FWE (reducing the path coefficient to $.06, non-significant$). Separately, this supports hypotheses 3a, 3b, 4a and 4c, although clearly WFE is the dominant dimension of enrichment associated with both job burnout dimensions. These effects reducing the influence of FSOP on emotional exhaustion (from path coefficient = $-.14, p < .001$ to $-.11, p < .001$) indicate partial mediation, and the path coefficient dropping from $-.24 (p < .001)$ to $-.43 (non-significant)$ with cynicism, indicates full mediation. This supports the mediation hypotheses 5a and 5b.

Finally, regarding the moderation effects, Table 4 also shows the interaction effects between HO and FSOP on WFE and FWE and on both job burnout dimensions. There were no significant interaction effects towards either WFE or FWE. Thus, there is no support for hypotheses 6. Positive interaction effects were found between FSOP and “should be” HO (values) with emotional exhaustion (path coefficient = $.33, p < .001$) but not between FSOP and “as is” HO (actual practices), therefore hypothesis 7a is not supported. There were also a negative and positive interaction effect of “as is” HO and “should be” HO with cynicism (path coefficients = $-.28, p < .01$ and $.26, p < .01$, respectively).

Testing cross-country interaction effects can be challenging, especially with the limited number of countries used. Consequently, we follow the approach of Yang et al. (2012) and conduct subgroup analysis in MLwiN whereby comparisons are made across the HO dimensions (“as is” and “should be”) whereby subgroups represent high or low HO values (above or below the mean) and these models are then compared. This approach provides a clearer interpretation of effects (Yang et al., 2012) and is shown in Tables 5A and 5B. The significant interactions were as follows: HO (“should be”) with emotional exhaustion only, and with cynicism, for both HO (“as is”) and HO (“should be”). This involves using Markov Chain Monte Carlo and then model comparison diagnostic using Deviance Information Criterion (Spiegelhalter, Best, Carlin, & van der Linde, 2002), whereby the lower value indicates a superior fit.

The analysis in Table 5A shows evidence of moderated effects across the HO (“should be”) with the low HO subgroup being a superior fit to the data compared to the high HO subgroup (DIC comparisons) and showing that FSOP is negatively related to emotional exhaustion in the low HO (“should be”) cultures (path coefficient = $-.42$, $p < .001$) but not high HO (“should be”) cultures (path coefficient = $-.02$, non-significant). There is evidence in both low and high HO (“should be”) cultures that WFE is negatively related to emotional exhaustion (path coefficient = $-.23$, and -0.30 respectively, both $p < .001$), in the low HO (“should be”) cultures, the addition of WFE partially mediates the influence of FSOP. This supports hypothesis 7b. Table 5B shows the differences are also clear because in high HO (“as is”) cultures, FSOP is negatively related to cynicism (path coefficient = $-.55$, $p < .001$) while it is not significantly related in low HO (“as is”) cultures. WFE is negatively related to cynicism in high HO (“as is”) cultures (path coefficient = $-.43$, $p < .001$) and low HO cultures (path coefficient = $-.34$, $p < .001$). In the high HO (“as is”) cultures this effect partially

mediates the influence of FSOP (path coefficient drops from $-.55$ to $-.44$, both $p < .001$) and overall the high HO (“as is”) cultures model is the better fit compared to low HO (“as is”) culture (from the DIC comparisons). This supports hypotheses 8a. The effects are reversed in HO (“should be”) cultures, with the low HO (“should be”) culture being a better fit compared to the high HO culture (from the DIC comparisons). Here, FSOP is negatively related to cynicism (path coefficient = $-.58$, $p < .001$) but there is no significant effect in the high HO cultures. Furthermore, while WFE is negatively related to cynicism in both low and high HO (“should be”) cultures (path coefficient = $-.41$ and $-.39$ respectively, both $p < .001$), in the low HO (“should be”) cultures, the addition of WFE also partially mediates the influence of FSOP (path coefficient drops from $-.58$ to $-.47$, $p < .001$). This supports hypothesis 8b.

DISCUSSION

This study tested important relationships in the work-family interface across five countries as well as the moderating role of HO (House et al., 2004) on these relationships. We find that FSOP is a critical workplace resource for enhancing employees’ experience of work-family enrichment (both directions) and, ultimately, reducing their job burnout (emotional exhaustion and cynicism). In addition, some cultures are more advantageous to the beneficial influence of FSOP, specifically low HO (“should be”) cultures with emotional exhaustion and cynicism, and high HO (“as is”) cultures with cynicism. These findings suggest that witnessing kind behaviors in one’s country (high HO “as is”) may decrease cynicism beyond the direct effect of FSOP but may not be enough to further decrease emotional exhaustion. HO did not moderate the relationship between FSOP and enrichment, suggesting that enrichment may be less susceptible than burnout to macro level influences such as cultural beliefs and practices. However, WFE was the dominant predictor of burnout.

including in high HO (“should be”) and low HO (“as is”) cultures, and consistently played a modest partial mediating role in low HO (“should be”) and high HO (“as is”) cultures.

This study makes several important contributions to the work-family literature. First, while prior research emphasized the role of organizational family-supportive environments in reducing work-family conflict (Kossek et al., 2011; Lapierre et al., 2008), our study shows that FSOP is also important for enhancing employees’ work-family enrichment. Furthermore, while FSOP was found to have a direct effect on emotional exhaustion and cynicism, its influence was better understood as a mediation process through work-family enrichment: FSOP was positively associated with work-family enrichment, which in turn was negatively associated with job burnout. At the theoretical level, our findings lend support to the resource expansion perspective as opposed to the scarcity hypothesis (Marks, 1974; Sieber, 1977) and to ten Brummelhuis and Bakker’s (2012) work-home resources model. They are also consistent with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018) and with the COR model of burnout (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). At the empirical level, our results provide much-needed evidence linking FSOP and work-family enrichment to health-related outcomes (Van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009).

Second, the present study contextualizes the relationships between FSOP, work-family enrichment, and job burnout and contributes to cross-national work-family research by pioneering empirical analyses of the cultural construct of HO. HO had been identified as theoretically relevant to the study of social support because it heightens individuals’ expectations of support (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004; Ollo-López & Goñi-Legaz, 2017; Powell, et al., 2009). The present study is a step towards tapping into the rich potential of existing cross-cultural frameworks, beyond well-researched dimensions such as individualism-

collectivism and gender egalitarianism (Gelfand, 2007; Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017; 2018; Shockley, 2017). It is also one of the few studies to examine the positive side of the work-family interface from a cross-cultural perspective (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017).

Third, the study contributes to the broader cross-national management literature by showing that it makes theoretical sense to articulate different hypotheses for cultural practices and values and that results do diverge depending on which score one uses. The dichotomy between cultural practices and values is one of the major challenges acknowledged about GLOBE constructs and measures (Gupta & Hanges, 2004; Brewer & Venaik, 2010; Hanges & Dickson, 2004). Suggestions were made to explore a dimension in depth (Taras et al., 2010) and to report findings for both scores so that effects could be captured holistically, and knowledge accumulate on the discrepancies between the two sets of scores (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2018). We took on that challenge by hypothesizing and running models including both scores for HO. Overall, we found that both scores were significant to job burnout dimensions and resulted in direct opposite effects – despite being correlated at only $r = -.32$. An alternative option for future cross-national research using GLOBE scores would be to choose to use either practices or values based on what is theoretically relevant and to clearly state that choice in the hypotheses.

Practical Implications

Our results imply that organizational support for family is an important resource for enhancing WFE and FWE as well as for reducing job burnout. FSOP can be enhanced through the provision of formal work-family practices and, most importantly, through the building of a supportive work-family culture that enables the use of formal practices as well

as the negotiation of informal agreements with supervisors and coworkers (Allen, 2001). The work-family practices that enhance support perceptions the most are the “enabling” practices that give employees control over when, where and how much they work (Bourdeau, Ollier-Malaterre, & Houliort, 2019), such as flexible work arrangements (e.g., telework, flexible hours, compressed workweeks in which one works full-time hours in 4 days instead of 5, or reduced-load arrangements in which the workload is reduced proportionally to the pay cut).

Our findings suggest that FSOP is even more crucial within high HO “as is” and low HO “should be” cultures. Thus, in order to use scarce organizational resources in a more efficient way, we suggest that organizations target the implementation of family-supportive initiatives primarily in cultures best suited for leveraging this support. This is in line with recent research showing that family supportive initiatives should be targeted toward the employees who are most in need of support (Russo et al., 2018). Perhaps organizations could use available GLOBE HO scores or include HO scales in their internal surveys to assess HO practices and values in the countries in which they operate. They may then differentiate their family-supportive supervision training and interventions (Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, & Zimmerman, 2011) according to HO cultural contexts. That said, enrichment was consistently associated with lower job burnout across all HO dimensions and thus this relationship appears to be universal.

Limitations and future research

While our study encompasses five countries, it is limited in that the data are self-reported and cross-sectional, as is typical of such studies (e.g., Spector et al., 2007). However, we use HO data from a secondary source and this provides external data. In addition, there are potential issues with our snow-ball methodology (Biernacki & Waldorf,

1981) and the dominance of public sector employees in the Malaysian sample. We acknowledge that future studies might try to gain a broad array of public and private sector employees in each country to make comparisons more robust. We alleviated these limitations somewhat by conducting higher-order statistical analyses such as CFA in SEM (Haar et al., 2014) and testing and finding significant moderation effects, which Evans (1985) argues are much less likely if common method variance (CMV) is an issue. While not a perfect test of CMV (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), Harman's One Factor Test has been used within the literature as a rudimentary test of CMV (e.g., Haar & Roche, 2010). The factor analysis (unrotated) resulted in several factors, with the largest factor accounting for 24.1% of the overall variance and thus suggesting that CMV is less likely to be an issue in this study (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). In addition, we utilized Lindell and Whitney's (2001) procedure for assessing CMV by making a partial correlation adjustment of the independent and dependent variables and controlling for an unrelated construct (we used employee voice: Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988). The correlations remained significant with the control variable, again indicating no CMV issues. Overall, the above approaches suggest that CMV issues, if present, are limited. Nevertheless, future research might seek to collect secondary source data by asking co-workers to rate support in their organization and then asking partners to evaluate the focal employees' burnout; such approaches are likely to be difficult across a wide range of countries. Overall, our higher-level statistical analysis – including testing for metric invariance across the country samples – helps to offset these limitations and has been encouraged in the literature (Shockley et al., 2017).

Our study calls for additional future studies. While we used GLOBE's approach to HO, there are other potential factors that might be explored in cultural contexts such as allocentrism vs. idiocentrism, i.e. the tendency to focus on the goals and values of other

members of a group vs. one's own (Triandis, Leung, Villareal, & Clack, 1985; Wang, Lawler, Walumbwa, & Shi, 2004). Hence, future studies might include additional cultural dimensions and seek to further tease apart HO within each cultural context.

CONCLUSION

The present study highlights the important role that FSOP plays in enhancing work-family enrichment and reducing emotional exhaustion and cynicism across a number of cultures. Finding that HO has moderating effects further encourages exploring this construct in cross-national studies. Overall, the present study offers unique insights into not only the important role that FSOP plays in facilitating employees' management of the work-family interface (higher enrichment) but also its direct and HO moderated effects in reducing job burnout. We hope these findings will encourage future cross-national studies on FSOP and work-family enrichment.

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Accepted Article

Table 1. Overall Study Demographics

Country	N	Demographics					Sector		
		Age (Years)	Gender (Female)	Married	Parent	Single, Non-Parent	Private	Public	Not-for- Profit
Malaysia	110	32.1	48%	75%	63%	21%	4%	96%	0%
New Zealand	366	34.3	55%	70%	51%	25%	56%	40%	4%
France	139	39.2	62%	80%	74%	14%	74%	22%	4%
Italy	238	44.0	43%	69%	60%	27%	63%	35%	2%
Spain	127	39.7	50%	78%	66%	15%	62%	36%	2%
Total Sample	980								
Average Age	37.8 Years (SD=11.3 Years)								
Gender	51% Female								
Married	73%								
Parents	60%								
Industry	55.4% Private								
	42.5% Public								
	2.1% Not-For-Profit								

Table 2. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Study Measures

Model	Model Fit Indices				Model Differences				Details
	χ^2	Df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2	Δ df	p	
1. Hypothesized 5-factor model: FSOP, WFE, FWE, Emotional Exhaustion, and Cynicism.	759.4	199	.951	.054	.049				
2. Alternative 4-factor model: FSOP, WFE and FWE combined, Emotional exhaustion and Cynicism.	2981.9	203	.756	.118	.112	2222.5	4	.001	Model 2 to 1 ^a
3. Hypothesized 4-factor model: FSOP, WFE, FWE, Emotional Exhaustion, and Cynicism combined.	1552.9	203	.882	.082	.061	793.5	4	.001	Model 3 to 1 ^b

Note: ^a refers to comparing the hypothesized measurement model (model 1) with model 2 (alternative 4-factor model); ^b refers to comparing the hypothesized measurement model (model 1) with model 3 (alternative 4-factor model).

FSOP refers to Family-supportive organizational perceptions, WFE is work-to-family enrichment and FWE is family-to-work enrichment.

Table 3. Correlations and Means of Study Variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. FSOP	3.3	.79	--	.06	.46**	.32**	-.62**	.08*	-.42**
2. WFE	3.1	.88	.18**	--	.88**	.52**	.22**	.33**	.09**
3. FWE	3.7	.79	.13**	.41**	--	.76**	-.23**	.52**	.10**
4. HO (“as is”)	4.0	.52	.15**	.04	.10**	--	-.61**	.93**	.60**
5. HO (“should be”)	5.2	.54	-.29**	.02	-.03	-.61**	--	-.52**	-.38**
6. Emotional Exhaustion	2.6	.86	-.18**	-.31**	-.10**	.15**	-.08**	--	.73**
7. Cynicism	2.3	.99	-.24**	-.37**	-.11**	.08*	-.05	.58**	--

N = 980. Within-country correlations below the diagonal and between-country correlations above the diagonal. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Note: FSOP refers to Family-supportive organizational perceptions, WFE is work-to-family enrichment and FWE is family-to-work enrichment, and HO is Humane Orientation.

Table 4. Final Results Summary

Variables	Outcomes	
	WFE	FWE
<i>Controls:</i>		
Gender	.01(.06)	.04(.05)
Parental Status	.17(.06)**	.01(.05)
<i>Direct Effects:</i>		
FSOP	.21(.04)***	.11(.04)**
<i>Moderators:</i>		
HO (“as is”)	.13(.07)*	.21(.06)***
HO (“should be”)	.08(.07)	.08(.06)
<i>Interactions:</i>		
FSOP x HO (“as is”)	.03(.04)	-.02(.03)
FSOP x HO (“should be”)	-.03(.04)	-.02(.04)
	Emotional Exhaustion	Cynicism
<i>Controls:</i>		
Gender	.10(.05)*	-.05(.06)
Parental Status	-.27(.05)***	-.25(.06)***
<i>Direct Effects:</i>		
FSOP	-.11(.03)***	-.43(.77)
<i>Mediation Effects:</i>		
FSOP (without mediators)	-.14(.03)***	-.24(.05)***
FSOP (when mediator WFE included)	-.12(.04)***	-.16(.04)***
Direct effect of mediator (WFE)	-.28(.03)***	-.38(.03)***
FSOP (when mediator FWE included)	-.16(.04)***	-.22(.05)***
Direct effect of mediator (FWE)	-.11(.03)**	-.12(.04)**
FSOP (with both mediators: WFE & FWE)	-1.4(.68)*	-.16(.04)***
Direct effect of mediator (WFE)	-.27(.03)***	-.40(.04)***
and (FWE)	.01(.04)	.06(.04)
<i>Moderators:</i>		
HO (“as is”)	.27(.06)***	.14(.07)*
HO (“should be”)	.06(.06)	.03(.07)
<i>Interactions:</i>		
FSOP x HO (“as is”)	-.12(.08)	-.28(.09)**
FSOP x HO (“should be”)	.33(.08)***	.26(.10)**

Path coefficients shown with standard errors in brackets. All tests are two-tailed.

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

FSOP refers to Family-supportive organizational perceptions, WFE is work-to-family enrichment, FWE is family-to-work enrichment and HO is Humane Orientation.

Table 5.A Results of Cross-Cultural Comparisons

Variables	Outcomes	
	Emotional Exhaustion	
	Low HO ("should be")	High HO ("should be")
<i>Controls:</i>		
Gender	.03(.07) [LL= -.13, UL= .14]	.15(.06)* [LL= .04, UL= .26]
Parental Status	-.34(.07)*** [LL= -.50, UL= -.22]	-.23(.06)** [LL= -.5346, UL= -.13]
<i>Direct Effects:</i>		
FSOP	-.42(.06)*** [LL= -.53, UL= -	-.02(.28) [LL= .52, UL= .48]
<i>Mediation Effects:</i>		
FSOP (without mediators)	-.41(.06)*** [LL= -.51, UL= -.30]	.04(.05) [LL= -.06, UL= .12]
WFE	-.23(.05)*** [LL= -.33, UL= -.15]	-.30(.04)*** [LL= -.38, UL= -.22]
FWE	.02(.27) [LL= -.55, UL= .50]	.02(.02) [LL= -.02, UL= .06]
<i>Model Comparison: DIC</i>	850.412	1481.960

DIC= Deviance Information Criterion. Confidence Intervals (95%) LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper

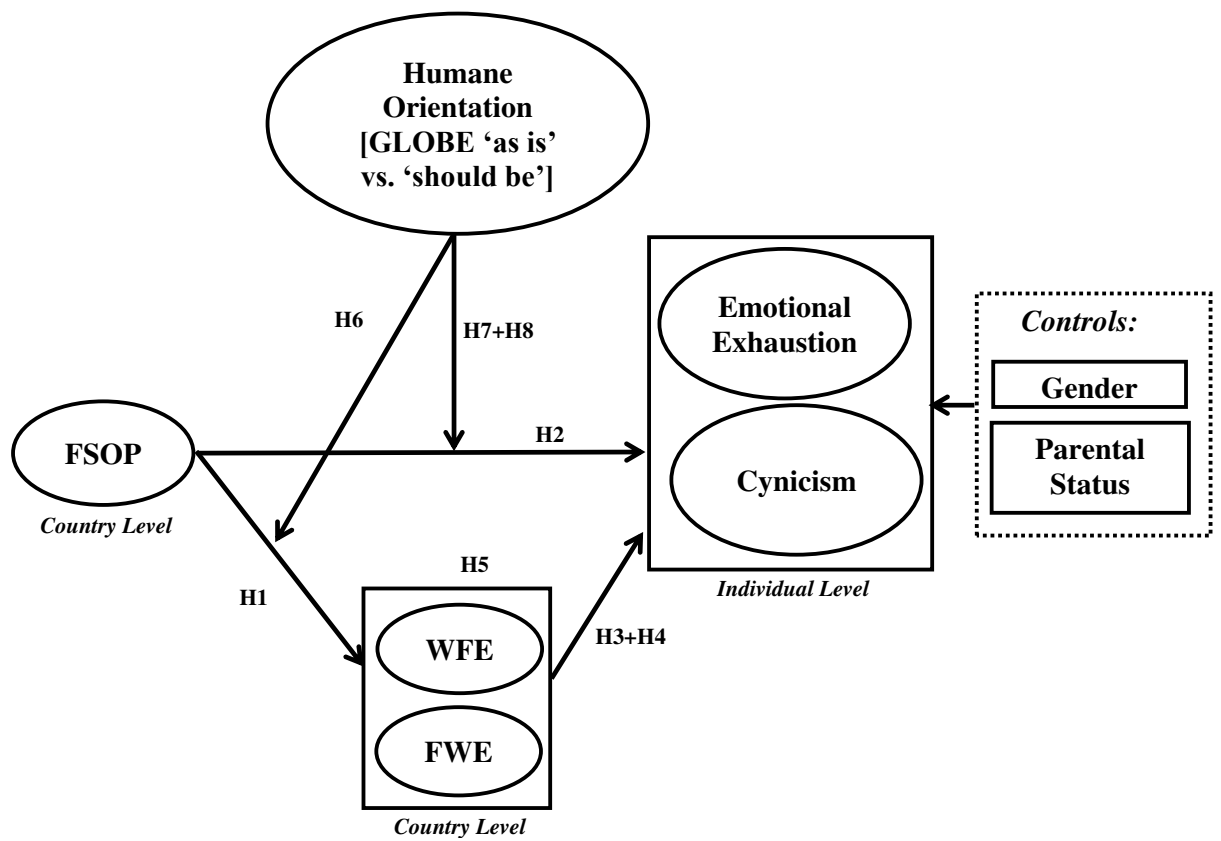
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Table 5.B Results of Cross-Cultural Comparisons

Variables	Outcomes			
	Cynicism			
	Low HO ("as is")	High HO ("as is")	Low HO ("should be")	High HO ("should be") Culture
<i>Controls:</i>				
Gender	-.09(.08) [LL= -.21, UL= .09]	-.02(.02) [LL= -.45, UL= .40]	-.01(.10) [LL= -.07, UL= .07]	-.07(.09) [LL= -.27, UL= .14]
Parental Status	-.24(.09)*** [LL= -.42, UL= -.08]	-.24(.07)*** [LL= -.37, UL= -.11]	-.25(.11)** [LL= -.45, UL= -.05]	-.28(.06)*** [LL= -.41, UL= -.18]
<i>Direct Effects:</i>				
FSOP	.04(.04) [LL= -.03, UL= .12]	-.55(.07)*** [LL= -.70, UL= -.43]	-.58(.08)*** [LL= -.73, UL= -.39]	-.01(.18) [LL= -.36, UL= .37]
<i>Mediation Effects:</i>				
FSOP (without mediators)	.09(.06) [LL= -.02, UL= .20]	-.44(.06)*** [LL= -.56, UL= -.33]	-.47(.08)*** [LL= -.61, UL= -.31]	-.01(.03) [LL= -.05, UL= .04]
WFE	-.34(.05)*** [LL= -.44, UL= -.24]	-.43(.04)*** [LL= -.50, UL= -.34]	-.41(.06)*** [LL= -.52, UL= -.29]	-.39(.05)*** [LL= -.47, UL= -.31]
FWE	.02(.07) [LL= -.13, UL= .18]	.09(.08) [LL= -.05, UL= .25]	.05(.07) [LL= -.09, UL= .22]	-.06(.05) [LL= -.10, UL= .24]
<i>Model Comparison: DIC</i>	1313.593	1239.698	987.951	1582.377

DIC= Deviance Information Criterion. Confidence Intervals (95%) LL=Lower Limit, UL=Upper Limit

Figure 1 – Hypothesized Model



FSOP refers to Family-supportive organizational perceptions, WFE/FWE refers to work-family/family-work enrichment.