ROLE OF WORK-FAMILY FACILITATION IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ENVIRONMENT FACTORS AND OUTCOMES IN WORK AND NON-WORK DOMAINS

by

NEENA GOPALAN

B.A., University of Kerala, India, 1997
M.S., Kansas State University, 2005

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Psychology
College of Arts and Sciences

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2011

Abstract

Literature on work and family, the two important domains in an individual's life, has focused heavily on the conflicts that could occur when individuals try to juggle between their responsibilities in the two domains. Lately, there has been enthusiasm to also study the facilitation aspects that could result from being engaged in both domains. This dissertation empirically tests the Resources-Development-Gain model (RGD), a recently developed *work and family facilitation* model, which include work and non-work factors that can bring facilitation. Over 500 academic faculty members from four universities completed an online survey comprised of demographic items, family and work variables, variables to measure facilitation, outcome variables in both domains, and personality variables. The hypothesized model (model 1) was analyzed using AMOS, and was found to be a poor fit. Personality factors included as moderators in the facilitation process were found to be non-significant and hence dropped from the modified model (Model 2). This was a significantly better fit. Model 3 was analyzed to see if a better fit would be obtained when personality variables were directly connected to outcome variables. As Model 3 did not add anything significant, Model 2 was accepted. The findings suggest that faculty tenure influenced their turnover intentions, with new academic faculty and full professors showing lower turnover intentions. Family support brought facilitation from one's family to work and contributed to life satisfaction, while organizational support contributed to facilitation from one's work to non-work life. No significant overlaps were found between work and family domains in the facilitation stage, but were observed at the outcome levels. Thus, job satisfaction in the work domain contributed to overall life satisfaction in the family domain. Satisfaction in one's personal relations also tended to influence one's turnover decisions. Future directions for research and recommendations are discussed.

ROLE OF WORK-FAMILY FACILITATION IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ENVIRONMENT FACTORS AND OUTCOMES IN WORK AND NON-WORK DOMAINS

by

NEENA GOPALAN

B.A., University of Kerala, India, 1997
M.S., Kansas State University, 2005

A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Psychology
College of Arts and Sciences

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2011

Approved by:

Major Professor
Ronald G. Downey

Copyright

Abstract

Literature on work and family, the two important domains in an individual's life, has focused heavily on the conflicts that could occur when individuals try to juggle between their responsibilities in the two domains. Lately, there has been enthusiasm to also study the facilitation aspects that could result from being engaged in both domains. This dissertation empirically tests the Resources-Development-Gain model (RGD), a recently developed *work and family facilitation* model, which include work and non-work factors that can bring facilitation. Over 500 academic faculty members from four universities completed an online survey comprised of demographic items, family and work variables, variables to measure facilitation, outcome variables in both domains, and personality variables. The hypothesized model (model 1) was analyzed using AMOS, and was found to be a poor fit. Personality factors included as moderators in the facilitation process were found to be non-significant and hence dropped from the modified model (Model 2). This was a significantly better fit. Model 3 was analyzed to see if a better fit would be obtained when personality variables were directly connected to outcome variables. As Model 3 did not add anything significant, Model 2 was accepted. The findings suggest that faculty tenure influenced their turnover intentions, with new academic faculty and full professors showing lower turnover intentions. Family support brought facilitation from one's family to work and contributed to life satisfaction, while organizational support contributed to facilitation from one's work to non-work life. No significant overlaps were found between work and family domains in the facilitation stage, but were observed at the outcome levels. Thus, job satisfaction in the work domain contributed to overall life satisfaction in the family domain. Satisfaction in one's personal relations also tended to influence one's turnover decisions. Future directions for research and recommendations are discussed.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I like to express my sincere and deep gratitude to my academic advisor, Dr. Ronald G. Downey for his mentorship throughout my days as his student. I have no idea what I would have done without his patience, guidance, understanding and support. He has been a true transformational leader, whom I can count on whenever I needed advice or encouragement or an impartial look at things. It was also his confidence in me that kept me going whenever I doubted myself. Thank you for everything, Dr. Downey.

I also like to thank all my committee members, Drs. Clive Fullagar, Richard Harris, Brian Niehoff, and Sandy Stith for working with me to schedule my defense and for their excellent feedback on the first draft of my dissertation.

Many individuals have assisted me in one way or the other throughout my graduate student days. I like to specifically acknowledge my thankfulness to Dr. Jerry Frieman for all his assistance, to Dr. Brian Niehoff for finding time from his busy schedule to talk to me and to give whatever support he could, and to Drs. Julia Bayless and David Pollack - my internship supervisors - who cared for me and provided good examples on professional conduct. A special thanks to my friend, Carol, for answering all my Statistical questions. Last but not the least, the little furry pet, Gundu…. You have been a true stress-buster with your idiosyncrasies. It has been nothing but impossible to not adore you.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

The last few years have witnessed rapid changes in the United States demographic profile (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005). For example, more women are entering the workforce, more families are becoming dual-income, single-parent families are becoming more common, and people from diverse social and cultural background are becoming part and parcel of today's workforce. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (2006) reports that nearly two thirds of couples, with children younger than 18, both partners are employed. Keene & Quadagno (2004), in their study, noted that nearly 60% of working adults reported difficulty balancing work and family.

A trend that has arisen out of this is that more employees are facing the responsibility of engaging in the dual-roles of work and family. Undoubtedly, this also has impacted organizations that hire this diverse workforce. Organizations are now facing the challenge to develop strategies that will assist employees in dealing with the competing demands of their professional and personal lives (Aryee, et al., 2005). Although there is plenty of research on the work-family interface, it has primarily focused on work-family conflict. Recently, researchers have argued for studying the positive impact of work on family life and vice versa. No research has tried to undertake a more or less in-depth study looking at the different factors that could result in work-family facilitation (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). The proposed research is an attempt to partially fill this gap. It will study both work and non-work factors that that can lead to work-family facilitation. By work-family facilitation, we are referring to facilitation that can result from work to family and from family to work. Thus, although we refer to the concept as work and family facilitation, we are including the bi-directionality into account at all times. This study will look at whether certain environmental variables (i.e., organizational

or work-related) can lead to facilitation from work-to-family of an individual and if, this facilitation, can lead to certain outcomes that are of organizational interest. We will also study this concept in the family domain and see if family-related variables (i.e., non-work related) can lead to facilitation from one's family-to-work which, in turn, can lead to certain outcomes in the family domains. We will include personality or individual variables in studying work and family facilitation to see if such variables can moderate facilitation.

The structure of the introduction will be as follows: First, the paper will focus on the changing work scenario of today and why it has become important for research to focus on understanding how employees manage their work and non-work (family) lives. Second, the paper will detail how research on the work-family interface area has focused on the conflict between work and family lives, followed by why we need to study work-family facilitation (bi-directionally). Next, the rather brief history that started to lay the groundwork for research in work and family facilitation will be discussed. This will be followed by explaining the background of the current study and how it was carried out. Here, the paper will discuss why it is important to consider the organizational and non-work factors that can lead to facilitation between one's work and family domains. The organizational, family, and individual (personality) factors included in the proposed study will be discussed and how these factors can lead to work-family facilitation which, in turn, can lead to important outcomes in work and non-work domains.

Importance of understanding work-family issues

Kanter (1977) noted that the so-called reference of 'separate worlds' [to refer] to one's work and personal domains was a myth. He argued that one's work and non-work lives cannot be completely separated from each other and that both domains influence the overall life of the

individual. Since then, researchers, media and society have expressed both interest and concern on the interface between people's work and personal lives (O'Driscoll, Brough, & Kalliath, 2004). Factors such as changes in demography and working conditions have contributed to generating research questions that paved the way for a new understanding of the permeability of one's work and off-work domains (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Even the generation of technologies such as mobile phones and laptops have changed the nature of the work-family interface and provided more flexibility in one's work, such that, one need not be physically present in one's office to carry out one's work. These technologies have led the way for a closer connection between one's professional and personal lives, furthering the permeability between work and non-work lives (O'Driscoll, Brough, & Kalliath, 2004).

An understanding of work and family issues is also important in the wake of the changing demographics in the work place. As mentioned earlier, not only are there more women in the workforce, but more men are also getting more involved with their family duties (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). This has led to research that attempts to understand the dynamics involved in fulfilling responsibilities in two domains (of work and non-work). Although there has been interest in understanding such dynamics, most research tends to focus on a limited number of variables (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Rothausen, 1999). Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, and Brinley (2005) had encouraged researchers to go beyond such boundaries and instead to try to undertake a more comprehensive understanding of work and family environments.

Not surprisingly, research has tried to identify the links between one's work and family, and how to describe them. In this respect, researchers including Edwards and Rothbard (2000), Kossek and Ozeki (1998), and Zedeck (1992) mention three models including the spillover

model, the compensation model and the segmentation model. These models have been used to explain how one's role as an employee can affect one's role as a family member and vice versa by explaining the underlying linkages between the two domains.

Models on Work and Family

Spillover model - The 'spillover model' suggests that one's attitudes and behavior tend to generalize from one's work life to one's family life and vice versa (Leiter & Durup, 1996). This model has been used to explain both the positive spillover, where positive attitudes and behaviors can be transferred from work to family and family to work. For example, receiving positive feedback from one's supervisor at work may put one in a good mood. This person may come home in a cheerful mood and takes everyone out for a treat. Or, having a supportive spouse at home may enable the person to focus more on his or her work. The spillover model also includes negative spillover, where negative attitudes and behaviors are transferred from work to family and family to work (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Thus, being depressed due to family reasons may spillover to one's workplace affecting one's work performance. Or, being excessively competitive at work due to the demands of work may put the person in an aggressive mood that unknowingly carries over to his or her family role.

Compensation model - The 'compensation model' tends to argue that there is a negative correlation-type of relationship between one's work and non-work attitudes and behaviors (Greenglass & Burke, 1988). This follows that if employees are unhappy at home they will devote more of their time and energy at work to compensate for their unhappiness at home and vice versa. The employee may decrease his or her involvement in the domain that causes unhappiness and at the same time increase his or her involvement in the other domain that may potentially bring happiness and satisfaction (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Segmentation model - The 'segmentation model' suggests that the two domains of work and family are unrelated (Lambert, 1990), and the two domains do not affect each other (Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Zedeck, 1992). Work and family were considered as two completely separate domains because they both serve separate functions in an individual's life (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Researchers such as Voydanoff (1987) have questioned this notion arguing that one's work and family domains are closely related. Some research points out that segmentation is better construed as an active process, whereby the individuals maintain some boundary between their family and work lives (Lambert, 1990). This active process refers to individuals suppressing thoughts or feelings related to their family-domain when they are in their work place and vice versa.

Thus, each of the models attempt to explain work-family interface from three different angles. While the spillover model focuses on the permeability between work and family domains, the segmentation model focuses on work and family domains as two separate and non-permeable domains in an individual's life. Finally, the compensation model focuses on individuals attempting to compensate in one domain for one's unhappiness and dissatisfaction in the other. As Mulvaney, O'Neill, Cleveland, and Crouter, (2006) point out, the spillover model has the most empirical support in work-family literature.

Focus of Current Research on Work-Family Conflict

As mentioned above, the existing research on work-family interface has focused overwhelmingly on work-family conflict or on the likely stress that individuals tend to experience from trying to manage responsibilities of both their work and personal lives. Work-family conflict has been defined as "…a form of inter-role conflict in which role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell,

1985, *p*. 77). Researchers including Frone (2003) and Fu and Shaffer (2001) noted how, for nearly two decades, the work and family literature was dominated by a focus on the 'conflict' aspect and ignored other possibilities.

A large number of studies have been carried out to understand and elucidate the antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict. For example, Frone, Russell, and Cooper, (1992); Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1994); Gutek, Searle, and Klepa (1991); Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer and King (2002); Pittman and Orthner (1988); Voydanoff, (2002); and Zedeck (1992) have examined work-family conflict in considerable depth and have contributed to our understanding of this construct. Additionally, researchers have attempted to study the negative influence of work-family conflict on employees' physical and psychological health (e.g., Frone, 2003; Sinacore & Akcali, 2000; Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Madsen, John, & Miller, 2005; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Research has also been done to see the negative impact of work-family conflict on the employees' organizational performance (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000). Further, Thompson and Prottas (2005) warned that without effective strategies in place, high levels of work-family conflict can lead to ill-effects that can affect both the personal and professional lives of the employees. Thompson and Prottas (2005) argued that work-family conflict can lead to reduced organizational commitment, reduced job satisfaction, lower family satisfaction, increased turnover, and an increased divorced rate.

Why study work and family facilitation?

Although research has focused heavily on work-family conflict (for example, Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1994; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti & Crouter, 2000), there has been an increased concern that focusing only on the negative side of work-family interface is not appropriate

(Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). In the early 1980s, Crouter alluded to the fact that work and family can benefit each other, but it was not until recently that researchers seemed to have taken interest to actually study this possibility. Kossek and Ozeki (1998) suggested that research begin to look at the positive aspects of the work-family interface.

Organizations themselves have started to adopt policies and programs that provide better resources for employees to manage their dual-role responsibilities (Grzywacz, 2000). For example, an increasing number of organizations are providing their employees with some form of flextime (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2003). Researchers like Barnett and Hyde (2001), and Grzywacz and Marks (2000) argue that there are also benefits that come out of multiple role occupations. For example, employees may experience a sense of security and purpose in life, which, in turn, may actually outweigh the stress involved in trying to meet the demands of multiple roles (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). In other words, while conflict may be likely for employees as they strive to attain balance between their family and work commitments, it is also likely that engagement in their family and work roles can bring about positive results to their lives (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). In fact, an understanding of the benefits of combining one's work and family roles may lead to greater job and overall life satisfaction (Stoddard & Madsen, 2007).

Recently, work and family facilitation (or the positive aspects in the dynamics between work and family) has started to capture the attention of researchers. While the 'work and family conflict' focuses on the incompatibilities between the two domains, work and family facilitation focuses on the 'compatibility' or the 'enhancement' or the 'complementarities' that an individual can experience when he or she combines work and family (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Frone, 2003). Grzywacz and Bass (2003) had talked about two studies done in the 1990s as appropriate

examples of studies that had captured the basics of work and family facilitation. In the first work, Kirchmeyer (1982) reported that workers who had children were able to show more patience with their colleagues as they learned how to be patient through child rearing. In the second study, Hochschild (1997) noted that paid work enabled individuals to be better parents. In both studies, the process of work and family facilitation can be noticed, although it certainly lacks theoretical framework (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003).

Recently, research has confirmed the distinctiveness of work-family facilitation and work-family conflict (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2007). These studies suggest that both these constructs may have different antecedents and that it is more likely to be a mistake to merely include facilitation into established models of work-family conflict (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007). Further, Frone (2003) contended that work-family facilitation is not merely the absence of work-family conflict. Clearly, separate research needs to be carried out on work-family facilitation (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). An extensive understanding of work-family interface should include not just research on work-family conflict, but also on work-family facilitation (Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003; Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008). However, very little research has been done on facilitation (O'Driscoll, Brough, Kalliath, 2004).

In fact, researchers (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000) noted that work-to-family facilitation and family-to-work facilitation are distinct and very likely to have their own and unique antecedents. These researchers argue that family variables are the antecedents of facilitation from one's family to work while work related factors form the antecedents of facilitation from one's work life to non-work life. In a similar fashion, the outcomes are also very likely to be different depending on direction of facilitation between one's work and family lives.

Thus, Grzywacz and Bass (2003) and Wayne et al. (2004) argued that facilitation from one's family to work is more likely related to family outcomes, and facilitation from work to family is more likely to result in work-related outcomes. Despite such arguments, work-family facilitation remains underdeveloped both conceptually and empirically (Frone, 2003). The following section will summarize the limited research in the work-family facilitation area.

Research on Work-Family Facilitation

The idea that facilitation is possible between the two domains was first proposed as early as the 1970s. Sociologists Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977) discussed that having to engage in multiple roles could actually be beneficial to an individual. Srivastava, Srivastava, and Srivastava (2009) had included the arguments put forward by Sieber (1974) that employees engaged in multiple roles (i.e., work role and family role) could likely get role privileges, an increased sense of security (such as financial), more resources for enhancement of their status, and an improved sense of gratification. Srivastava et al. (2009), noted that involvement in multiple roles can thus also have positive outcomes.

So what is work-family facilitation? Frone (2003) defined work-family facilitation as "…the extent to which participation at work (or home) is made easier by virtue of the experiences, skills, and opportunities gained or developed at home (or work)" (*p*. 145). Work-family facilitation can be referred to as those situations that involve family responsibilities and participation being made easier as a result of skills and opportunities gained at one's work place and vice versa (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1992). It is likely to involve multiple dimensions and, therefore, be bi-directional.

Work-family facilitation can result in the acquisition of a set of knowledge, skills and behavior by the person. These factors help an employee to be a better family member -

'development', it can bring about a positive emotional state that further helps in being a better family member - 'affect', and it can promote psycho-social resources such as confidence and self-fulfillment that help the employee be a better family member - 'capital' (Stoddard & Madsen, 2007). Below are the main results of some of the studies that were carried out on work-family facilitation and related factors.

Studies carried out on the potential positive aspects of work-family interface has looked at four constructs: positive spillover (Edward & Rothbard, 2000; Grzywacz, 2000; Sumer & Knight, 2001; Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts, & Pulkkinen, 2006); facilitation (Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Voydanoff, 2005); enhancement (Sieber, 1974), and enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). Although, these constructs are often considered to have similar meanings and used interchangeably, there are some differences between the four constructs. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) defined positive spillover as the transfer of experiences in one domain to another (for example, from work to family). Carlson et al. (2006) referred to facilitation as gains in one domain improving the functioning in another domain. Enhancement is referred to as the benefits that an individual obtains in one domain having a positive effect on other roles in the individual's life (Sieber, 1974). Finally, enrichment is a process where…"the extent to which experiences in one role improves the quality of life in the other role" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, *p*. 73). Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeauz, & Brinley (2005) noted that although all four constructs attempt to explain the positive aspects between one's work and non-work lives, their approach is different in the sense that 'enrichment,' 'positive spillover,' and 'enhancement' focus on the individual as the unit [of analysis], while facilitation focuses on the 'system' as the analysis unit. There are also additional references to work-family facilitation,

such as ‘work and family balance’ which, academicians argue, can contribute to the overall wellbeing of individuals (Halpern & Murphy, 2005).

Regardless of these differences between these facilitation constructs, research has found some interesting relationships in the broad domain of work-family facilitation. For example, studies show that work-family facilitation and individual’s physical and psychological health have a positive relationship (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). Work-family facilitation was especially associated with reduced risks of employee’s experiencing depression and succumbing to alcoholism. Research done by Hanson, Hammer and Colton (2006), and by Stoddard and Madsen (2007) confirm these finding and further suggest that the more resources made available to an individual the higher is his/her level of mental health. Other studies tend to suggest that work-family facilitation may bring about greater marital and family satisfaction (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004), and overall life satisfaction (Hill, 2005).

The entire 1980s and 1990s saw very little scholarly attention and research done in the domain of work and family facilitation (Srivastava et al., 2009). There has not been an established definition of work-family facilitation (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004). Research is needed to develop an understanding of the antecedents and outcomes of work-family facilitation. Studies are also warranted to develop a deeper comprehension of the possible influence of work-family facilitation on factors of organizational outcomes. It is important to help organizations understand the relevance of ensuring that work is not standing in the way of employee’s family lives but that employees are able to experience work-family facilitation. Further, there also seems to be a lack of a solid and established theory that explains the process by which work-family facilitation happens. While work-family conflict has been explained with the help of theories such as the Conservation of Resources (Hobfoll, 2001), theories that

adequately explain work-family facilitation are still in the evolving phase. Unlike the plethora of research and literature on work and family conflict, there is a shortage of studies that have examined the underlying factors that could bring about a positive interaction and outcomes between work and family domains. This is certainly warranted as research has shown, consistently, that participation in multiple roles can actually be beneficial for employees because dual responsibilities may assist in overcoming the difficulties otherwise associated with each domain (Demerouti, Geurts, & Kompier, 2004; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004).

Researchers in the domain of work and family, including Berscheid (2003) and Greenhaus and Powell (2006), have pointed out that there is also a lack of theoretical framework to explain work and family facilitation. Theories that have been used to explain work and family conflict may not be successful in explaining work and family facilitation (Voydanoff, 2005). These researchers point out that work and family facilitation is not the absence of work and family conflict which, if it was, could probably be explained by the theories attempting to explain work and family conflict. That said, below are some of the different theories and perspectives that have been used to try to explain work-family facilitation.

Theories on Work-Family Facilitation

Role theory - One of the theories that have been used in the general work-family interface area is role theory (Aneshensel & Pearlin, 1987). Roles provide not only form but also structure to social relationships. Two perspectives have evolved out of role theory explaining how people perform multiple roles: scarcity and expansion-enhancement. The scarcity perspective hinges on draining of individual resources and ensuing conflict when individuals have to juggle multiple roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Zedeck &Mosier, 1990). In other words, there is only a fixed and finite amount of resources to meet multiple roles and any demand beyond this finite amount

can exhaust the individual. On the other hand, the expansion-enhancement perspective's center of attention is on the gains that individuals can obtain as a result of his/her involvement in multiple roles (Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002; Sieber, 1974). In a nutshell, role theory acknowledges the benefits of involvement in many roles simultaneously but also focuses on the possibility of role conflict that can arise out of multiple roles.

Conservation of Resources – Hobfoll's Conservation of Resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) defines resources as organizational properties that can be acted upon by individuals. These resources may include organizational conditions (such as employment) and objects (such as one's home). In addition, there are also personal characteristics that are relevant here; these include the skills and traits that emerge from one's orientation to the world (for example, optimism) (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) were among the first proponents of COR in the area of work-family research and argued that COR provided a better understanding of work-family dynamics than Role theory. Grandey and Cropanzano's (1999) main contention were that Role theory failed to take into account the role of moderating variables between work and family stressors and outcomes. On the other hand, COR enables predictions about the moderating role of individual differences which can be considered as resources (Rosenbaum & Cohen, 1999). Later, Jansen, Kant, Kristensen, and Nijhuis (2003) used COR in their study on work-family domains and found that gender was a moderator in their findings such that men and women valued 'resources' differently. Recently, Lapierre and Allen (2006) applied COR to study how individuals used different coping methods to avoid work-family conflict. Their study showed the moderating role of individual differences in using different types of coping methods. However, COR theory does not provide a full model of facilitation. Mainly a stress-based theory, it focuses on how people try to protect resources to

reduce stress. The theory does not consider motive forces that may explain individuals' development (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007).

Expansion perspective – The Expansion hypothesis (Barnett & Hyde, 2001) rose out of the ideas suggested by Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977). These researchers argued that human energy is infinite and that engaging in multiple roles is actually beneficial for individuals. The Expansion perspective claims that being actively engaged in one domain can provide resources and experiences leading to more fulfillments in one's life. On a similar note, Geurts and Demerouti (2003) posited that an individual's participation in one domain could benefit his/her involvement in another domain. This resonates with what Edwards and Rothbard (2000) and Rothbard (2001) had earlier stated, that a better understanding of work-family interface requires a proper integration of the positive and negative aspects. In their study of managerial women juggling multiple personal responsibilities, Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, and King (2002) found that these women reported being more efficient and focused as a result of being involved in multiple roles. These studies strongly suggested that resources and support gained in one domain (for example, work) can be helpful in enhancing one's wellbeing in another domain (for example, friend).

Ecological Systems theory – The Ecological Systems theory assumes that an individual's development is a lifelong process and that it is best understood by studying the interaction of the individual characteristics and those of his or her environment (Barling, Kelloway, & Frone, 2005). There are feedback loops between the individual and his/her environment through which each influences the other. Researchers including Hammer, Bauer, and Grandey (2003) have tried to explain the dynamics between work and family domains using the Ecological Systems theory. For example, Voydanoff (2002) studied how an individual's home and work lives influence each

other and the mechanisms through which they occur. Focusing on work-family facilitation, Bronfenbrenner and Ceci (1994) noted that facilitation is influenced by resources of both the person and the environment. In other words, some people tend to realize that their environment offers resources because the individuals have specific attributes and dispositions to realize their potential (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). Individuals have a natural affinity towards higher level of functioning (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Thus, individual development occurs through ongoing interactions between an individual and their environment (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). According to Ecological Systems theory, the resources an individual has in his or her environment determines if facilitation may result or not as these resources form the means through which the individual interacts with his or her environment. In addition, Ecological theory also advocates that individual characteristics can play a role in 'demanding' particular responses from the environment. In other words, these individual characteristics can determine how much of the resources are benefited by the individuals (Grzywacz, 2004). Grzywacz (2004) contends that this supposition is relevant and that not all individuals attempt to draw benefits from available organizational resources. In other words, according to Grzywacz (2004), facilitation tends to occur because an individual is able to make use of the resources available in his or her social systems.

Certainly, the different perspectives and theories discussed above have provided a solid foundation to understand and explain facilitation. In addition, the idea of benefits through engaging in multiple roles is not new. In fact, there is sufficient evidence to suggest that such benefits do prevail. However, a solid theory explaining what facilitation is, and what are its probable antecedents still remains to be studied/developed (Frone, 2003). For example, neither the Ecological Systems theory nor the Conservation of Resources theory provides 'models' of

facilitation (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007). A guide to explain how the different variables in a facilitation model might interact is lacking. No comprehensive studies or perspectives were found that tried to include the different variables likely to influence facilitation. For example, what are the antecedents and how do they affect facilitation and how this, in turn, can lead to outcomes of organizational and personal interests.

In 2007, Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, and Kacmar integrated ideas from different theories that have attempted to explain work-family facilitation and proposed the so-called Resources-Gain-Development perspective. This perspective has its advantage over the previous approaches explaining work-family facilitation by providing a rather comprehensive framework to explain facilitation and also by identifying its primary antecedents, outcomes and probable moderators (Wayne, et al., 2007). More information on the Resources-Gain-Development perspective and how this perspective suitably forms the basis of this proposed study are detailed below.

Resources-Gain-Development Perspective (RGD)

The basic principle of this perspective is that people have a natural tendency to grow and achieve a high level of functioning not only for their own benefit but also for the sake of those systems in which they are a member, e.g. families and organizations (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007). This natural tendency for individuals to develop and achieve gains leads them toward those resources that assist them in development. In fact, it is highly likely that individuals try to make the best out of the resources available to them in order to have positive gains. Kirchmeyer (1982) had earlier argued that when people apply positive gains from one domain to another, it can often result in improved overall functioning. This assumption forms the basis of RGD and its hypothesis that facilitation is enabled by personal characteristics and environment characteristics (referred to henceforth as ‘organizational’ resources). These

resources, in turn, can contribute to developmental gains, affective gains, capital gains and efficiency gains in a domain that can improve functioning in another domain. In the next paragraphs, these different gains and resources in the RGD perspective are explained.

Developmental gains refer to acquiring new skills and perspectives as a result of being active in one domain. For example, an individual may learn new skills such as time-management at work which he/she will be able to practice in managing one's family role responsibilities more efficiently. Certainly, this could also occur in the opposite direction, where one's ability to juggle between different family responsibilities could be useful in the work place to deal with different work duties. The *affective gains* refer to positive emotions acquired in one domain and transferable to the other. For instance, an individual may learn to manage one's emotions in one's family life. This may later come in handy when the same individual has to be in control of his or her emotions at work. Or, the individual may learn to effectively deal with an irate employee at work, which might assist the individual to more successfully manage one's emotions while dealing with difficult family situations. The *capital gains* refer to earning social, health, or economic assets as a result of being involved in one domain which provide additional resources for the other domain. An example is an employee having good salary at work which can help him/her to provide more resources for the family. Or, an individual may have good social support system in his or her family, which can assist the individual in feeling more valued. He or she might also be able to offer good social support and advice to his or her colleagues at work. An individual with a strong social support at home is more likely to come to work feeling energetic.

Finally, the *efficiency gains* refer to being able to perform at a high level in one system, which can help improve one's functioning in another system. For instance, an individual may

learn to be efficient in juggling many responsibilities simultaneously in his or her family life. This individual may learn to practice similar efficiency in his or her work. The RGD perspective argues the gains obtained in one domain will help the individual to function better in other domains and, thus, leading to an overall improved facilitation in one's life.

Personal resources refer to one's personal characteristics, such as self-efficacy, that cause the individual to actively seek out and experience positive gains in a domain. Wayne et al. (2007) suggested that personal characteristics can promote positive experiences in one domain and also assist in 'gains' in one's overall facilitation in life. Thus, working in a supportive working environment can lead to more positive emotions about one's self. This can facilitate one's functioning in the other domain (i.e., non-work or family domain).

Similarly, the environmental resources (*organizational* resources) include energy resources, support resources, and condition resources that exist in the environment [of an organization]. Wayne et al. (2007) describe *energy resources* as characteristics of the job such as an 'interesting' or 'enriched' job, and one that provides adequate opportunities for the individual to grow. *Support resources* refer to support an employee receives from his/her supervisor, and the organization's family-friendly policies. Finally, the *condition resources* refer to characteristics such as job characteristics such as prestige of the job. The RGD perspective posit that organizational resources are important in that they can promote experiencing positive gains in a domain and in acquiring gains that can lead to better facilitation. In sum, Wayne et al. (2007) point out that both the organizational and personal resources can enable individuals to experience gains in one domain that help them to function more effectively in another domain (i.e. facilitation). Of course, certain characteristics called 'demand characteristics' (henceforth referred to as 'demographic factors') such as gender and social class may also play a role in this

equation. In other words, the RGD model acknowledges the role of moderators that can predict how much an individual may make use of environmental resources available. Lambert & Haley-Lock (2004) have noted that professionals tend to have more access to family supportive sources than non-professionals. Gender is another variable that is important to consider, according to the RGD model, as women are likely to readily use family-supportive resources when available. Thus, the RGD model proposes that 'demand characteristics' or 'demographic variables' of occupational status and gender might influence facilitation or might moderate the relationship between environmental resources and facilitation. Thus the role of moderator variables is stressed in the RGD model in two ways. One, these variables can influence the available of environmental resources and can influence the facilitation potential. Two, these demand characteristics can moderate the relationship between organizational factors and facilitation.

The RGD model also takes into account the outcomes that are possible because of facilitation in one domain. As mentioned earlier, most research on facilitation has looked at part of the whole process instead of providing an overall model or attempting to study factors that are not typically the tied to work and family conflict. In other words, research studies focusing on outcomes of work and family facilitation typically have looked at factors such as mental and physical health outcomes, which are commonly associated with work and family conflicts (Stephens & Franks, 1995). It is necessary that research starts to look also at variables that can affect one's performance or satisfaction in the other domain (Wayne et al., 2007). Eby et al.. (2005) had earlier alluded to the fact that studies on work and family should initiate focusing on variables that are at a higher level analysis. The RGD model also echoes this and suggests that work and family studies also provide information to human resources management practitioners on how to improve the overall functioning of their employees. For this to be achieved, one

should start to focus on those factors that can bring about an overall positive functioning in the work and non-work domains of individuals (Cameron et al., 2003). Finally, the RGD model stipulates that a positive outcome in one domain felt by the focal individual can also be felt by other individuals in the other domain. Using the empirical literature on the crossover notion, the RGD model emphasizes that positive functioning in one domain can lead to improved functioning of the individual in the other domain.

From these arguments, it follows that facilitation experienced by an employee, for instance, can also lead to his or her family members experiencing an improved overall functioning in the family domain. Vice versa, this suggests that a family member experiencing facilitation from family to work, can contribute to the organization or colleagues also experiencing an overall functioning in the work domain.

Finally, the RGD perspective stipulates that an individual's potential for facilitation is dependent on the quantity of resources the individual succeeds in accumulating. That is, "…the greater the overall accumulation of resources, the greater the potential for facilitation" (Wayne et al., 2007, *p*. 66). Work-family facilitation can be family-to-work facilitation, which refers to family providing gains that help functioning in the work domain, or it can be work-family facilitation, which refers to one's work life providing gains that assist functioning in one's family domain (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007). In other words, bi-directionality is also possible in work and family facilitation.

Researchers have found support for some of these arguments put forward by the RGD perspective. For example, Grzywacz and Butler (2005), and Voydanoff (2004) found that resources available in a domain can enable facilitation, and that work resources in particular can contribute to an employee experiencing benefits that can transfer from work to his or her family.

Compared to other theories and perspectives that have tried to explain the process of facilitation, the RGD perspective provides a much more detailed picture of how domain resources can possibly bring about facilitation. It brings home the point that work-family facilitation is a rather broad perspective, and not any one factor can be the sole focus of the study to understand the concept.

Although RGD offers a more well-rounded perspective as to why resources in a domain are important, no research has yet explored this perspective. This proposed research is an attempt to fill this gap and to test the propositions put forward by RGD theory. The study takes a step further by proposing and testing organizational outcomes. Below are further arguments as to why the proposed study needs to be undertaken.

Importance of the Proposed Study

As mentioned earlier, integrative and comprehensive models of work-family facilitation are lacking in the literature of work-family interface. Attempting to substitute models of work-family conflict with work-family facilitation will lead us to have wrong conclusions about work-family facilitation construct including its antecedents, outcomes and moderators. Frone (2003) has strongly advocated that it is important for research to broaden its outlook on the construct of work-family facilitation and study individual and organizational characteristics that improve one's control over one's work and family lives (leading to facilitation). Karatepe and Bekteshi (2008) reiterated this and further emphasized that it was time for research to take a broader approach and study both antecedents and consequences of work-family facilitation. They noted that, to enhance our understanding of work-family interface, variables such as job involvement, and dispositional personality variables should be included.

Further, the development and validation of a theoretically based model of work-family facilitation is much-needed (Wayne et al., 2004). Wayne et al.'s (2004) RGD model was an attempt to try to establish a theoretical model that could be empirically tested. In their study, these researchers expressed concern that it was unclear as to which specific resources related to the organization were important for work-family facilitation. Wayne et al. (2004) hoped that there would be future studies to initiate filling the gap. Likewise, research trying to understand individual characteristics moderating the capacity of jobs to bring about work-family facilitation is also warranted. Baltes and Heydens-Gahir (2003) found that one's cognitive attributes or behavioral attributes may assist individuals to derive more benefits from their jobs that can then be transferred to one's family life. Such arguments need to be empirically tested (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005).

Knowing that a large number of organizations are realizing the importance of being family-friendly and implementing similar policies, it is only appropriate that studies be conducted that help gain a more complete understanding of work-family balance (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). Such studies can assist organizations with the needed knowledge to design and implement more effective and efficient family-friendly policies which enable their employees to experience more work-family facilitation and balance.

This study will include two separate models, each to represent the direction of facilitation from one domain to the other. Thus, in model 1, the environment factor will be the organizational factor, the role of facilitation will be from one's work to family, and the outcomes will be variables of organizational interest. In model 2, the environment factor will be the non-work factor (family variable), the role of facilitation will be from one's family to work, and the

outcome variables will be of non-work/family interests. Personality factors will be introduced in both the models as moderators.

In accordance with the RGD model, work-family facilitation, will be introduced broadly in three ways – 1) to study the influence of organizational (work-related) and family factors (non-work related) on it, 2) to study the role of work-family facilitation in bringing about the outcomes, and 3) how these relationships are moderated by personality/individual factors. In the paragraphs below, the environmental factors, individual factors, and outcomes are discussed. We acknowledge that there are many different environmental factors and outcomes and moderators over and beyond what we have included in this study. However, this being the first study to test the RGD model, we are including the most important variable(s) in each domain, including the outcome and moderator variables, in order to not confound the results and their interpretations.

Organizational Environmental Factor in the RGD Model

The RGD model stresses the importance of including environmental factors in a model testing work-family facilitation. The construct we selected in the organizational environment domain was perceived organizational support. This is discussed below.

Perceived organizational support - Perceived organizational support (or POS) refers to employees' assessments about how much they think their organization cares about them (Eisenberger et al., 1986). POS measures employee's perceptions about how much their organization cares about their welfare and appreciates their contribution. Perceived organizational support is what the employees perceive their organization has done for them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). It refers to a social exchange relationship based on the principle of reciprocity between the organization and employees (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). Ideally, it follows that employees with higher POS

will feel obligated to work towards organizational objectives and goals (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999). Research conducted on perceived organizational support has shown extensive positive influences on employees (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Researchers such as Allen (2001) and Anderson et al. (2002) have argued that a supportive organizational culture was more important than merely having work-family programs in an organization without the support more readily felt by employees. A supportive work environment also tends to positively influence employee's attitudes toward their organization. It is an important resource that can lead to good individual and organizational results. Although, as Brough and Kelling (2002) note, research on different sources of social support and their effectiveness are fairly new, the results so far have been encouraging. For instance, social support has been found to reduce turnover and boost job satisfaction (Eisenberger, Stinglahamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Perrewe & Carlson, 2002).

In accordance with RGD perspective and prior research, the current research expects to find a significant relationship between this organizational factor and work-family facilitation (hypothesis 1).

Family Environmental Factor in the RGD Model

Family Environment Factor -- The family variable we chose to be included in this study was the support an individual receives from his or her family and friends. Namayandeh, Yaacob, & Juhari (2010) had noted that having family support can ease work and family conflict. House (1981) had discussed the importance of emotional and instrumental support that is important to employed individuals. Emotional support involves love and empathy from individuals including one's family and friends, while instrumental support involves money and other services that can help employed individuals (House, 1981). A study by Kim and Ling (2001) found that spousal

support led to reduced work-family conflicts. Similar results have been found Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), Aryee (1992), Thomas and Ganster (1995), Carlson and Perrewe (1999), Michael, Brough, and Kalliath (2004), and Namayandeh, Yaacob, & Juhari (2010). Rastegarkhaled (2004) also found similar results on the role of family support on individuals who are employed. Specifically, they found that providing support in the family domain for women was significantly associated with them experiencing lesser conflicts.

Namayandeh, Yaacob, & Juhari (2010), through their study on support in the family domain and its influence on work life suggested that increasing support in the family domain can help to reduce the negative impact of work life in one's personal/non-work life. On the basis of these findings, we decided to include 'family and friends support' as the environment variable in the non-work domain. In accordance with RGD perspective and prior research, the current research expects to find a significant relationship between this non-work environment factor and family-work facilitation (hypothesis 2).

Based on the spillover model, we expect to find a significant relationship between work-family facilitation and family-work facilitation (hypothesis 3)

Individual Factors (Personality Factors) in the RGD Model

Following the RGD model, environmental factors alone cannot bring about outcomes that will help individuals to function effectively in an environment. Personal resources (or, individual factors) also are necessary to individuals' self-development. A combination of both the organizational and personal resources enables individuals to experience gains in one domain and successfully transfer that to another, thus bringing about facilitation. Again, it is not possible to provide an exhaustive review of all the possible individual factors that exist in the literature to be included here or discussed here. What this study has instead done is to follow the suggestions of

RGD perspective as closely as possible and include those variables that literature tends to suggest as most relevant. The individual factors included in this study are discussed below:

Generalized Self-efficacy - Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's ability to perform a specific or a particular task successfully (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007), whereas generalized self-efficacy is how well an individual can perform across a variety of situations (Smith, 1989). This concept helps to explain human behaviors in a wide range of situations or when focusing on a wide range of behaviors simultaneously (Luszczynska, Gibbons, Piko, & Tekozel, 2004). Judge et al. (1998) noted that those with generalized self-efficacy should be able to deal more effectively with difficulties that they might face in their work. Similar arguments have been raised by other researchers including Gist and Mitchell (1992) that those with higher generalized self-efficacy are more likely to persist in face of failure or setbacks at work. Goldstein and Ford (2002) refer to self-efficacy as an important factor in performance. Judge and Bono (2001) also argue for the role of self-efficacy in determining success at work.

Based on the above research, it is hypothesized that generalized self-efficacy will result in work and family facilitation, bi-directionally (hypothesis 4a and 4b). In other words, the extent to which an individual may experience facilitation from one's work to family can be moderated by his or her extent of self-efficacy (hypothesis 4a). Similarly, the extent to which an individual may experience facilitation from one's family to work can also be moderated by his or her extent of self-efficacy (hypothesis 4b).

Coping Skills: Coping was initially studied in clinical settings. In psychological terms, Lazarus is probably the first researcher who studied the concept in detail. He defines coping as the process of managing demands that are considered as taxing or exceeding the resources available to the individual (Lazarus, 1981). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) had identified two types

of coping strategies, which are emotion-focused and problem-focused. A person who tends to adopt emotion-focused strategy tries to reduce emotional distress by managing emotions through cognitive manipulations (Korabik, Lero, & Whitehead, 2008). On the other hand, those using problem-focused coping strategy try to resolve the problems by finding the cause of the problem and try to solve it (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In their research, Koeske, Kirk, and Koeske (1993) found that problem-focused coping strategies tended to be most effective because of psychological control and confidence that problems can be solved. Similar arguments have been put forward by other researchers, including Bernas and Major (2000). In general, good coping strategies have been found to moderate the impact of stress on one's well-being (Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, 1999).

On the basis of these empirical findings, we hypothesis that coping skills can play a role in an individual experiencing work and family facilitation. In other words, the extent to which an individual may experience facilitation from one's work to family can be moderated by his or her coping skills (hypothesis 5a). Similarly, the extent to which an individual may experience facilitation from one's family to work can also be moderated by his or her extent of coping skills (hypothesis 5b).

Outcomes of Organizational Interest included in the RGD Model

One of the arguments of this research is that work-to-family facilitation can improve employee's experience with a variety of variables that are important to the organization. For example, employees' intention to leave the organization is something that an organization has to be concerned about. Again, an organization wants to increase or sustain the employees' commitment to it. Hence, this study has included a few variables that are predicted as highly influenced by work-family facilitation. These variables are discussed below.

Job Satisfaction –Job satisfaction of employees is important for an organization in order to reduce or avoid employees from leaving their jobs (Clark, 2001). Koys (2001) also point to the importance of maintaining employee's job satisfaction because a happy and satisfied employee is more likely to be productive than dissatisfied employee. Further, job satisfaction has been shown to be important for employees to maintain a good emotional health and overall satisfaction in their work domain (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005). Adams, King and King (1996), in their study, showed that one's work and family relationship has a significant effect on his or her levels of job satisfaction. These researchers also concluded that family support can reduce family interfering with one's work. Bruck, Allen and Spector (2002) had also pointed out that work interfering with one's family commitments can actually take away an individual's satisfaction in his or work. Irrespective of cultural background, strain-based work and family tensions have been found to result in reduced job satisfaction and higher intentions to leave one's job (Spector, Allen, Pelman, Lapierre, et al., 2007). A positive organizational atmosphere can help employees feel less overwhelmed by their work responsibilities which, in turn, can play a role in feeling satisfied in one's job as well as motivated (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Lu, Kao, Chang, Wu, & Cooper, 2008). In the light of all these empirical evidence and based on what the RGD model had proposed, we hypothesize that work-to-family facilitation will result in employees reporting more satisfaction with their jobs (hypothesis 6).

Turnover Intentions – Small amounts of organizational turnover are unavoidable (sometimes, even desirable); however, a large amount of voluntary turnover can be detrimental to the overall effectiveness of an organization (Smith & Brough, 2003). Although intentions and actual behavior are two different aspects, research has shown that intentions can be an immediate precursor to actual behavior (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Research on turnover has shown that,

generally, female employees and unmarried employees showed more tendencies to leave their job (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Mano-Negrin and Kirschenbaum (2002) suggested that turnover intentions and behaviors are highly influenced by work-related factors. Keller (1984) had found that a person's intention to leave his or her work can often predict turnover. In his research, 'intentions to leave' was significantly related to job satisfaction (r = -.23). Similar results were also put forward by Blau (2000). Organizations with a more supportive atmosphere can help employees balance their multiple roles (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). In such cases, the employees are less likely to leave the organizations. Enhancing employee job outcomes, including reduced turnover, can benefit the organizational as well in the long run with lesser employees actually deciding to quit their jobs (Allen, 2001; O'Leary & Deegan, 2005; Stalcup & Pearson, 2001). A similar notion was proposed by Munck (2001) and also by Behson (2005) who suggested formal practices in the organization would help employees balance their dual responsibilities. In addition, such formal practices can also enhance employees' perception of their organizations as supportive of their non-work responsibilities (Casper & Buffardi, 2004). Based on this empirical evidence and on the RGD model, it is hypothesized that work-to-family facilitation will result in lower intentions to leave the job (hypothesis 7). In other words, it is expected that there will be a negative relationship between work-family facilitation and turnover, such that the more facilitation employees experience from work to family, the lesser their inclinations will be to quit their jobs.

Outcomes of Interest in the Non-Work Domain Included in the RGD Model

The RGD model also suggests that facilitation from one's work to family can improve one's functioning in the family domain. This can be felt not only by the individual but also by other members in the non-work domain. For instance, facilitation experienced in one's non-work

domain can enable the individual to give more time and attention to his or her family life and, thus, bringing about satisfaction in one's personal life. Based on this reasoning, we decided to include two outcome variables to be studied in the family domain.

Life Satisfaction – Life satisfaction involves one's assessment about one's life which can range from negative to positive (Diner, 1984). It involves how one feels about one's overall wellbeing. Life satisfaction is often studied in work-family research as an outcome variable (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000). As most research on work and family have focused on the 'conflict' aspect, the majority of studies that included life satisfaction were focusing on the variable from a conflict perspective, i.e., the role of work and family conflict or vice versa on one's life satisfaction. Similar to the research findings on job satisfaction, studies on work and family conflict have consistently found a negative relationship between all the three types of work and family conflict and one's life satisfaction (Koseek & Ozeki, 1998). Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2005) and Mazerolle, Bruening, Casa, & Burton (2008) reported similar results. Allen et al. (2000) had noted that of all the non-work variables studied in their relationship to conflict between one's work and family domains, life satisfaction has emerged as having one of the strongest relationships. This tends to make sense as one's assessment of quality of life is related to not having any negative feelings or attitudes (Zammuner, Lotto, & Galli, 2002). In other words, an individual who is emotionally tired from experiencing conflict in the work or family domain is likely to report lower life satisfaction. In their studies on emotional labor and its impact on life satisfaction, Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001), and Lee & Ashforth (1993) have noted similar results. Further, Kossek and Ozeki (1998) noted that this negative relationship tend to be stronger for women than men.

Few studies (for example, Beutell, 2005; Hill, 2005) have looked at whether family to work facilitation can bring about overall life satisfaction. If multiple roles are beneficial, then one can hypothesize that work and family synergy can lead to positive outcomes, including life satisfaction. Though it is suggested that family to work facilitation can be influenced by family environment, little research has examined this proposition and especially how that in turn can result in life satisfaction and personal life satisfaction. Further, it is important to study about life satisfaction in the research involving work and family paradigm as research has recently noted that a happy worker is productive not only because of his or her job satisfaction (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), but also because of his or her overall life satisfaction (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000).

As had been mentioned earlier, studies on the positive outcomes in the work and family domain have been overshadowed by the 'conflict' paradigm. More studies attempting to understand the actual outcome of work and family facilitation are needed as absence of work and family conflict need not mean that facilitation exists (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Thus, it is hypothesized that family to work facilitation can lead to overall life satisfaction (hypothesis 8).

Personal Relationship satisfaction – This variable was included as research shows satisfaction in personal relationships can also predict one's satisfaction with his or her overall life. For instance, Kang, Shaver, Sue, Min and Jing (2003) argued that individuals in collectivistic cultures tend to report more life satisfaction than individuals in individualistic cultures. One explanation is that people in collectivistic cultures have relatively more social support and avenues to feel loved. It should be argued that regardless of cultural background, close relationships are important for individuals in nearly all societies (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002). Quality of life is also determined by satisfaction in one's interpersonal

relationships (Diener & Diener, 1995). Barnett (1998) noted that conflict between work and family domains can lead to relationship issues in one's personal life. From that perspective, facilitation is more likely to bring about rewards in one's personal lives as well. In fact, in a later study, Barnett and Hyde (2001) documented that engaging in work and family roles can bring about rewards, including better relationships, which outweigh any costs involved in engaging in multiple roles. The lack of appropriate research on work and family facilitation areas makes it difficult to make strong assumptions about how facilitation between work and family domains influences outcomes in both areas. Frone (2003) had suggested that facilitation occurring in one's family domain may bring about results in the work domain and vice versa. However, Wayne, Musisca and Fleeson (2004) tend to suggest that facilitation occurring in family domain tend to show its positive impact directly on variables in the family domain. If that is the case, then facilitation occurring in the family domain will show its impact on variables such as personal relationship satisfaction. Therefore, we hypothesize that family-work facilitation will show a positive impact on one's personal relationship satisfaction (hypothesis 9).

Below is the summary of hypotheses included in this study.

Summary of Hypotheses

1) Hypothesis 1 – it is hypothesized that there will be a significant and positive relationship between the work environment variable, perceived organizational support and work-family facilitation.

2) Hypothesis 2 – it is hypothesized that there will be a significant and positive relationship between the non-work environment variable, family and friends' support, and family-work facilitation.

3) Hypothesis 3 – it is hypothesized that there will be a significant and positive relationship between work-family facilitation and family-work facilitation.

4) Hypothesis 4a – it is hypothesized that the personality variable of self-efficacy will moderate work-to-family facilitation.

Hypothesis 4b – it is hypothesized that the personality variable of self-efficacy will moderate family-to-work facilitation.

5) Hypothesis 5a – it is hypothesized that the personality variable of coping skills will moderate work-to-family facilitation.

Hypothesis 5b – it is hypothesized that the personality variable of coping skills will moderate family-to-work facilitation.

6) Hypothesis 6 – it is hypothesized that work-family facilitation will show a significant and positive relationship with job satisfaction.

7) Hypothesis 7 – it is hypothesized that work-family facilitation will show a significant and negative relationship with employees' intentions to leave their job.

8) Hypothesis 8 – it is hypothesized that family-work facilitation will show a significant and positive relationship with ones' overall life satisfaction.

9) Hypothesis 9 – it is hypothesized that family-work facilitation will show a significant and positive relationship with ones' satisfaction in personal relationship.

Chapter 2 - Method

Participants

Participants included 534 academic faculty members from four universities across the mid-west United States. Participants at Kansas State University were identified using the services of the Office of Information Technology. Participants in the remaining three institutions were identified using contacts in those institutions. A separate survey link was electronically sent to each school. The survey was comprised of demographic items, work and family facilitation scales, two personality measures, work and non-work environment variables and outcome variables (see Appendix A for a complete copy of the survey). More information about the scales used is provided below.

Materials

Perceived Organizational Support – Perceived organizational support was measured using the 8-item scale created by Eisenberger, Huntington, Huntington, and Sowa (1986). The scale was measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). A sample item was 'My organization really cares about my wellbeing.'

Family and Friends' Support – Family and friend's support scale was measured using the 5 –item scale created by Greenglass, Fiskenbaum, and Burke (1995). This scale was measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). A sample item was 'People in my personal life generally understand the way I feel about things.'

Generalized Self-Efficacy – Generalized self-efficacy was measured using the 10-item scale developed by Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1995). The scale was measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). A sample item was 'I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort."

Coping Skills – Coping skills was measured using Endler and Parker's (1990) multi-dimensional coping inventory. The scale was measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). This inventory measures three types of coping – emotion-oriented, task-oriented, and avoidance-oriented. An example of 'emotion-oriented' coping is 'tend to blame myself for procrastinating;' example of 'task-oriented' is 'outline my priorities;' and that of 'avoidance-oriented' is 'tend to treat myself to a favorite food or snack.'

Work-Family Facilitation – Work-family facilitation was assessed using a 6-item scale developed by Wayne, Randel and Stevens (2006). This scale was also measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). A sample item from this scale was 'Having a good day on my job makes me a better family member when I get home."

Family-Work facilitation – Family-work facilitation was assessed using a 3-item scale originally developed and tested by Wayne, Musisca and Fleeson (2004). The scale was measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree). A sample item from this scale was 'My personal life helps me relax and feel ready for the next day's work.'

Turnover Intentions – Turnover intentions was measured using a 3-item scale developed by O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994). This scale was also measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). A sample item was 'I plan to look for a new job within the next 12 month.'

Job Satisfaction – Job satisfaction was assessed using the 5-item scale developed by Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger (1998). This scale measures job satisfaction on a 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). A sample item was 'I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.'

Personal Relationship Satisfaction – Personal relationship satisfaction was measured using Deiner, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin's (1985) overall life satisfaction scale with necessary rewordings. Thus, the words 'overall life satisfaction' was reworded to 'personal relationship satisfaction.' This scale, consisting of five items, was measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). A sample item was 'I am satisfied with my personal relationship life.'

Overall Life Satisfaction –Overall life satisfaction was measured using Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin's (1985) scale. This scale, consisting of five items, was measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). A sample item was 'The conditions of my life in general are excellent.'

Procedure

The data were collected using online survey that was created using the Axio survey system of Kansas State University. The survey also included brief information about the purpose and the nature of research. Consistent with IRB requirements, the participants were informed of their rights to decide to not participate in the survey if they desired or to stop at any time without any penalty. All respondents were also assured of anonymity of their responses. They were also clearly asked if they desire to participate in the survey and, if so, to proceed into taking the actual survey questions. The second section of the survey included questions from different scales and demographic questions. Two email reminders, one after two weeks of sending the survey link and the other after four weeks of sending the survey link, were sent to the participants requesting them to complete the survey if they had not done so yet.

Analysis

The data were first examined to see if there were any discrepancies. Visual scans of data plots, means, standard deviations, scale minimum and maximum values, skewness and kurtosis were used for this purpose. Of the 602 participants who submitted the survey online, only 534 submissions were considered for all the statistical analysis. This final data from 534 individuals conformed to the appropriate minimum and maximum values for all the scales used in the research study. Both skewness and kurtosis were within the normal limits for all Likert items.

The SAS program was used to conduct a series of multivariate analyses to see if the demographic variables included in the study would show a significant relationship to the main variables in the study. For example, the demographic variables of gender, relationship status, and length of service were analyzed, in SAS, to see if they would significantly predict the main variables, such as job satisfaction. More details are provided in the 'results' section.

Structural equation modeling was used to examine the fit of the various models. Hu and Bentler (1999) and Byrne (2001) have suggested using a variety of absolute and comparative fit indices when assessing the fit of models. This research employed the chi-square statistic ($\chi 2$), the root mean square estimate of approximation (RMSEA), the goodness of fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), and the comparative fit index (CFI). A value of less than .08 for RMSEA and values exceeding .95 for GFI, AGFI, and CFI were used (Hu &Bentler, 1999) in determining a good fitting model. Byrne (2001) reported that non-significant chi-square statistics indicate a good fitting model, since chi-square statistics are sensitive to small sample sizes (Byrne, 2001), the other fit indices were used to assess the fit of the proposed models. However, the chi-square statistic was used to compare the various models. Further, when

modification indices were used, the accepted modifications were those that were not only theoretically appropriate but also resulted in the greatest drop in the chi-square statistic (Byrne, 2001).

Chapter 3 - Results

The survey was accessed by 893 participants across the four universities. However, only 602 participants actually completed and submitted the survey online. Of these, 68 submissions were incomplete and had to be dropped from analysis. Thus, 534 submissions were considered for further statistical analysis: an effective response rate of sixty percent.

The final participants, who were academic faculty from four different universities, and who were included in the analysis of this study, included 54% males and 46% females. Ninety nine percent of the faculty members were full-time faculty members. Nearly 94% of the final sample was faculty in schools that offered Doctoral degrees. Approximately 95% of the respondents were academic faculty members of higher educational institutions with enrolment over 20,000. Around 80% of the respondents reported being in a committed relationship, while 13% reported were single and living alone. Of the 534 respondents, 61% of the respondents reported having no children. Of the 534 academic faculty members, 248 identified themselves as serving as a faculty member for over 15 years, 106 between 5 and 15 years, 143 between 2 and 5 years, and the remaining 37 serving as academic faculty for less than 2 years. Table 1 provides detailed information on all the demographic variables.

The means, standard deviations, reliability, and inter-correlations for all the main variables, excluding the demographic variables, are reported in Table 2. As is reported in Table 2, all the scales had reliability at or above .70.

It was first important to see if any of these demographic variables were related to the main variables. A correlation analysis conducted between the demographic and the main variables yielded very few significant results. Using this information and from an intuitive

standpoint, I decided to conduct analysis on some of the demographic variables and their possible relationship on the main variables, as detailed below.

Since the sample was academic faculty members from different universities, it is likely that each university has its own unique work environment. A General Linear Model was conducted with university as the independent variable. The dependent variables were all the variables included in this study. It was found that the school which a faculty member was associated with did not influence any of the dependent variables (see Table 3). As gender is often considered as one of the demographic variables likely to cause a difference in research, another General Linear Model analysis was conducted to explore this in the study. In other words, we wanted to test if gender would cause a difference in our main variables. Again, no evidence was found that gender was a demographic variable that could result in a difference in the results, except in the case of satisfaction in personal relationships (see Table 4). Since the sample of this study was academic faculty in tenure track positions or already tenured, it was decided to see if the relationship on the main variable would differ by the length of service the faculty provided. It was found that length of service predicted turnover intentions, life satisfaction and personal relationship satisfaction (see Table 5). Of these, turnover intentions were higher for the group that included academic faculty with service years above 2 years and less than 15 years. Due to these reasons, 'length of service' was included in the model that was tested.

All of the nine hypotheses were tested through structural equation modeling. First, the Resources-Gain-Development model (the RGD model) was drawn using AMOS software (see Figure 1). Two criteria were included to assess the fit of the model to the data. To assess the overall fit of the model to the data, chi-square statistics and the different fit indices were considered (Hu & Bentler, 1999). A significant chi-square statistic indicates a lack of fit of the

model. However, chi-square is very sensitive to sample size. Therefore, other measures of fit were also considered to assess the overall fit of the model. These include the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Of these, special attention is given to CFI and RMSEA values as they are less sensitive to sample size. A CFI cut off value of .90 and an RMSEA value less than or equal to .05 are considered as a good fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). While .10 is sometimes considered as an acceptable fit value of RMSEA, researchers such as Hu and Bentler (1995) had considered an RMSEA less than or equal to .08 as an adequate fit. A value of at least .90 is considered as a good fit for GFI and AGFI (Byrne, 2001), while Hu and Bentler (1995) suggest that .95 or above is a good fit.

The following were considered as the hypothesized model was tested using Structural Equation Modeling. Besides the individual fit indices, the size of the path coefficients was also evaluated. Their value (i.e., the magnitude) and direction were considered to see if they predicted the hypothesized constructs significantly or not, and whether they were in the direction it was predicted. The paths were considered as a good fit when the probability value was less than .05 ($p = <.05$). AMOS software, on which the model was tested, provides modification indices for each path drawn in the model (Springer & Hauser, 2002). The modification indices provided information on the degree to which the overall chi-square of the model would be reduced if the variables were allowed to correlate. These indices were also examined to see whether any adjustments should be made to the existing model to improve the overall fit of the model. In other words, when the models were not a good fit, individual paths were examined to see if the fit could be improved by following the adjustments recommended by the modification indices.

Only those adjustments that lowered the chi-square, improved the fit, and made sense theoretically were made.

The basic assumption of the model (Model 1) was that work and non-work variables can lead to facilitation in both work and non-work domains respectively. This facilitation can lead to certain outcomes in both work and non-work domains. Personality factors can potentially moderate how an individual experiences facilitation in the work or non-work domain.

Model-1 had a poor fit ($\chi 2$ = 1293.79, *df* = 287, *RMR* = .29, *GFI* = .65, *AGFI* = .45, *RMSEA* = .24, TLI = .09, *CFI* = .31), and thus the original RGD model was not supported. Based on the modification indices, adjustments to the model were made by correlating error terms between perceived organizational support and job satisfaction, perceived organizational support and turnover intentions, and life satisfaction and personal relationship satisfaction (Figure 2). This improved the fit of the model, but it was still a poor fit ($\chi 2$ = 824.61, *df* = 109, *RMR* = .23, *GFI* = .76, *AGFI* = .59, *RMSEA* = .19, TLI = .39, *CFI* = .57). The fit indices and regression weights of the original and the final Model-1 are reported in Tables 6 and 7 respectively.

Surprisingly, the proposed relationships between the two individual variables (i.e., coping and self-efficacy) to the two facilitation variables were found to be non-significant and hence dropped from subsequent analyses. Additionally, modification indices further suggested a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions such that job satisfaction accounted significantly for an academic faculty members' intention to quit their jobs. This significant path was therefore retained in Model-2. A final path diagram depicting the hypothesized Model-2 can be seen on Figure-3.

Model 2 hypothesized that perceived organizational support would lead to work-family facilitation which, in turn, would lead to higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions.

Additionally, job satisfaction was predicted to directly lead to lower turnover intentions. Similarly, in the non-work domain, Model 2 predicted that support from one's family and friends would lead to family-work facilitation. This would result in higher life satisfaction and satisfaction in one's personal relationships. The variable, length of service was retained to turnover intentions, life satisfaction, and personal relationship satisfaction. Neither of the personality variables was included in Model 2.

Upon analysis, it was found that Model 2 was not a good fit ($\chi 2$ = 386.04, *df* = 78, *RMR* = .21, *GFI* = .87, *AGFI* = .75, *RMSEA* = .17, *TLI* = .63, *CFI* = .76). The modification indices were consulted to see where the fit of the data to the model could be improved. The error terms between the variables, family support and personal relationship satisfaction were correlated (Figure 4). This improved the fit slightly ($\chi 2$ = 271.92, *df* = 68, *RMR* = .18, *GFI* = .90, *AGFI* = .80, *RMSEA* = .15, *TLI* = .73, *CFI* = .84). A series of analyses were conducted to arrive at an optimum fit of Model 2 to the data.

An optimum fit of Model-2 to the data was obtained when there was interconnection in the outcomes between the work and non-work domains, when a direct relationship between family support and life satisfaction was established, when the link between work-family facilitation and turnover intentions were removed, when a direct path from personal relationship to life satisfaction was established, and when the proposed correlations between length of service and outcome variables in the non-work domain were removed (see Figure 5). These adjustments provided a good fit of the model with the data ($\chi 2$ = 99.41, *df* = 22, *RMR* = .08, *GFI* = .96, *AGFI* = .91, *RMSEA* = .07, *TLI* = .91, *CFI* = .95). The fit indices and regression weights of the original and the final, revised Model-2 are reported in Tables 8 and 9 respectively.

The final Model-2 provides the following results (reported in Tables 8 and 9).

First, in the work domain, the organizational environment variable of perceived organizational support was found significant in predicting work-family facilitation which, in turn, predicted job satisfaction. Unlike what we expected, work-family facilitation did not directly predicted turnover intentions, but only through job satisfaction.

Second, in the non-work domain, the environment variable of family and friends' support significantly predicted family-work facilitation. Friends' and family support also significantly predicted overall life satisfaction, one of the outcome variables in the non-work domain. Family-work facilitation acted as the mediator in predicting overall general life satisfaction and satisfaction in one's personal relationship.

Third, no overlap was found between the environment variables or between the facilitation variables in the work and non-work domains. However, significant and interesting overlaps were found between the variables in the work and non-work domains at the outcome levels. Thus, one of the outcome variables in the work domain, 'turnover intentions' were predicted not only by job satisfaction, an outcome variable in the work domain, but also by personal relationship satisfaction, an outcome variable in the non-work domain. Job satisfaction, an outcome variable in the work domain also predicted overall life satisfaction, one of the outcome variables in the non-work domain. Overall life satisfaction was also predicted by another outcome variable in the non-work domain, personal relationship satisfaction.

Finally, the demographic variable, 'length of service' was found significant only for predicting turnover intentions, and not for any of the two outcome variables in the non-work domain as previously hypothesized. Thus the variable, length of service, was found to have no significance in predicting satisfaction in one's personal relationship or in one's overall life satisfaction.

In a purely exploratory fashion, another model was also tested to see its fit to the data. This model, Model-3 (see Figure 6) had the two individual variables of Coping and Self-efficacy connected directly to the all the four outcome variables. This was done to explore if personality variables exert a difference at the outcome levels instead of at the facilitation levels, which was what was originally proposed. Slight modifications were made by correlating some error terms between the two personality variables (see Figure 7). The model, provided a weak fit to the data ($\chi 2$ = 192.40, *df* = 42, *RMR* = .11, *GFI* = .94, *AGFI* = .88, *TLI* = .86, *RMSEA* = .09, *CFI* = .92). The fits indices for Model 3 were not within the accepted range, except for GFI. While the personality variable of self-efficacy was significantly related to all the outcome variables, except for 'personal relationship satisfaction,' the personality variable of coping was significant only to job satisfaction (see Figure 8). The regression weights of the final Model-3 are reported in Table 10. Both the personality variables we introduced in Model 3 were not significant in bringing about the outcomes in the work and non-work domain. Considering all these factors, we consider Model 2 as the final model accepted. The regression weights of this final model, model-2, are reported in Figure 9.

Summary of Findings for Each Hypothesis

Hypothesis 1 – it was hypothesized that there will be a significant and positive relationship between the work environment variable, perceived organizational support and work-family facilitation. This hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 2 – it was hypothesized that there will be a significant and positive relationship between the non-work environment variable, family and friends' support, and

family-work facilitation. This hypothesis was supported. In addition, family and friend's support also shows a significant and positive relationship in bringing about overall life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3 – it was hypothesized that there will be a significant and positive relationship between work-family facilitation and family-work facilitation. This hypothesis was not supported. No overlap was found at the facilitation level between one's work and non-work domain.

Hypothesis 4a – it was hypothesized that the personality variable of self-efficacy will moderate work-to-family facilitation. This hypothesis was not supported. Self-efficacy did not show any impact in bringing about work-family facilitation.

Hypothesis 4b – it was hypothesized that the personality variable of self-efficacy will moderate family-to-work facilitation. This hypothesis was not supported. Similar to hypothesis results 4a, self-efficacy was not significant in bringing about family-work facilitation.

Hypothesis 5a – it was hypothesized that the personality variable of coping skills will moderate work-to-family facilitation. This hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 5b – it was hypothesized that the personality variable of coping skills will moderate family-to-work facilitation. This hypothesis was not supported. No evidence was found to support the hypotheses that the personality variable, 'coping skills,' could moderate facilitation from one's work to non-work domains or vice versa.

Hypothesis 6 – it was hypothesized that work-family facilitation will show a significant and positive relationship with job satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 7 – it was hypothesized that work-family facilitation will show a significant and negative relationship with employees' intentions to leave their job. This hypothesis was not supported. Work-family facilitation had no direct influence in reducing the turnover intentions of

academic faculty, but it was mediated through job satisfaction of academic faculty. The demographic variable, 'length of service' was also found to be significantly related to turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 8 – it was hypothesized that family-work facilitation will show a significant and positive relationship with ones' overall life satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported. In addition, job satisfaction also had a significant and positive relationship in predicting one's overall life satisfaction

Hypothesis 9 – it was hypothesized that family-work facilitation will show a significant and positive relationship with ones' satisfaction in personal relationship. This hypothesis was supported.

Chapter 4 - Discussion

There is no shortage of research talking about family and work domains conflicts that can originate in one domain and its implications on the other domain. Recent studies have encouraged researchers to start focusing also on the positive facilitation aspects between the two domains. Research on work and family domains have started to identify the antecedents, the moderators and the outcomes with respect to facilitation rather than conflict.

This research had four main goals. One was to study if environment factors in the work and non-work domain could lead to facilitation originating in one domain and ending in the other. The second goal was to test if facilitation in one domain can spill over to the other domain directly, without or in addition to expressing itself in the outcome variables pertaining to each domain. The third goal was to study the role of individual or personality factors in leading to facilitation in the work and non-work domains. The fourth goal was to study the role of facilitation variables in bringing about certain outcomes in the work and non-work domain. The findings from this study for each of these goals will be discussed below.

As mentioned above, the first goal of this study was to see if environment factors can lead to facilitation in the work and family domains. We introduced the environment factors of 'perceived organizational support' in the work domain, and 'family and friends' support' in the non-work domain in order to see if these two variables could lead to work-family facilitation and family-work facilitation respectively.

In general, perceived organizational support has been shown to lead to results supporting its role in the workplace (Eisenberger, Huntington, Huntington, & Sowa, 1986). This includes the finding that employees happy with their organization being willing to pay back to their organization in the forms of commitment and positive mood (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The importance of organizational support has been documented by Shore and Shore (1995) who, through their research, found that it was what employees interpret about their organization's actions (e.g., caring) that would affect their behavior. In fact, Shore and Shore (1995) argued that perceived organizational support influenced employees' attitudes and behaviors more than organizational justice.

Our results confirmed that perceived organizational support predicts facilitation from one's work domain to their family domain. This is encouraging as it drives home the importance of organizations offering venues of support for their employees. Organizational support need not be in the form of tangible benefits alone. In fact, the affective feeling that their organization cares for them is as equally important to employees as the tangible benefits they receive from their organizations (Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley & Luk, 2001). Therefore, having a supportive work culture enables employees to openly discuss work related or non-work related issues with their colleagues and supervisors. If needed, they can make adjustments to their work schedule without fear of negative repercussion. Organizational support theory, commonly used to discuss perceived organizational support, suggests that employees tend to attribute humanlike characteristics to their organization (Eisenberger, et al, 1986). This personification leads employees to view favorable or unfavorable treatment by the organization as an indication of the degree to which their organization cares for them (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Thus, being fair in their dealings with employees (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991), supervisor support (Yoon & Lim, 1999), job conditions such as autonomy and security (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and organizational rewards all can contribute to the employees feeling that their organization cares for them.

The scale used to measure perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986), asked questions on how much the employees believe their organization valued their contributions and cared about their wellbeing. Although there was no question directly tapping into employee's believing their organization was family-friendly in perceived organizational support, we found a significant relationship between it and facilitation occurring from work to family. This tends to suggest that when employees are happy and satisfied in their work, they tend to more efficiently perform their family responsibilities. On the basis of spillover model, emotions in one domain can carry over to another domain. Earlier, we noted that being satisfied in one's work domain can enable an individual to also be a better individual at home. With specific reference to our sample in this study, we argue that feeling their academic department cares about their work life and contribution at work can provide them with a sense of purpose in their lives. They feel valued in their work domain. Work life can thus provide a background to efficiently perform one's family responsibilities much better. It is possible that the sample in our study, by the nature of their jobs, tend to have more control in their jobs. It is also necessary that employees (i.e., the faculty) feel they can make use of the organizational culture of providing support to the faculty in terms of flexibility in their jobs and providing faculty with a sense of feeling that the organization cares for their wellbeing. All these can contribute to the faculty feeling more satisfied at work which enables them to be a better person in their family responsibilities.

In the family domain, we introduced the variable, 'family and friend's support' as the environment factor to study its role in providing facilitation in one's family life that carries over to one's work life. The role of social support, including emotional and instrumental support, to employed individuals had been documented in research (for example, see Namayandeh, Yaacob,

& Juhari, 2010). We found that family and friends' support can lead to facilitation in one's family life that can be evident in one's work life as well. A supportive spouse or partner and friends can help the academic faculty with emotional support and encouragement in their lives. This satisfaction in one's non-work life can help an individual feel energized and ready to meet the needs and demands of work life. Having friends to openly discuss work issues also provides a sense of satisfaction in one's non-work life. It is not surprising that, at the end of a long and tiring day at work, individuals look forward to go home or to spend some time in the company of trusted friends to unwind. The role of family and friend's support in reducing an individual's stress level is not minimal. Research has suggested the role of family support in avoiding conflicts and improving the work behaviors of individuals (Rastegarkhaled, 2004).

In addition to the role of family support leading to facilitation from one's family to work, we also found that family and friends' support also leads directly to overall life satisfaction. Although we had not hypothesized, this result is not surprising. The role of family and friends in one's overall life satisfaction is important. Diener, Suh, Lucas, and Smith (1999) talked about life satisfaction as individual's cognitive appraisal of one's subjective wellbeing, and commonly used as an indicator of overall wellbeing. It relates to one's satisfaction with both intra- and inter-personal outcomes (Gilman & Huebner, 2000). Weiss (1974) had conceptualized social support as capable of leading to: timely guidance, attachment, and reassurance of worth. From this angle, having a supportive network of friends and family members can go a long way in ensuring overall life satisfaction. The relationship between family and friends' support and overall life satisfaction could be the result of a variety of factors that are possible through supportive social network, including more optimism, goal-striving, and improved marital quality (Diener & Suh, 2000).

The second goal of the study was to see if facilitation in one domain could spillover to the other domain directly. In other words, we wanted to test whether there is a direct relationship between the two facilitation domains. While testing the model, the results did not indicate any connection at the facilitation level. None of the modification indices indicated a direct link between the facilitation variables (or between the environment variables) in both domains. This indicated that facilitation occurred at the outcome level and not at the facilitation level. This expression can be in the form of observable behavior such as being more energetic at work or openly talking about one's organization as supportive. It can also be in the form of emotions or feelings, experienced in ways such as being more satisfied in the personal relationships one is in or in the overall sense of satisfaction in one's life.

The third goal of this research was to see if personality or individual factors play a moderating role in work-to-family facilitation and vice versa. Personality factors naturally influence how a person behaves in a particular situation or makes use of resources in an environment (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Researchers including Friede and Ryan (2005) had proposed that personality could be linked to the work-family interface. It can predict how individuals choose to experience supportive or challenging environments in the two domains (Westring & Ryan, 2007). Earlier, Diener, Larson, & Emmons (1984) had talked about the role of personality in reacting to environmental factors. Friede and Ryan (2005) further noted that personality might determine if individuals perceive the same environment differently, e.g., if their environment has positive or negative impact on their lives. With specific regard to the personality variable of 'coping,' research has shown that this personality trait can assist in reducing the conflict aspect of work and family interface (Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999). Based on such empirical findings, personality variables were included to see if they would

predict facilitation from one domain to the other. We found that personality variables did not predict facilitation either from work to family or from family to work.

It is possible that the personality variables included were not relevant to this specific sample. In fact, a recent study by Boyar and Mosley (2007) found that a variety of personality variables included in their study (such as level of neuroticism, and generalized self-efficacy) did not support work and family facilitation. This is interesting finding and deserves more attention.

The few studies that have looked at personality variables and their relation to work and family have focused on the so-called Big Five proposed by McCrae and John (1990). The Big Five, which includes the dimensions of agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness to experience, has been studied to see their role in bringing about conflict and facilitation. Not all of these dimensions have been found significant in reducing work and family conflict, or improving work and family facilitation. Wayne, Musisca and Fleeson (2004) found that neuroticism was negatively correlated with job satisfaction, that conscientiousness was significant for job efforts and performance, and that agreeableness was positively correlated with satisfaction in the non-work domain. We decided to test new personality variables to study their possible impact on work and family facilitation. It is possible that these variables were not particularly important for the sample on which we tested the model. As facilitation itself was found occurring at the outcome level in our study, it is likely personality factors themselves do not impact facilitation, but possibly only their outcomes.

The fourth goal of this research was to study the role of facilitation in bringing about outcomes in the work and family domains. As hypothesized, we found that work to family facilitation leads to job satisfaction. As Voydanoff (2005) reports, findings on work and family facilitation are not in abundance. The only research we could find suggesting a strong relation

between work to family facilitation and job satisfaction was a study by Brockwood, Hammer, and Neal (2003). Earlier, Frone, Yardley, and Markel (1997) had argued that interference [related to work and family] originating in one domain can lead to stress in the other domain. In other words, work stress can interfere with family life. Recently, researchers such as Wayne, Musisca and Fleeson (2004) noted that work and family conflict and work-family facilitation were related to satisfaction in the originating domain itself. This means that work-family facilitation can bring about positive results in the work domain as well. From this angle, our finding that work-family facilitation results in job satisfaction makes sense. Citing Wayne et al's (2004) arguments, Voydanoff (2005) had pointed out work-family facilitation is in fact cognitive appraisals of how one domain can impact the other domain. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) had suggested that, through cognitive appraisal, individuals decide if what they are experiencing is stressful or positive. Naturally, a stressful appraisal results when an individual has fewer resources than what the environment demands. In other words, the concept of 'work and family facilitation' derives its meaning from the fact that individuals reach positive conclusions about the relative demands and resources available for them to fulfill their work and family roles (Voydanoff, 2005). Thus, academic faculty who experiences work to family facilitation tend to see their work life as providing them with resources that enable them to perform their job well as well as their family demands. This, in turn, enables the academic faculty to view their jobs in a more positive light.

Unlike what we hypothesized, we did not find a direct link between work and family facilitation to turnover, but it was mediated through job satisfaction. Previous research on work and family has shown that work to family facilitation has a direct connection to job satisfaction and turnover intentions (for instance, Barnes, Agago& Coombs, 1998). It is likely that the results

in this study of work and family facilitation not leading directly to a lower turnover rate were sample-specific. Faculty satisfaction is more of an all-inclusive phenomenon including work and non-work lives (Olsen & Near, 1994). In other words, job satisfaction tends to carry more of a holistic meaning to academic faculty and may be more relevant, than work-family facilitation alone, for their intentions to leave the job. This connection between job satisfaction and turnover intentions is described in the following paragraphs.

The linkage we found only between job satisfaction and turnover (and not from work and family facilitation and turnover) has been explained in the literature. There is no shortage of theoretic explanations of turnover (for instance, Steers & Mowday, 1981), including intent to leave (Bluedorn, 1992), and satisfaction with one's job responsibilities (Mobley, 1982). Rosser (2004) also noted that having lower job satisfaction creates an emotional response towards one's work life, resulting in a behavioral response (i.e., desire to leave or quitting the job). From these perspectives, our finding that job satisfaction leads to turnover is not surprising. However, the contribution of our study is in the fact that unlike research citing work and family variable directly leading to turnover intentions, we find that it is job satisfaction that is mediating this relationship.

Though it was not a prediction of this study, length of service was a determining factor in turnover intentions. There has been limited research on how the length of service an academic faculty member provides can influence outcomes relevant in academic institutions. Olsen and Near (1994) found that newly hired members reported higher level of work-family conflict and, surprisingly, reported higher levels of work and life satisfaction. This suggests that satisfaction with one's job and work change over time. In an earlier study, Smart (1990) had argued that satisfaction in one's job and turnover intentions of academic faculty depended on satisfaction not

just with the organization, but also on salary and exclusively in what one carries out in one's job (i.e., the nature of the job). This tends to suggest that turnover intentions are more complex than one may assume for a faculty. Newer academic faculty tend to be more in a honeymoon phase and may not be fully aware of the time and effort it would take to meet all the tenure track criteria. The academic life of a new faculty member may involve advising, teaching, research, and services to the department and school. As the impact of these responsibilities becomes clearer with passing of time, it is likely that academic faculty members tend to feel less satisfied with their jobs and may think more of leaving their jobs.

Interestingly, Olsen and Near (1994) found that junior faculty (those within the third year of their appointment) showed no inclination to leave their jobs as they were satisfied with their jobs. We also found similar results. In addition, we also found that those who have been in service for over 15 years (i.e., those in the professor rank) also reported lower intentions to leave their jobs. This makes sense as those in the professor rank have proved their merit in the academic world and have earned recognition. Faculty intention to leave their job has been associated with their level of participation and productivity (Hagedorn, 1996). An academic faculty member who has been newly hired is aspiring to participate in research collaboration within the department and across-departments. They are also preparing manuscripts for publications and submitting them for consideration to different journals. It is possible that all these activities provide a sense of satisfaction to junior faculty. As time passes, it is likely that some faculty face a situation that their levels of research collaboration and/or productivity are not reaching the mark they expected. This can also be a reason why faculty between the service years of 4 and 15 show a higher level of job dissatisfaction and more inclination to resign from their current position, or be told to seek a new position. It would be not surprising if, as time

passes, faculty also tend to compare themselves to their peers in other institutions and get dissatisfied with their current salary and benefits, teaching load, or research opportunities. Salary, job security, benefits and securing tenure track positions all can influence faculty satisfaction (Boyer, 1990; Hagedorn, 1996; Matier, 1990).

Fewer studies have been done on turnover intentions of faculty members (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). Faculty members, because of the unique nature of their jobs, tend to follow a pattern different than employees in other types of positions. It is important that turnover intentions of faculty be studied more in depth (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). Turnover is costly not just to the individuals but also for organizations. Intentions to continue in a position or leave can be equal to actually leaving the job (Mobley, 1982). In other words, the quality of work may deteriorate when an individual is seriously considering leaving the organization. Moreover, from an organizational perspective, when an individual leaves an organization, resources are wasted in terms of money and time invested in recruiting, training, relocating and finding replacements (Rosser, 2004).

In the family domain, we found that family-work facilitation can lead to satisfaction in one's personal relationship and in overall life satisfaction. Eden (2001) had noted that a supportive family culture may replenish an individual's energy or resources leading to an overall wellbeing. Stevanovic and Rupert (2009), in their study on professional psychologists, had found that having family support can enhance work performance and this, in turn, can enhance satisfaction in the non-work domain. As Keene and Quadagno (2004) argued, facilitation can increase positive wellbeing in an individual that can lead to the individual having a positive relationship with his or her environment. This tends to suggest that facilitation experienced in one's family can lead to satisfaction in other areas of an individual's life, including satisfaction

in one's overall personal life. Grzywacz and Bass (2003) had found that family to work facilitation is associated with overall better wellbeing in an individual. We had proposed that would result in the individual enjoying a better personal relationship and overall life satisfaction. A supportive family atmosphere and circle of friends can help academic faculty to openly talk about their issues at work and/or to get good advice. This, in turn, can lead to the faculty member feeling closer with their family/partner and feeling more satisfied in their other personal relationships. Finally, this contributes to their overall life satisfaction.

We found family and friend's support also leading directly to one's overall life satisfaction. This is not surprising as social support is a major determinant of life satisfaction (Wan, Jaccard& Ramey, 1996; Young, 2006). Emotional support through one's family and close friends can provide an individual with a strong buffer to cope with stressors in life. House (1981) had identified different types of support that one could potentially receive from one's social network. This includes emotional support that provides trust and understanding, instrumental support (e.g., financial assistance or sharing work load), and information support involving providing valuable information that will assist the individual to arrive at an appropriate solution to problems. Thus a faculty member receiving support from his or her close friends and family may experience a higher sense of satisfaction in his or her life.

As mentioned earlier, unlike we hypothesized, we found some interesting overlapping results between the two domains at the outcome levels. In the work domain, we had found that job satisfaction was significantly related to academic faculty members' overall life satisfaction. This is not surprising as work is an important aspect of an individual's life, especially for academic faculty who spend years of training to become a faculty member. However, it would be interesting to know whether it is the high importance of one's job in one's life or any other

features related to job that are the bases for the impact of job on life satisfaction. Since we found that personality variables tend to impact job satisfaction which in turn is impacting life satisfaction, it would be advisable to understand the psychological process behind job satisfaction impacting life satisfaction. Judge and Watanabe (1993) had encouraged future research along this line after their research found that longitudinal studies often show a weakening relationship of job satisfaction to life satisfaction, as time passes. Other studies (for instance, Ernst Kossek and Ozeki, 1998) found that job satisfaction predicts life satisfaction more for women than men. In the light of such differing results, it is important to further explore this relationship.

An interesting result we found at the 'outcome' level was that satisfaction in one's personal relationship had a significant and negative relationship with turnover intentions. This result could again be sample specific such that academic faculty tend to have great mobility and hence may not hesitate to leave their current institution if they find that their job is affecting their personal relationships. For instance, not being able to find a suitable job for their spouse or partner in the same location may be a contributing reason for faculty to leave their current school. This is a finding that needs more exploration. For instance, what are some of the reasons that academic faculty leave an organization besides work related variables? Such research can also help the organizations to try to find venues to overcome turnover intentions. Further, our sample included academic faculty from institutions located in college towns and not in big cities where one might have more job opportunities. Academic faculty working and living in bigger cities may have more opportunities to find another position without needing to relocate. Relocation can be taxing for those academic faculty with children. All these variables can likely

influence whether an academic faculty may consider leaving his or her current organization if dissatisfied in their personal relationships. All these questions need to be researched in the future.

As mentioned in the results section, personality variables were not related to work and family facilitation variables. However, we found that 'coping' and 'self-efficacy' predicted job satisfaction, while self-efficacy also predicted both personal relationship and overall life satisfaction. What this suggests is that personality tends to influence how people deal with the job responsibilities and pressure from their work domain. It is likely that different people tend to use different types of coping style (for instance, active versus passive) to deal with their job responsibilities. Although we did not measure the different types of coping, our findings do indicate that academic faculty with good coping skills tend to find more satisfaction in their jobs. It is likely that they engage in acts to de-stress themselves. In addition, having a sense of confidence about one's capability to fulfill job demands may also assist individuals to effectively deal with work pressure. Those with more confidence in their abilities to meet the demands of their work and non-work lives tend to find more satisfaction in their jobs and in their overall lives. Naturally, finding more job satisfaction or feeling a sense of capability in meeting job demands enable people to think less about quitting their jobs. As job satisfaction was also found to lead to life satisfaction, it is likely that individuals experience a sense of overall life satisfaction when they are more positive about their competence to meet job and life demands. However, we argue that other personality factors (such as Big Five, for instance), should also be included in studying the impact of work-family facilitation. Wherever possible, it is advisable that selection of personality variables should probably be made considering the unique aspects of the sample to be studied. This will provide more insight into what individual variables can contribute to improve facilitation or decrease conflict. Further, organizations should try to

understand the importance of such personality variables and the message they are conveying, while coming up with employee-friendly policies. Attempts should then be made to help employees' improvement efforts.

Limitations

Although this research has made both theoretical and empirical contributions, it is not without limitations. As is common with any empirical research study, especially those studying a conceptual model, limitations are a constant problem.

One of the major limitations of this study was that the entire data were collected through self-reports. It is possible that some of the questions were not applicable or clear to the respondents who, nevertheless, either randomly choose an option or took the best guess and answered the questions. The mood or emotions of the participants as they completed the survey was not measured in this study. Self-reports measures may also suffer from different types of biases, such as the social-desirability bias (Razavi, 2001). This study did not include any measures to take care of such limitations. However, as Spector (1994) had argued, self-reports should not be dismissed easily for they can provide important insight on people's feelings and perceptions about their jobs and the environment.

The scale used to measure personality variable, coping, did not have a sufficient level of reliability. It is possible that this contributed also to the non-significant results we found with regard to the proposed connection between the personality variables and the facilitation variables. Further, the lack of correlation we found between work-family and family-work facilitation could be sample specific. The domain of work and family facilitation lacks an adequate theory to explain the dynamics involved in the domain. Likewise, the scales that are currently used to measure work and family facilitation (in both directions) also need more

development in its construct validity. In accordance with the RGD model, it will be ideal for the scales to include questions to adequately capture all the likely aspects involved in work and family facilitation.

We did not control for variables such as emotional labor in our study, as emotional labor can contribute to variables such as job dissatisfaction or intentions to leave. For example, an unpleasant family situation may emotionally influence an academic faculty who, in turn, may have to hide this negative emotion while at work in order to not let his or her family situation affect work. In turn, this emotional labor can lead to emotional exhaustion in the academic faculty. Similarly, it may not be unlikely that an academic faculty may find oneself having to fake a positive demeanor at home to meet one's family responsibilities while, in reality, the individual may be unhappy due to work situations. This conscious display of emotions that are opposite of what one truly feels can, overtime, lead to emotional exhaustion.
Such variables, if introduced into the model, may have probably produced different results.

As this study was the first of its kind testing a conceptual model, we decided to keep the model as simple as possible instead of introducing a host of variables into the model. The complexity of work and family facilitation, therefore, might not have come out in this study. Additionally, we did not include demographic variables such as age of children that could potentially play a role in how people experience facilitation.

It is also possible that because we have use correlative data, the outcome variables and the antecedent variables in the model can also be the antecedents and the outcomes respectively. In other words, changing the variables currently determined as outcomes to antecedents and vice versa may still provide us with similar results. We did not include any methods to take care of such possibilities.

Finally, this study was conducted exclusively on academic faculty. Academic faculty, especially those working in major universities, tends to be in a working environment that is more family friendly than many other situations. Faculty members tend to have more freedom and control in their jobs than, say, employees working in a financial institution with more fixed hours on a daily basis to devote to work, or employees who work in a restaurant or call centers where daily jobs can get busy and overwhelming. As the sample came from faculty members, who had more work-family amenities and options available, the true picture of work and family facilitation may not have emerged by exclusively testing the RGD model on them. However, the homogeneity of the sample is also a plus in the sense that one can be confident about the results found by testing the model on academic faculty. That is, we can be surer that our results are more likely to be a true reflection of the dynamics of work and family domains in at least in a cross section of the general population (i.e., the academic faculty). This is an advantage than, say for example, if the data were collected both from academic faculty and from service providers, and pooled together to conduct the analysis on.

Future Directions and Recommendations

This study lays the groundwork for recommending further research to better understand the dynamics involved in work and family environments. First, future research should include additional environment variables in the work and non-work domains in the Resources-Gain-Development model, and study their role in bringing about work and family facilitation. Selection of environment variables, particularly work environment variables, would certainly be sample specific in the sense that not all environment variables may be equally applicable for employees in all professions. For instance, having a supportive peer group may be a primary

environment variable for certain professions, as in the case of air traffic controllers or nurses, while that may not be the case for others.

Secondly, the RGD model should be tested by including different moderators and mediators including other personality variables or constructs such as emotional labor. This could provide more information about the dynamics in work and family facilitation. The role of these moderating or mediating variables should also be studied for their potential influence on outcome variables. For instance, what moderating variables or mediating factors (in addition to family-work facilitation) could lead to life satisfaction? More research will be beneficial here. Further, we found that job satisfaction tend to act as a mediator through which work to family facilitation can influence turnover intentions. Future research should certainly include other relevant variables and see if work and family facilitation can mediate them (just like it did for job satisfaction in this study) leading to lower turnover intentions.

This research has found that those who experienced work to family facilitation tended to see their work life as providing them with more resources that enable them to perform their job well as well as their family demands. This, in turn, enabled the academic faculty to view their jobs in a more positive light. Certainly, there will be other variables that may be moderating this connection. Future research should try to study such variables. For instance, do all employees with work family facilitation experience greater job satisfaction? What moderators may play a role in this relationship? Such questions should ideally be the focus of future research.

This study was conducted exclusively on academic faculty across four universities. Academic faculty tends to have their unique work environment, and this certainly would have influenced the results found in this study. Academic faculty tends to have a comparatively stable income, and this can positively influence their non-work environment. For example, they would

be able to offer more resources and comfort to their family which, in turn, could bring about a set of unique outcomes in their non-work domain. Because of such reasons, it is encouraged more studies involving employees in other professions be carried out using the RGD model, before generalizing our results.

Practical Implications

The results from this research suggest that work and non-work outcomes tend to overlap significantly. This brings home the point that it is important for organizations to have family friendly policies, as work and family facilitation originating in one domain (for instance, the work domain) can exert its influence in the other domain (for instance, the non-work domain). As organization promoting policies, that enable its' employees to be more positive about their work, is more likely to contribute to the employee's overall life satisfaction. This, in turn can generate benefits that are of organizational interest. For example, Spector et al (2007) has found that overall life satisfaction can lead to improved work motivation.

Evidence was found for a connection between satisfaction in family domain and job satisfaction (in the work domain). This suggests that organizations need to be cognizant of factors that can affect worker's family satisfaction and job satisfaction. In 2001, Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton found that a worker is happy not just because of his or her job satisfaction but also because of their life satisfaction as well. Wright and Cropanzano (2000) also raised similar arguments. It is also important for organizations to keep in mind that it is probably not just enough to reduce work and family conflict, but it is also equally important to find ways to increase facilitation between the work and family lives of their employees. Such initiatives should include family friendly policies that are suitable to employees of a specific organization. This is more likely to ensure that employees experience more satisfaction in their family life (as

work is not interfering with family life) which, in turn, can bring about outcomes that are of organizational interest. For example, family friendly policies that will enable employees to have more satisfaction in their family domain can improve job satisfaction which can reduce turnover intentions.

We also found that personal relationship satisfaction can predict a person's turnover intentions. Policies that provide employees more control in their work life can bring more satisfaction in their family lives which can improve a faculty members' perception of his or her employer, since the job is not interfering with one's personal relationship and its satisfaction, the employee may not consider leaving the job. In other words, there is lower intention leave one's job. Further, job satisfaction tends to be higher when individuals view their work as actually assisting them to have a better life than when work is standing in the way of having a satisfactory personal life (Wayne, et al, 2004). Therefore, it is necessary that organizations encourage practices that will not just reduce conflict but improve facilitation between one's work and non-work domains.

Finally, employee-friendly policies are likely to bring the desired results (of employee's job satisfaction, low turnover, etc.) if such policies are created and implemented keeping in mind the needs of the employees. That is, it will not be a waste of time and resources if organizations actually spent some time studying the needs of their employees before implementing organizational policies. For instance, our study found that turnover intentions were higher for those with service years between five and fifteen years. This group, between five and fifteen years in service, typically consists of academic faculty in the Assistant or Associate Professor ranks. This group of academic faculty is very often trying to establish tenure and promotion to the Associate Professor and full Professor ranks, respectively. This expectation to secure tenure

and promotion brings with it a unique set of stress as well. It would be ideal to have intervention programs that would reduce the stress level specifically associated with this group of academic faculty (in the ranks of Assistant and Associate Professors). For example, having a mentor-mentee program within the academic department can assist academic faculty in the Assistant Professor rank to get valuable pieces of advice to successfully move forward towards tenure and promotion. Within the legal parameters and possible investment of resources, organizations should try to study and implement those employee-friendly policies and practices that would really bring about the desired results. Such desired results could include higher job satisfaction, higher productivity and morale, and lower turnover intentions or actual leaving of one's jobs.

Summary

The aim of this research study was to carry out an empirical analysis of the conceptual model, RGD. This model, being a comprehensive model on work and family facilitation, includes the probably antecedents of work and family facilitation, and its outcomes as well as probable moderators. The study found that environment factors (i.e., the antecedents) in the work and non-work domains play a significant role in bringing about facilitation between one's work and family. Experiencing facilitation in one domain can lead to outcomes that are of interest for that domain. In addition, facilitation in one domain can influence outcomes in the other domain as well. This highlights two important points. One, for the majority of employees, it is not always feasible to completely differentiate between one's family and work lives. In other words, most employees may find it difficult to not allow one's work life to influence one's family life or vice versa. Second, it is important for organizations to not only attempt to reduce conflict between their employee's work and non-work lives, but also to foster work and family facilitation for their employees. This research has found interesting overlaps at the outcome levels of the RGD

model. Although organizations cannot control an employee's non-work environment, what they can do is to foster a work environment where employees can experience facilitation in their family lives as well.

Overall, the construct of work and family facilitation, bi-directionally, needs further study. It is important to know what facilitation means to different individuals and to work on improving facilitation measures. Further, one's work life is often considered and studied as the root cause of problem in work-family interface studies. This creates an imbalance in the focus of research (Allis &O'Driscoll, 2008). It certainly is encouraging that, after nearly two decades of heavy focus on the conflict perspective, there is now attention to study the positive aspects between one's work and non-work lives (Grzywacz, 2000). Although there have been recent studies trying to understand work and family facilitation, more are certainly warranted. It is especially important to know the antecedents and consequences and moderators of work and family facilitation. This research is an initial step in that direction. It is hoped that we will be able to broaden the view of facilitation by also conducting more research.

References

Adams, G. A., King, L. A., & King, D. W. (1996). Relationships of job and family involvement, family social support, and work-family conflict with job and life satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81,* 411-420.

Allen, T. D. (2001). Family supportive work environments: The role of organizational perceptions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58,* 414-435.

Allen, T. D., Herst, D. E. L., Bruck, C. S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*, 278-308.

Allis, P. & O'Driscoll, M. (2008). Positive effects of non-work-to-work facilitation on well-being in work, family and personal domains. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23*, 273-291.

Anderson, S. E., Coffey, B. S., & Byerly, R. T. (2002). Formal organizational initiative and informal workplace practices: Links to work-family conflict and job-related. *Journal of Management, 28*, 787-810.

Aneshensel, C. S. & Pearlin, L. I. (1987). Structural contexts of sex differences in stress. In R. Barnett, L. Biener, & G. Baruch (Eds.), *Gender and Stress* (*pp.75-95).* New York: Free Press.

Aryee, S. *(*1992*).* Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict among married professional women: Evidence from Singapore*. Human Relations, 45,* 813-837.

Aryee, S., Luk, V., Leung, A. & Lo, S. (1999). Roles stressors, inter-role conflict, and well-being: The moderating influence of spousal support and coping behaviors among employed parents in Hong Kong. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *54*, 259-278.

Aryee, S., Srinvias, E. S., & Tan, H. H. (2005). Rhythms of life: Antecedents and outcomes of work-family balance in employed parents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*, 132-146.

Baltes, B. B., & Heydens-Gahir, H. A. (2003). Reduction of work-family conflict through the use of selection, optimization, and compensation behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88,* 1005–1018.

Barling, J., Kelloway, E. K., & Frone, M. R. (2005). *Handbook of Work Stress*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Barnes, L., Agago, M., & Coombs, W. (1998). Effects of job-related stress on faculty intention to leave academia. *Research in Higher Education, 39,* 457-469.

Barnett, R. C. (1998). Toward a review and re-conceptualization of the work-family literature. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, *124*, 125-182.

Barnett, R. C., & Baruch, G. K. (1986). Role quality, multiple role involvement, and psychological well-being in midlife women. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51,* 578-585.

Barnett, R.C., & Hyde, J. S. (2001). Women, men, work and family: An expansionist theory. *American Psychologist, 56*, 781-796.

Behson, S.J. (2005). The Relative Contribution of Formal and Informal Organizational Work-Family Support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66*, 487-500.

Bernas, K.H., & Major, D. A. (2000). Contributors to stress resistance: testing a model of women's work-family conflict. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 24,*170-178.

Berscheid, E. (2003). The human greatest strength: Other human. In L. G. Asinwall & U. M. Staudinger (Eds.), *A Psychology of Human Strength: Fundamental Questions and Future Directions for a Positive Psychology (pp.37-47).* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Beutell, N. J. (2005). Self-employment, work-family conflict, and work-family synergy: Some antecedents and consequences. Unpublished manuscript.

Bluedorn, A. C. (1982). The theories of turnover: Causes, effects, and meaning. In S. B. Bacharach (Ed.), *Research in the Sociology of Organizations*, *1, (pp. 75-128).* Greenwich, CT: JAI Press. Greenwich, CT.

Bond, J. T., Thompson, C., Galinsky, E., & Prottas, D. (2003). *Highlights of the National Study of the Changing Workforce*. New York: Families and Work Institute.

Boyar, S.L., & Mosely, D. C., Jr. (2007). The relationship between core self-evaluations and work and family satisfaction: The mediating role of work-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *71*, 265–281.

Boyer, Ernest L. (1990) *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities for the Professoriate*. Menlo Park, CA: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

Brockwood, K. J., Hammer, L. B., & Neal, M. B. (2003). *An examination of positive work-family spillover among dual-earner couples in the sandwiched generation.* Paper presented at the annual meetings of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Orlando, FL.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The Ecology of Human Development: Experiments in Nature and Design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press

Bronfenbrenner, U. & Ceci, S. J. (1994). Nature-nurture re-conceptualized in developmental perspective: A biological model. *Psychological Review, 101,* 568-586.

Bronfenbrenner, U. & Morris, P. A. (1998). The ecology of developmental processes. In W. Damon & R. M. Lerner (Eds.), *Handbook of Child Psychology, Vol. 1: Theoretical Models of Human Development (pp. 993-1023).* New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Brough, P & Kelling, A. (2002). Women, work and well-being: An analysis of the work-family conflict. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 31,* 29-38.

Bruck, C. S., Allen, T. D., & Spector, P. E. (2002). The relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction: A finer-grained analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 60*, 336-353.

Bureau of Labor Statistics (2006) [on-line]. Characteristics of minimum wage workers, 2006. http://www.bls.gov/cps/minwage2006.htm

Burke, R. J., & Greenglass, E. (1987). Work and family. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (pp. 273-320)*. New York: Wiley.

Byrne, M. B. (2001). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence. Erlbaum Associates

Cameron, K.S., Dutton, J.E. & Quinn, R.E. (2003). Foundations of Positive Organizational Scholarship. In K.S. Cameron, J.E. Dutton & R.E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive Organizational Scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline* (*pp. 3-13).* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Carlson, D. S., & Perrewé, P. L. (1999). The role of social support in the stressor–strain relationship: An examination of work–family conflict. *Journal of Management, 25*, 513–540.

Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, M., Wayne, J., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work-family interface: Development and validation of a work- family enrichment scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *68,* 131-164.

Casper, W. J., & Buffardi, L. C. (2004). Work-life benefits and job pursuit intentions: The role of anticipated organizational support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *65*, 391-410.

Clark, S.C. (2001). Work Cultures and Work/Family Balance. J*ournal of Vocational Behavior*, *58*, 348-365.

Cotton, J., & Tuttle, J. M. (1986). Employee turnover: A meta-analysis and review with implications for research. *Academy of Management Review, 11*, 55-70.

Cropanzano, R. and Folger, R. (1991). Procedural justice and worker motivation. In Steers, R.M. and Porter, L.W. (Eds.), *Motivation and Work Behavior (pp. 131-43).* McGraw-Hill, New York, NY,

Crouter, A. C. (1984). Spillover from family to work: The neglected side of the work-family interface. *Human Relations, 37,* 425-442.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A.B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W.B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 499-512.

Demerouti, E., Geurts, S. A. E., & Kompier, M. (2004). Positive and negative work–home interaction: Prevalence and correlates. *Equal Opportunities International, 23,* 6–35.

Diener, E. & M. Diener, M. (1995). Cross cultural correlates of life satisfaction and self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 68*, 653–663.

Deiner, R.A., Emmons, R.J., Larsen & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *49*, 71–75.

Diener, E., Larsen, R. J., & Emmons, R. A. (1984). Person-situation interactions: Choice of situations and congruence of coping models. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47,* 580-592.

Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective Well-Being: Three Decades of Progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, *125*, 276-302.

Diener, E., & Suh, E. M. (2000). *Culture and subjective well-being*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Diner, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin, 95*, 542-575.

Eby, L. T., Casper, W. J., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C., & Brinley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980-2002). *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66*, 124-197.

Eden, D. (2001). Vacations and other respite: Studying stress on and off the job. In C. L. Cooper & I.T., Robertson (Eds.), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (pp.121-146)*. Chicester: Wiley.

Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *Academy of Management Review, 25*, 178-199.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Huntington, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*, 500 –507.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 565-573.

Endler, N. S., & Parker, J. D. A. (1990). *Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations* (CISS): Manual. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems, Inc.

Ernst Kossek, E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work-Family conflict, policies, and the job-life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior-human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 139-149.

Faragher, E. B., Cass, M., & Cooper, C. L. (2005). The relationship between job satisfaction and health: a meta-analysis. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 62,* 105-112.

Friede A, & Ryan AM. (2005). The importance of the individual: How self-evaluations influence the work–family interface. In Kossek EE, Lambert SJ (Eds.), *Work and Life Integration: Organizational, Cultural, and Individual Perspectives* (*pp. 193–209).* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Friedman, S. D. & Greenhaus, J. H. (2000). *Work and Family Allies or Enemies? What Happens When Business Professionals Confront Life Choices*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Frone, M. R. (2003). Work-family balance. In Quick, J. C., & Tetrick, L. E. (Eds.), *Handbook of Occupational Health Psychology (pp. 143-162).* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict: Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*, 65-78.

Frone, M. R.; Yardley, J. K.; & Markel, K. S. (1997). Developing and testing an integrative model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 50*, 145-167.

Fu, C., & Shaffer, M. (2001). The tug of work and family: Direct and indirect domain-specific determinants of family interference with work and work interference with family. *Personnel Review, 30*, 502-522.

Geurts, S.A.E., & Demerouti, E. (2003). Work/Non-work interface: A review of theories and findings. In M. Schabracq, J. Winnubst & C.L. Cooper (Eds.), *The Handbook of Work and Health Psychology (pp. 279-312).* Chichester: Wiley.

Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy – A theoretical analysis of its determinants and its malleability. *Academy of Management Review, 17,* 183-211.

Goldstein, I.L., & Ford, K. J. (2002). *Training in Organizations: Needs Assessment, Development and Evaluation*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Thomspon Learning.

Grandey, A. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). The conservation of resources model applied to work-family conflict and strain. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54,* 350-370.

Gilman, R., & Huebner, E.S. (2000). Review of life satisfaction measures for adolescents. *Behavior Change, 17*, 178-195.

Greenglass, E. & Burke, R.J. (1988). Work and Family precursors of burnout in teachers: Sex differences. *Sex Roles, 18*, 215-229.

Greenglass, E.R., Fiksenbaum, L. & Burke, R.J. (1995). The relationship between social support and burnout over time in teachers. In P. Perrewe & R. Crandall (Eds.), *Occupational stress: A handbook (*pp. 239-248) Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Parasuraman, S. (1994). Work–family conflict, social support, and well-being. In M. J. Davidson & R. J. Burke (Eds.), *Women in management: Current research issues* (pp. 213–229). London: Paul Chapman.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family Roles. Academcy *of Management Review, 10*, 76-88.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Parasuraman, S. (1999). Research on work, family, and gender: Current status and future directions. In Powell, G. N. (Ed.), *Handbook of gender and work* (pp. 391-412). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review*, *31*, 72-92.

Griffith, J., Steptoe, A., & Cropley, M. (1999). An investigation of coping strategies associated with job stress in teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 69*, 517-531.

Grzywacz, J. G. (2000). Work-family spillover and health during midlife: Is managing conflict everything? *American Journal of Health Promotion, 14*, 236-243.

Grzywacz, J. G., & Bass, B. L. (2003). Work, family, and mental health: Testing different models of work-family fit. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 65,* 248-262.

Grzywacz, J. G., & Butler, A. B. (2005). The impact of job characteristics on work-to-family facilitation: Testing a theory and distinguishing a construct. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*, 97-109.

Grzywacz, J. G., & Marks, N. E. (2000). Family, work, work-family spillover, and problem drinking during midlife. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 62,* 336-348.

Grzywacz, J. G., & Marks, N. E. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*, 111-126.

Gutek, B.A.; Searle, S.; & Klepa, L. (1991). Rational versus gender role explanations for work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76,* 560-568.

Hagedorn, L. S. (1996). Wage equity and female faculty job satisfaction: The role of wage differentials in a job. *Research in Higher Education*, *37*, 569–598.

Halpern, D., & Murphy, S. E. (2005). From work-family balance to work-family interaction. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Hammer, L. B., Bauer, T. N., & Grandey, A. A. (2003). Work-family conflict and work-related withdrawal behaviors. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 17,* 419-436.

Hanson, G. C., Hammer, L. B., & Colton, C. L. (2006). Development and validation of a multidimensional scale of perceived work-family positive spillover. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*, 249-265.

Hill, E. J. (2005). Work-family facilitation and conflict, working fathers and mothers, work-family stressors and support. *Journal of Family Issues, 26*, 793-819.

Hobfoll, S.E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, *44*, 513-524

Hobfoll, S. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nest-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 50*, 337-421.

Hochschild, A. R. (1997). When work becomes home and home becomes work. *California Management Review, 39,* 79–97.

House, J. S. (1981). *Work, Stress and Social Support*. Massachusetts: Addision-Wesley Reading.

Hu, L.T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 6,* 1-55.

Jansen, N.W.H., Kant, I.K., Kristensen, T.S., & Nijhuis, F.J.N. (2003). Antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict: A prospective cohort study. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 45*, 479-491.

Jerusalem, M., & Schwarzer, R. (1992). Self-efficacy as a resource factor in stress appraisal processes. In R. Schwarzer (Ed.), *Self-efficacy: Thought control of action* (*pp. 195-213).* Washington, DC: Hemisphere.

Johnsrud, L. K. & Rosser, V. J. (2002) Faculty members' morale and their intentions to leave: A multilevel explanation. *Journal of Higher Education, 73*, 518-542.

Judge, T.A., & Bono, J.E. (2001) Relationship of core self-evaluations traits—self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability—with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86,* 80 –92.

Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M. K. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87,* 530-541.

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: the role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 17–34.

Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin, 127*, 376-407.

Judge, T. A., & Watanabe, S. (1993). Another look at the job satisfaction-life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78***,** 939-948.

Kang, S., Shaver, P. R., Sue, S., Min, K., & Jing, H. (2003). Culture-specific patterns in the prediction of life satisfaction: Roles of emotion, relationship quality, and self-esteem. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29,* 1596-1608.

Kanter, R. M. (1977). *Work and family in the United States: A critical review and agenda for research and policy*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Karatepe, O. M**.** & Bekteshi, L. (2008). Antecedents and Outcomes of Work-Family Facilitation and Family-Work Facilitation among Frontline Hotel Employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27*, 517-528.

Keene, J. R. & Quadagno, J. (2004). Predictors of Perceived Work-Family Balance: Gender Difference or Gender Similarity? *Sociological Perspectives, 47,* 1-23.

Keller, R. T. (1984). The role of performance and absenteeism in the prediction of turnover. *The Academy of Management Journal, 27*, 176-183.

Kim, F.L.S & Ling, C.S (2001). Work-family conflict of women entrepreneurs in Singapore. *Women in Management Review, 16,* 204-221.

Kinnunen, U; Feldt, T; Geurts, S. & Pulkkinen, L. (2006). Types of work-family interface: Well-being correlates of negative and positive spillover between work and family. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 47*, 149-162.

Kirchmeyer, C. (1982). Non-work participation and work attitudes: a test of scarcity vs. expansion models of personal resources. *Human Relations, 45*, 775-795.

Kirschenbaum, A., & Mano-Negrin, R. (2002). Past work experience, present opportunities and turnover decisions: The case of Israel's medical sector employees. *Personnel Review, 31*, 518 – 539.

Koeske, K.M., Kirk, S.A., & Koeske, R.D. (1993). Coping with job stress: Which strategies work best? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 66*, 319-335.

Korabik, K., Lero, D.S., & Whitehead, D. L. (2008). *Handbook of Work-Family Integration: Research, Theories and Best Practices.* San Diego, CA: Elsevier.

Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work-family conflict, policies, and the job- life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior-human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 139-149.

Koys, D. (2001). The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: a unit-level, longitudinal study. *Personnel psychology, 4*, 101-115.

Lambert, S. J. (1990). Processes linking work and family: A critical review and research agenda. *Human Relations, 43*, 239-257.

Lambert, S. J., & Haley-Lock, A. (2004). The organizational stratification of opportunities for work-life balance. *Community, Work and Family, 7,* 179-195.

Lapierre, L. M., & Allen, T. D. (2006). Work-supportive family, family-supportive supervision, use of organizational benefits, and problem-focused coping: Implications for work-family conflict and employee well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *11*, 169-181.

Lazarus, R. S. (1981). The stress and coping paradigm. In C. Eisdorfer, D. Cohen, A. Kleinman & P. Maxim (Eds.), *Models for Clinical Psychopathology* (*pp. 177-214).* MTP Press.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, Appraisal, and Coping*. New York: Springer.

Lee, R.T., & Ashforth, B.E. (1993). A further examination of managerial burnout: Toward an integrated model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *14*, 3-20.

Leiter, M. P., & Durup, M. J. (*1996*). Work, home, and in-between: A longitudinal study of spillover. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 32*, 29-47.

Lu, L., Kao, S. F., Chang, T. T., Wu, H. P., & Cooper, C. L. (2008). Work/family demands, work flexibility, work/family conflict, and their consequences at work: a national probability sample in Taiwan. *International Journal of Stress Management, 15*, 1-21.

Luszczynska, A., Gibbons, F. X., Piko, B. F., & Tekozel, M. (2004). Self-regulatory cognitions, social comparisons, perceived peers' behaviors as predictors of nutrition and physical activity: A comparison among adolescents in Hungary, Poland, Turkey and USA. *Psychology and Health, 19*, 577-593.

Lynch, P. D., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (1999). Perceived organizational support: Inferior-versus-superior performance by wary employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 467-483.

Madsen, S. R., John, C. R., & Miller, D. (2005). Work-family conflict and health: A study of workplace, psychological, and behavioral correlates. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management, 6*, 225-247.

Major, V. L., Klein, K. J., & Ehrhart, M. G. (2000). Work time, work interference with family, and employee well-being. *Proceedings of the 2000 Academy of Management Conference.* Toronto, ON.

Mano-Negrin, R., & Kirschenbaum, A., (2002). Past work experience, present opportunities and turnover decisions: The case of Israel's medical sector employees. *Personnel Review, 31*, 518 – 539.

Marks, S. R. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. *American Sociological Review, 42*, 921-936.

Matier, M.W. (1990). Retaining faculty: A tale of two campuses. *Research in Higher Education, 31,* 39-60.

Mazerolle, S.M., Bruening, J.E., & Casa, D.J., Burton, L.J. (2008). Work-family conflict, part II: antecedents of work-family conflict in national collegiate athletic association division I-A certified athletic trainers. *Journal of Athletic Training, 43,*513-22.

McCrae, R. R. & Costa, P. T. (1990). *Personality in Adulthood.* New York: The Guildford Press.

Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Convergence between measures of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict: A meta-analytic examination. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67*, 215-232.

Michael, P.O.D; Brough, P. & Kalliath, T. J. (2004). Work/family conflict, psychological well-being, satisfaction and social support: a longitudinal study in New Zealand. *Equal Opportunities International, 23*.

Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 62*, 237-240.

Mobley, W. H. (1982). *Employee Turnover, Causes, Consequences, and Control*. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company: Philippines.

Mulvaney, R.H., O'Neill, J.W., Cleveland, J.N., & Crouter, A.C. (2006). A model of work and family dynamics hotel managers. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *34*, 66-87.

Munck, B. (2001). Changing a climate of face time. *Harvard Business Review, 79,* 125–131.

Namayandeh, H., Yaacob, S. N., & Juhari, R. (2010). The effect of gender role orientation on work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW) among married female nurses in Shiraz-Iran. *Journal of American Science, 6,* 534-540.

O'Driscoll, M. P., & Beehr, T. A. (1994). Supervisor behaviors, role stressors and uncertainty as predictors of personal outcomes for subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 15,* 141-155.

O'Driscoll, M., Brough, P., & Kalliath, T. (2004). Work–family conflict, psychological well-being, satisfaction and social support: A longitudinal study in New Zealand. *Equal Opportunities International, 23*, 36−56.

O'Leary, S. & Deegan, J. (2005) . Career Progression of Irish Tourism and Hospitality Management Graduates. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 17*, 421-432.

Olsen, D., & Near, J. P. (1994). Predictors of life satisfaction: Work and non-work satisfaction and inter-time conflict. *The Review of Higher Education, 17*, 179-195.

Oyserman, D., Coon, H. M., & Kemmelmeier, M. (2002). Rethinking individualism and collectivism: Evaluation of theoretical assumptions and meta-analyses. *Psychological Bulletin, 128*, 3-72.

Parasuraman, S., & Greenhaus, J. H. (1997). *Integrating Work and Family: Challenges and Choices for Changing World*. Westport, CT: Quorum

Perrewé, P.L. & Carlson, D. (2002). Do men and women benefit from social support equally? A field examination within the work and family context, In D. L. Nelson, & R. J. Burke (Eds.), *Gender, Work Stress, and Health: Current Research Issues*, (pp. 101-114), APA Books, Washington DC

Perrewe, P. L., Hochwarter, W. A., & Kiewitz, C. (1999). Value attainment: An explanation for the negative effects of work–family conflict on job and life satisfaction. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 4,* 318–326.

Perry-Jenkins, M., Repetti, R. L., & Crouter, A. C. (2000). Work and family in the 1990s. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 62*, 981-998.

Perry-Smith, J., & Blum, T. (2000). Work-Family Human Resource Bundles and Perceived Organizational Performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 43,* 1107-1117.

Pittman, J. F., & Orthner, D. K. (1988). Gender differences in the prediction of job commitment. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 3,* 227–248.

Rastegarkhaled, A. (2004). The investigate relationship between work and family conflict and social factors. *Daneshvar Medical Journal*, *11*, 35-48.

Razavi, T. (2001) [on-line]. *Self-report measures: an overview of concerns and limitations of questionnaire use in occupational stress research.* Southampton, UK, University of Southampton.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived Organizational Support. A review of literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 698-714.

Rosenbaum, M., & Cohen, E. (1999). Equalitarian marriages, spousal support, resourcefulness and psychological distress among Israeli working women. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *54,* 102-113.

Rosser, V. J. (2004). Faculty members' intentions to leave: A national study on their work-life and satisfaction. *Research in Higher Education, 45*, 285–309.

Rothausen, T.J. (1999). 'Family' in organizational research: A review and comparison of definitions and measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*, 817-836.

Rothbard, N. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 46*, 655-684.

*Ruderman***,** M.N., *Ohlott***,** P.J., *Panzer***,** K., & *King***,** S. (*2002*). Benefits of multiple roles for managerial women. *Academy of Management Journal, 45,* 369-386.

Schumacker, R. E. & Lomax, R. G. (2010). *A Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modeling* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized self-efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, *Measures in Health Psychology: A User's Portfolio. Causal and Control Beliefs (pp. 35-37).* Windsor, UK: NFER-NELSON

Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., Gilley, M. K., & Luk, D. (2001). Struggling for balance amid turbulence: Work-family conflict on international assignments. *Journal of Management*, *27,* 99-121.

Shore, L. M. & Shore, T.H. (1995). Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Justice. In R. S. Cropanzano & K. M. Kacmar (Eds). *Organizational Politics, Justice and support: Managing the social climate of the workplace (*pp.149-164). Westport: CT Quorum.

Sieber, S. D. (1974). Toward a theory of role accumulations. *American Sociological Review, 39*, 567-578.

Sinacore, A. L., & Akcali, F. O. (2000). *Men in families: Job satisfaction and self-esteem*. *Journal of Career Development, 27*, 1-13.

Smart, J. C. (1990). A causal model of faculty turnover intentions. *Research in Higher Education, 31,* 405–424.

Smith, R. E. (1989). Effects of coping skills training on generalized self-efficacy and locus of control**.** *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 56*, 228-233.

Smith, M. & Brough, P. (2003). Personnel recruitment and selection. In O'Driscoll, M., Taylor, P., & Kalliath, T. (Eds). *Organizational Psychology in Australia and New Zealand* (pp. 31-55). Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Spector, P.E., Allen, T.D., Poelmans, S., Lapierre, L.M., Cooper, C.L., O'Driscoll, M., Sanchez, J.I., Abarca, N., Alexandrova, M., Beham, B., Brough, P., Ferreiro, P., Fraile, G., Lu, C., Lu, L., Moreno-Velázquez, I., Pagon, M., Pitariu, H., Salamatov, V., Shima, S., Suarez Simoni, A., Siu, O.L., & Widerszal-Bazyl, M. (2007). Cross-national differences in relationships of work demands, job satisfaction and turnover intentions with work–family conflict. *Personnel Psychology*, *60*, 805–835.

Spector, P.E (1994). Using self-report questionnaires in OB research: A comment on the use of A controversial method. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 15*, 385-392.

Springer, K.W., & Hauser, R.M. (2002). *Survey Measurement of Psychological Well-Being* [Working Paper no. 2002-09]. Madison, WI: Center for Demography and Ecology,University of Wisconsin

Srivastava, S., Srivastava, U. R., and Srivastava, A. K. (2009). Qualitative exploration into the phenomenon of work-family facilitation in Indian context. *Indian Journal Social Science Researches, 6,* 92-102.

Stalcup, L. D., & Pearson, T. A. (2001). A model of the causes of management turnover in hotels. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 25*, 17-30.

Steers, R. M., &Mowday, R. T. (1981). Employee turnover and post-decision accommodation processes. In L.L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds). *Research in Organizational Behavior (pp.235-282)*. Greenwich, CT: JAI press.

Stephens, M. A. P., Franks, M. M., & Atienza, A. A. (1997). Where two roles intersect: Spillover between parent care and employment. *Psychology and Aging, 12*, 30-37.

Stevanovic, P., & Rupert, P.A. (2009).Work-family spillover and life satisfaction among professional psychologists. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 40*, 62-68.

Stoddard, M. & Madsen, S. R. (2007). Toward an understanding of the link between work-family enrichment and health. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management, 9,* 2-15.

Sumer, H. C., & Knight, P. A. (2001). How do people with different attachment styles balance work and family? A personality perspective on work-family linkage. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 653-663.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology, 46,* 259-293.

Thomas, L. T., & Ganster, D. C. (1995). Impact of family-supportive work variables on work-family conflict and strain: A control perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80,* 6-15.

Thompson, C. A., & Prottas, D. J. (2005). Relationships among organizational family support, job autonomy, perceived control, and employee well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11*, 100-118.

Timothy A. Judge, T.A., & Watanabe, S. (1993). Another look at the job satisfaction-life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 939-948.

Voydanoff, P. (1987). *Work and Family Life*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Voydanoff, P. (2002). Linkages between the work-family interface and work, family, and individual outcomes. *Journal of Family Issues, 23*, 138–164.

Voydanoff, P. (2004). The effects of work demands and resources on work-to-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 66*, 398–412.

Voydanoff, P. (2005). Social integration, work-family conflict and facilitation, and job and marital quality. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 67*, 666-679.

Wan,C. K., Jaccard, J.,& Ramey, S.L. (1996). The relationship between social support and life satisfaction as a function of family structure. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *58*, 502-513.

Wayne, J. H., Grzywacz, J. G., Carlson, D. S., & Kacmar, K. M. (2007). Work-family facilitation: A theoretical explanation and model of primary antecedents and consequences. *Human Resource Management Review, 17*, 63-76.

Wayne, J., Musisca, N., & Fleeson, W. (2004). Considering the role of personality in the work-family experience: Relationships of the big five to work-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 64,* 108-130.

Wayne, J., Randel, A. E., & Stevens, J. (2006). The role of identity and work-family support in work-family enrichment and its work-related consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *69,* 445-461.

Weiss, R. S. (1974). The provisions of social relationships. In Z. Rubin (Ed.), *Doing unto others* (pp. 17-26). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Westring, A.F., & Ryan, A.M. (2007). Personality traits of workers and the work-family interface. [on-line]. http://wfnetwork.bc.edu/encyclopedia_entry.php?id=6265&area=All

Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (2000). The role of organizational behavior in occupational health psychology: A view as we approach the millennium. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5,* 1-10.

Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (2000). Psychological well-being and job satisfaction as predictors of job performance. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5,* 84-94.

Yoon, J., & Lim, J. C. (1999). Organizational support in the workplace: The case of Korean hospital employees. *Human Relations, 52,* 923–945.

Young, K. W. (2006). Social Support and Life Satisfaction. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation, 10*, 155-164.

Zammuner, V.L. , Lotto, L. , & Galli, C. (2003). Regulation of emotions in the helping professions: Nature, antecedents and consequences. *Australian E-Journal for The Advancement of Mental Health, 2.*

Zedeck, S. (1992). *Work, Families, and Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Zedeck, S., & Mosier, K. L. (1990). Work in the family and employing organization. *American Psychologist, 45*, 240-251.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics

	N	%
Gender		
Males	289	54%
Females	245	46%
Full-time/Part-time		
Full-time	529	99%
Part-time	05	1%
Degree Offered		
Doctoral degree	505	94%
Master's	29	6%
Enrolment		
Less than 1000	-	-
Between 1001-5000	24	4%
Between 5001-10000	-	-
Between 10001-20000	5	0.9%
Above 20000	505	94%
Relationship Status		
Live alone	69	13%
In a committed relationship	428	80%
Live only with children	12	2%
Shared house, but no relationship	08	2%
None of the above	17	3%
Length of Service		
Less than 2 years	37	7%
More than 2, less than 5 years	143	27%
More than 5 years, less than 15 yrs	106	20%
Over 15 years	248	46%

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, Inter-correlations, and Reliability Coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha), N=534

Measure	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Perceived Org Support	5.39	1.27	(.93)									
2. Turnover Intentions	3.06	1.73	-.62**	(.87)								
3. Work-Family Facilitation	4.49	0.95	.28**	-.27**	(.79)							
4. Family-Work Facilitation	5.38	1.12	.02	-.07	.02	(.82)						
5. Coping	4.54	0.61	.20**	-.23**	.04	.16**	(.71)					
6. Job Satisfaction	5.72	1.04	.57**	-.52**	.37**	.07	.34**	(.89)				
7. Life Satisfaction	5.10	1.20	.30**	-.28**	.16**	.42**	.33**	.34**	(.88)			
8. Personal Rltns. Satisfaction:	4.93	1.60	.05	-.11**	-.15	.48**	.25**	.01	.63**	(.96)		
9. Family/Friend's Support	5.64	1.19	.18**	-.19**	-.10	.48**	.24**	.14**	48**	.65**	(.93)	
10. Self-efficacy	5.50	0.75	.14**	-.10*	.07	13**	.45**	.30**	.39**	.24**	.21**	(.90)

Note. Reliability coefficients are presented within parentheses along the diagonal.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$

Table 3
MANOVA outputs –Relationship between the demographic variable, 'school' and the main variables of –

	F	*df*	*Pr*
Perceived Organizational Support	0.83	3	0.48
Turnover Intentions	0.83	3	0.48
Work-Family Facilitation	1.26	3	0.29
Family-Work Facilitation	0.68	3	0.56
Coping	0.79	3	0.50
Job Satisfaction	0.20	3	0.89
Life Satisfaction	1.06	3	0.37
Personal Relationship Satisfaction	1.22	3	0.30
Family and Friend's Support	0.43	3	0.73
Self-efficacy	0.66	3	0.58

Total $N = 534$

None of the analysis provided significant results

Table 4
MANOVA outputs –Relationship between the demographic variable, 'gender' and the main variables of –

	F	*df*	*Pr*
Perceived Organizational Support	0.99	1	0.32
Turnover Intentions	0.25	1	0.62
Work-Family Facilitation	2.81	1	0.09
Family-Work Facilitation	0.07	1	0.79
Coping	3.34	1	0.69
Job Satisfaction	5.18	1	0.20
Life Satisfaction	1.24	1	0.27
Personal Relationship Satisfaction	7.11	1	0.01**
Family and Friend's Support	0.05	1	0.83
Self-efficacy	1.46	1	0.23

Total $N = 534$

** = $P \leq .01$

Table 5
MANOVA outputs –Relationship between the demographic variable, 'length of service' and the main variables of –

	F	*df*	*Pr*
Turnover Intentions	5.86	3	0.00**
Life Satisfaction	2.92	3	0.00**
Personal Relationship Satisfaction	3.64	3	0.00**

Total $N = 534$

** = $P < .01$

Table 6
Fit Indices for Original and Final Model 1

	Original Model	Final Model
Chi-Square	1293.79	824.61
df	287	109
RMR	0.29	0.23
GFI	0.65	0.76
AGFI	0.45	0.59
CFI	0.31	0.57
RMSEA	0.24	0.19

RMR = Root Mean Square Residual
GFI = Goodness of Fit Index
AGFI= Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
CFI= Comparative Fit Index
RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

Table 7
Regression Weights for Original and Final Model 1

	Original Model	Final Model
Perceived Organizational Support to Work-Family Facilitation	.28**	.21**
Friends and Family Support to Family-Work Facilitation	.45**	.45**
Family-Work Facilitation to Personal Relationships Satisfaction	.68**	.68**
Work-Family Facilitation to Job Satisfaction	.40**	.32**
Length of Service to Personal Relationship	.18	.18
Family-Work Facilitation to Life Satisfaction	.45**	.45**
Work-Family Facilitation to Turnover Intentions	-.005	-.004
Length of Service to Life Satisfaction	-.23	.17
Length of Service to Turnover Intentions	-.21**	-.21**
Job satisfaction to Turnover Intentions	------	-.84**
Coping to Work-Family Facilitation	-.06	-.06
Coping to Family-Work Facilitation	.07	.07
Self-efficacy to Work-Family Facilitation	.07	.07
Self-efficacy to Family-Work Facilitation	.02	.02

** = $p<.001$

Table 8
Fit Indices for Original and Final Model 2

	Original Model	Final Model
Chi-Square	386.04	99.12
df	78	22
RMR	.21	.08
GFI	.87	.96
AGFI	.75	.91
CFI	.76	.95
RMSEA	.17	.07

RMR = Root Mean Square Residual
GFI = Goodness of Fit Index
AGFI= Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
CFI= Comparative Fit Index
RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

Table 9
Regression Weights for Original and Final Model 2

	Original Model	Final Model
Perceived Organizational Support to Work-Family Facilitation	.21**	.22**
Friends and Family Support to Family-Work Facilitation	.47**	.46**
Family-Work Facilitation to Personal Relationships Satisfaction	.41**	.41**
Work-Family Facilitation to Job Satisfaction	.25**	.26**
Length of Service to Personal Relationship	.13	------
Family-Work Facilitation to Life Satisfaction	.46**	.46**
Work-Family Facilitation to Turnover Intentions	-.04	-----
Length of Service to Life Satisfaction	.08	-----
Job satisfaction to Turnover Intentions	-.82**	-.82**
Personal Relationships Satisfaction to Life Satisfaction	------	.31**
Job Satisfaction to Life Satisfaction	-------	.37**
Personal Relationships Satisfaction to Turnover Intentions	------	-.29**
Friends and Family Support to Life Satisfaction	-----	.54**
Length of Service to Turnover Intentions	-.21**	.27**

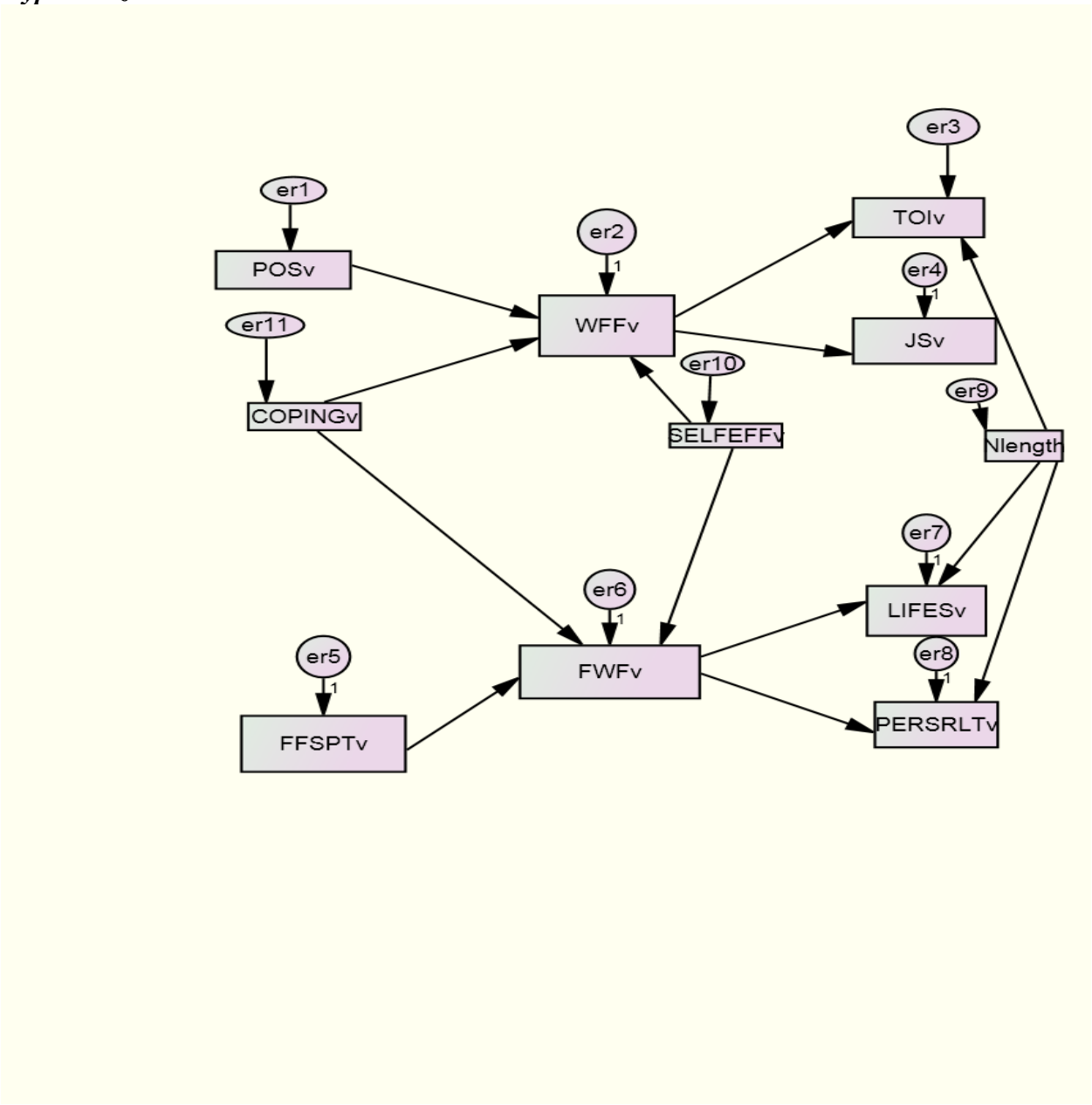
*** = $p<.001$*

Table 10
Fit Indices for Final Model 3

	Final Model
Perceived Organizational Support to Work-Family Facilitation	0.21**
Friends and Family Support to Family-Work Facilitation	0.47**
Family-Work Facilitation to Personal Relationships Satisfaction	0.31**
Work-Family Facilitation to Job Satisfaction	0.47**
Self-efficacy to Job Satisfaction	0.22**
Coping to Job Satisfaction	0.24**
Family-Work Facilitation to Life Satisfaction	0.35**
Length of Service to Turnover Intentions	-0.46**
Job satisfaction to Turnover Intentions	- 0.62**
Personal Relationships Satisfaction to Life Satisfaction	0.34**
Job Satisfaction to Life Satisfaction	0.31**
Personal Relationships Satisfaction to Turnover Intentions	-0.23**
Family and Friends' Support to Life Satisfaction	0.54**
Self-efficacy to Turnover Intentions	-0.35**
Self-efficacy to Life Satisfaction	0.27**

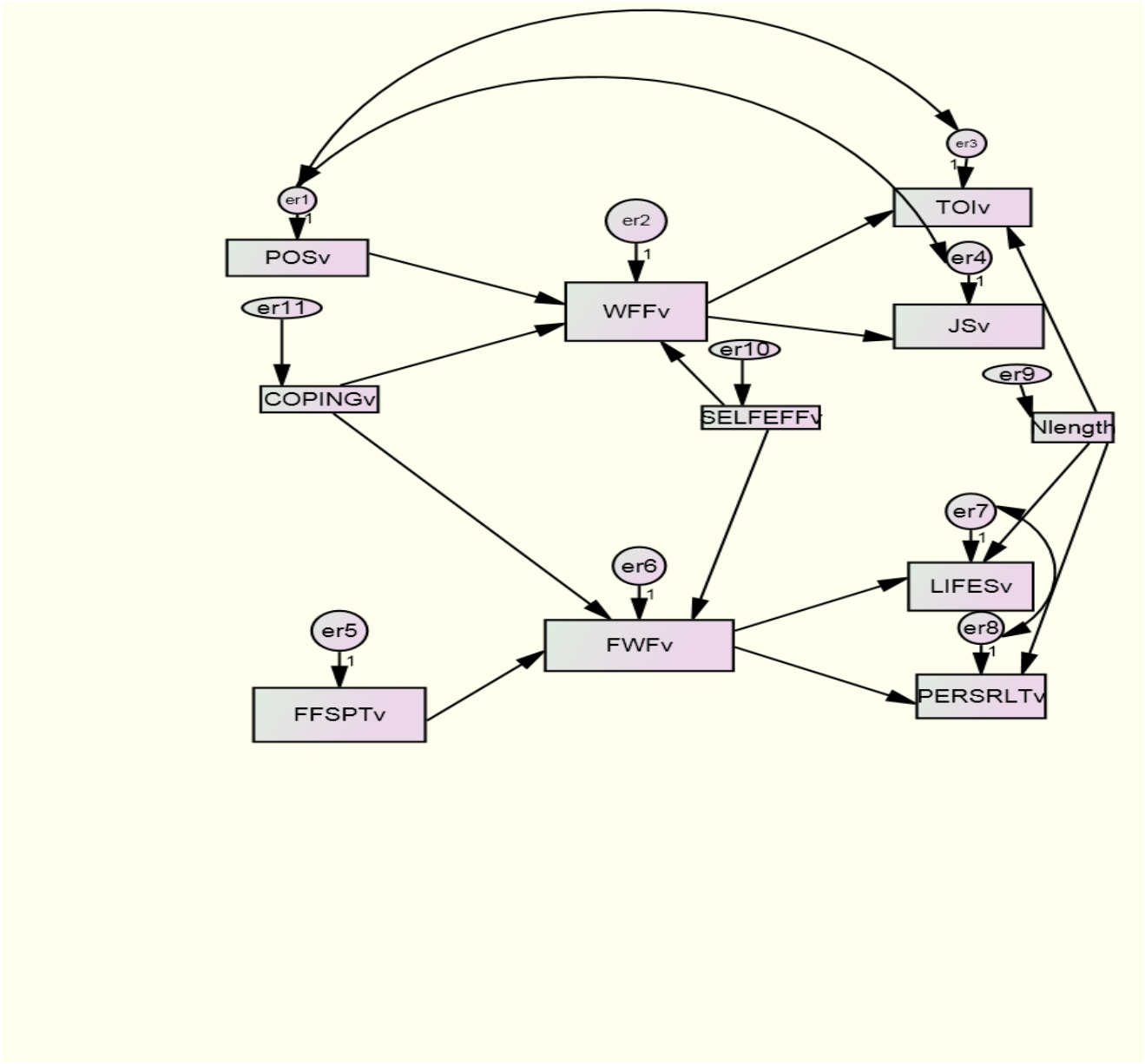
*** = $p<.001$*

Figure 1
Hypothesized Model 1



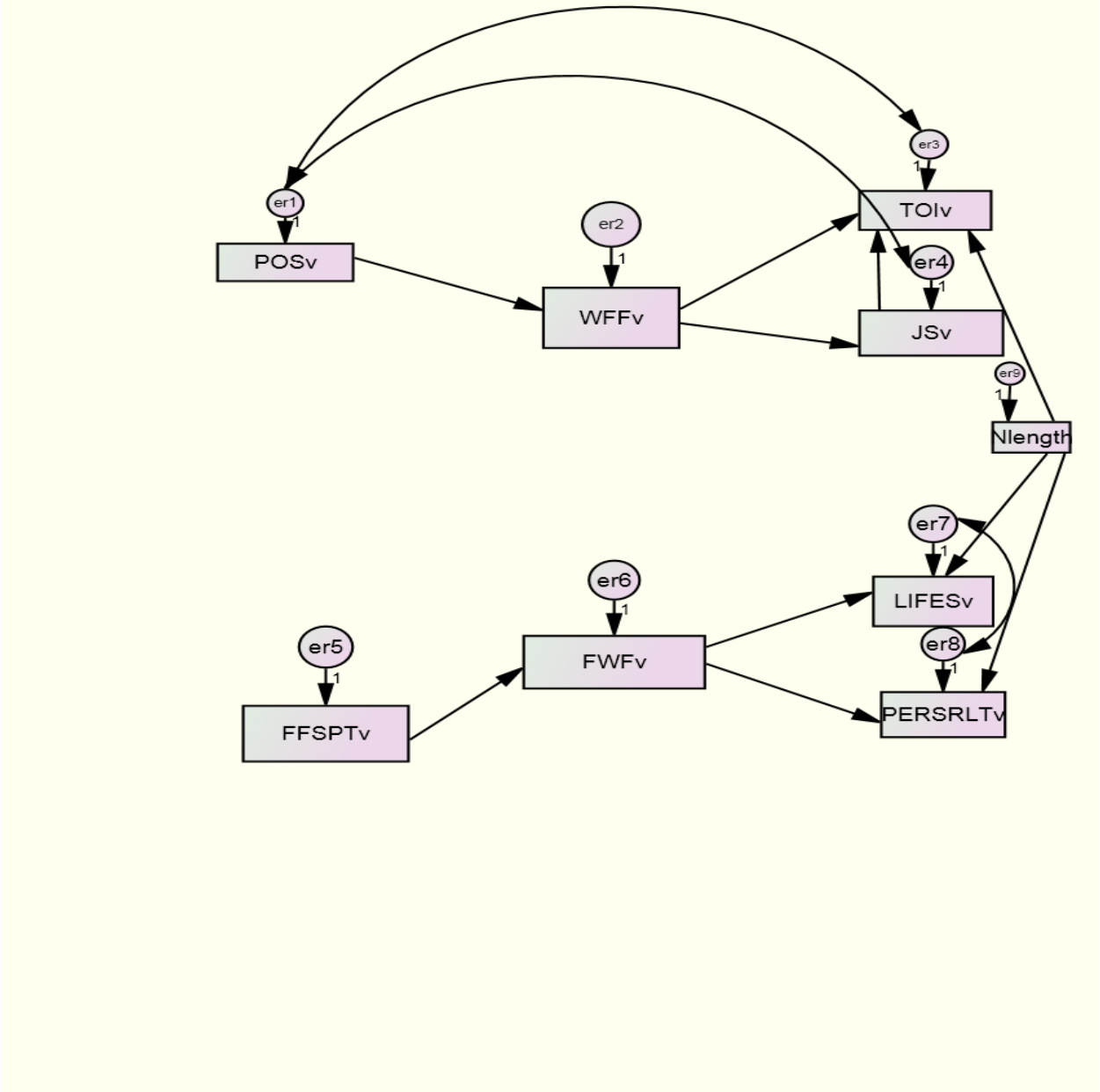
POSv – Perceived Organizational Support
FFSPTv – Family and Friends' Support
PERSRLTv – Personal Relationship Satisfaction
WFFv – Work-to-Family Facilitation
FWFv- Family-to-Work Facilitation
Nlength – Recoded 'Length of Service'
LIFESv – Overall Life Satisfaction
TOIv – Turnover Intentions
JSv – Job Satisfaction
COPINGv – Coping
SELFEFFv– Self-Efficacy
Er = error term

Figure 2
Modifications on Error terms, Model 1



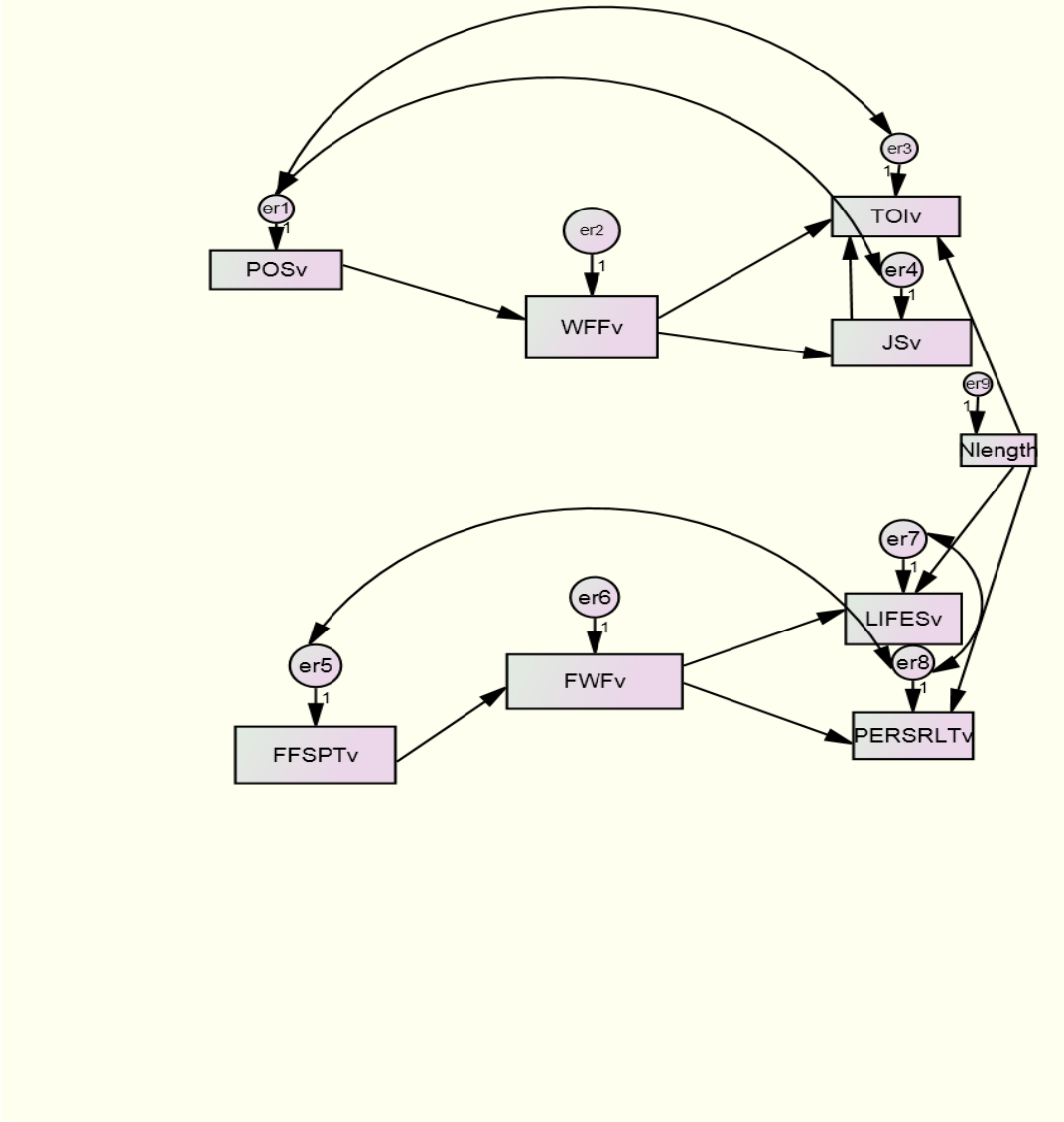
POSv – Perceived Organizational Support
FFSPTv – Family and Friends' Support
PERSRLTv – Personal Relationship Satisfaction
WFFv – Work-to-Family Facilitation
FWFv- Family-to-Work Facilitation
Nlength – Recoded 'Length of Service'
LIFESv – Overall Life Satisfaction
TOIv – Turnover Intentions
JSv – Job Satisfaction
COPINGv – Coping
SELFEFFv– Self-Efficacy
Er = error term

Figure 3
Hypothesized Model 2



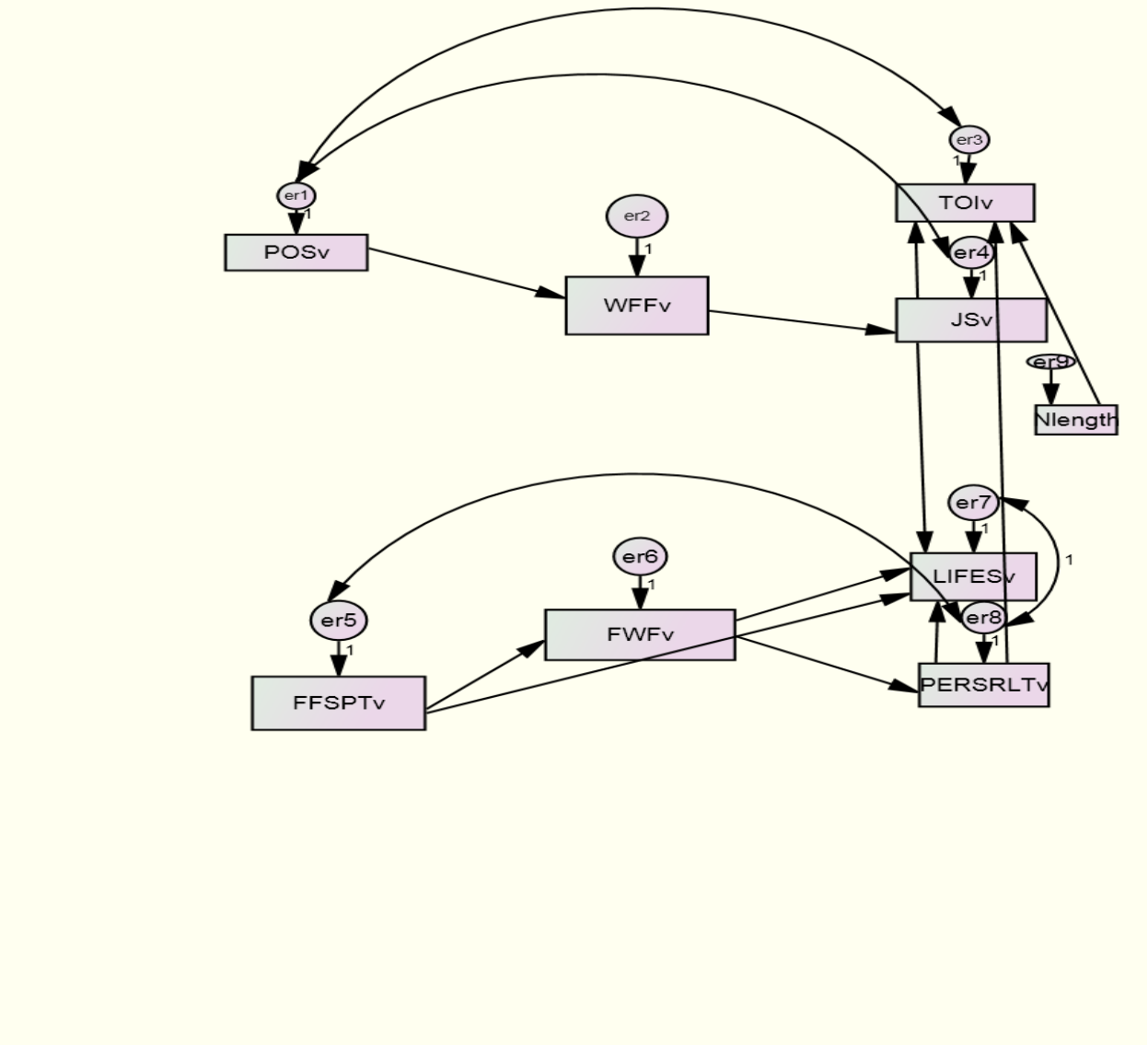
POSv – Perceived Organizational Support
FFSPTv – Family and Friends' Support
PERSRLTv – Personal Relationship Satisfaction
WFFv – Work-to-Family Facilitation
FWFv- Family-to-Work Facilitation
Nlength – Recoded 'Length of Service'
LIFESv – Overall Life Satisfaction
TOIv – Turnover Intentions
JSv – Job Satisfaction
er = Error Term

Figure 4
Model 2, after correlating error terms 5 and 8



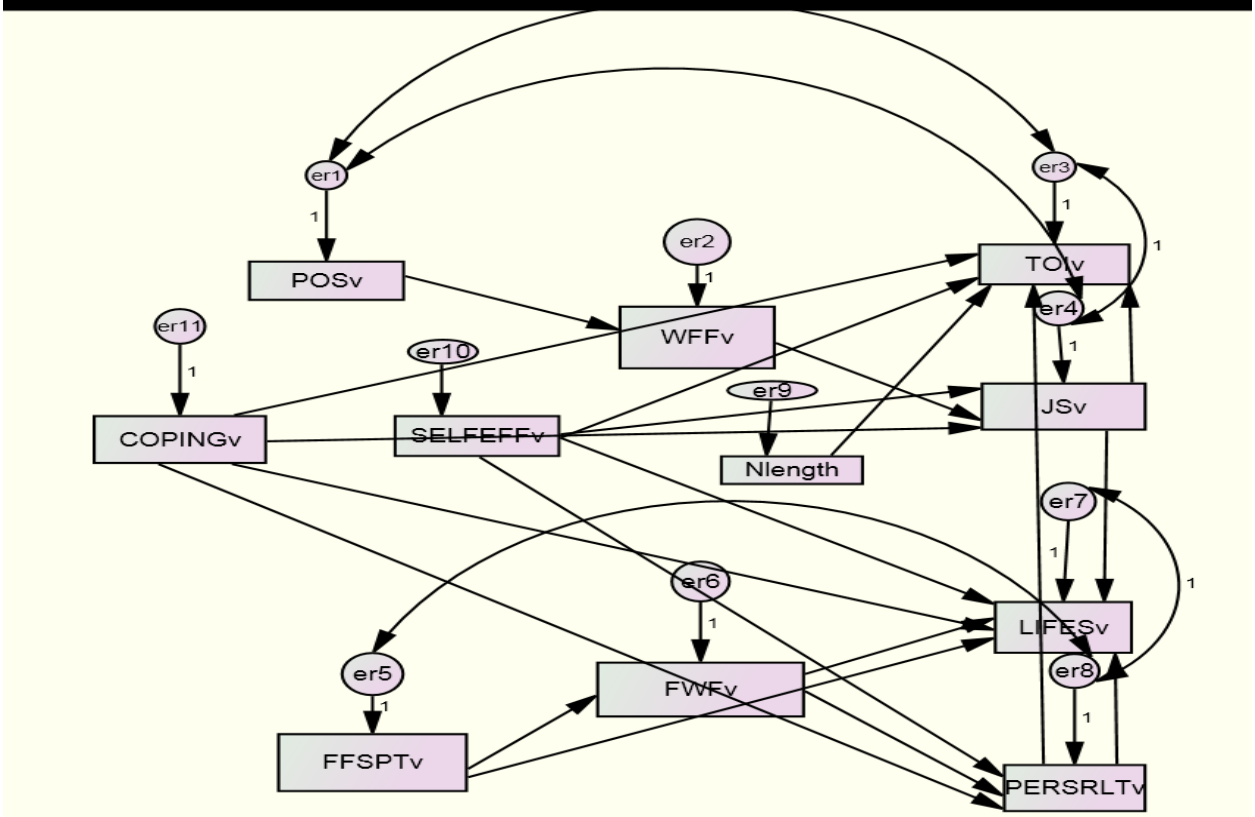
POSv – Perceived Organizational Support
FFSPTv – Family and Friends' Support
PERSRLTv – Personal Relationship Satisfaction
WFFv – Work-to-Family Facilitation
FWFv- Family-to-Work Facilitation
Nlength – Recoded 'Length of Service'
LIFESv – Overall Life Satisfaction
TOIv – Turnover Intentions
JSv – Job Satisfaction
er = Error Term

Figure 5
Model 2, final



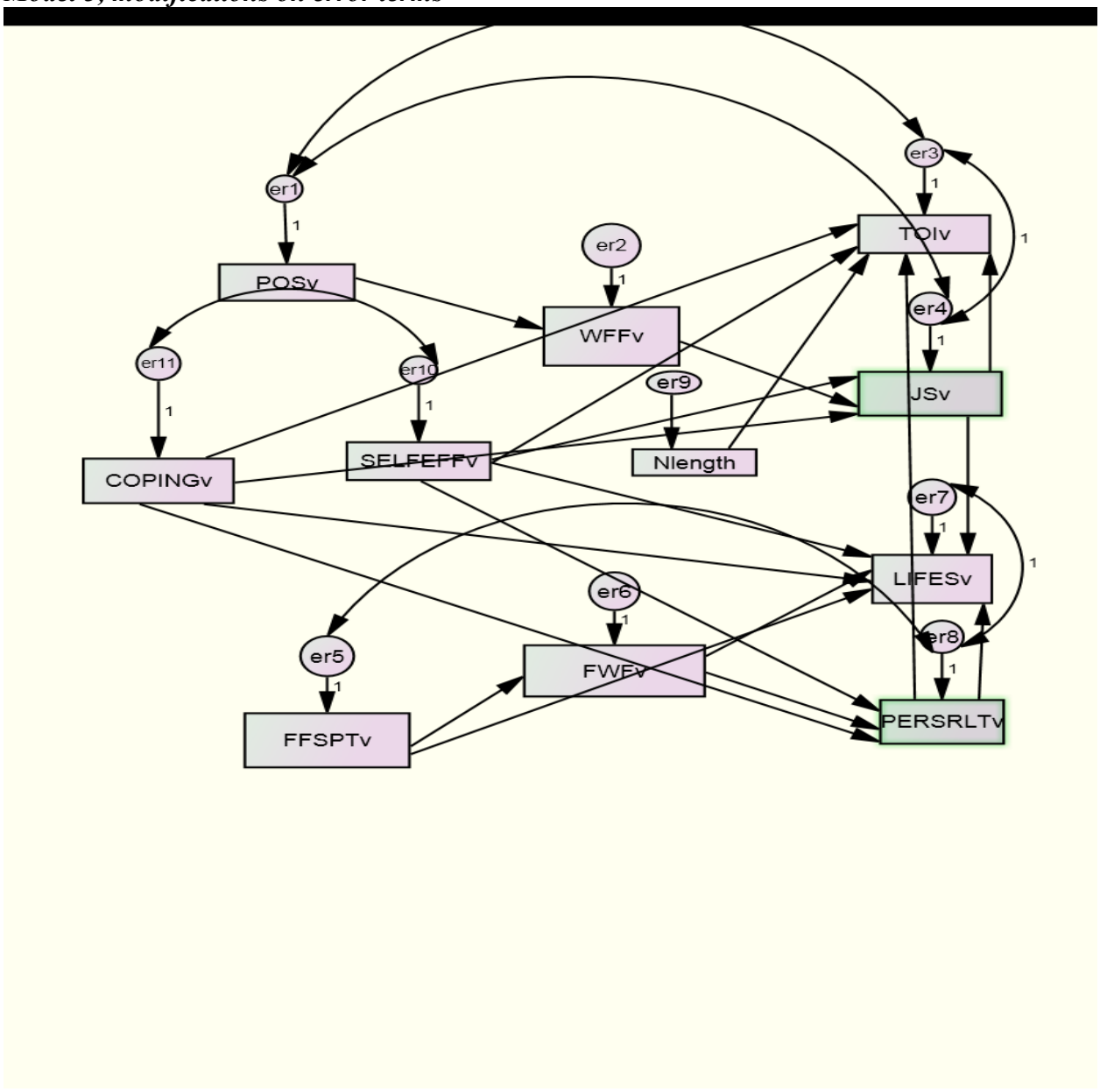
POSv – Perceived Organizational Support
FFSPTv – Family and Friends' Support
PERSRLTv – Personal Relationship Satisfaction
WFFv – Work-to-Family Facilitation
FWFv- Family-to-Work Facilitation
Nlength – Recoded 'Length of Service'
LIFESv – Overall Life Satisfaction
TOIv – Turnover Intentions
JSv – Job Satisfaction
er= Error Term

Figure 6
Hypothesized Model 3



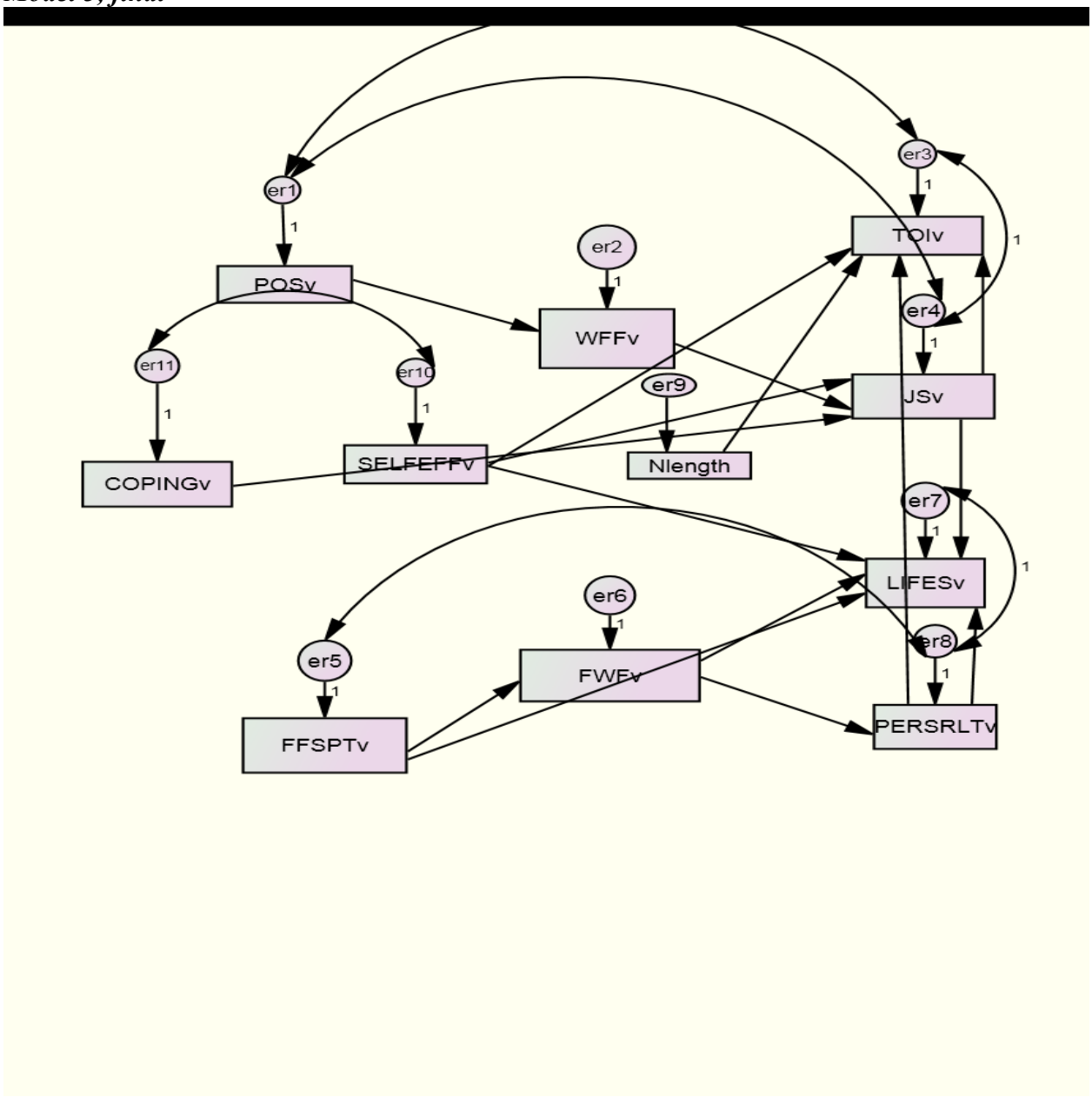
POSv – Perceived Organizational Support
FFSPTv – Family and Friends' Support
PERSRLTv – Personal Relationship Satisfaction
WFFv – Work-to-Family Facilitation
FWFv- Family-to-Work Facilitation
Nlength – Recoded 'Length of Service'
LIFESv – Overall Life Satisfaction
TOIv – Turnover Intentions
JSv – Job Satisfaction
COPINGv – Coping
SELFEFFv– Self-Efficacy
er=Error Term

Figure 7
Model 3, modifications on error terms



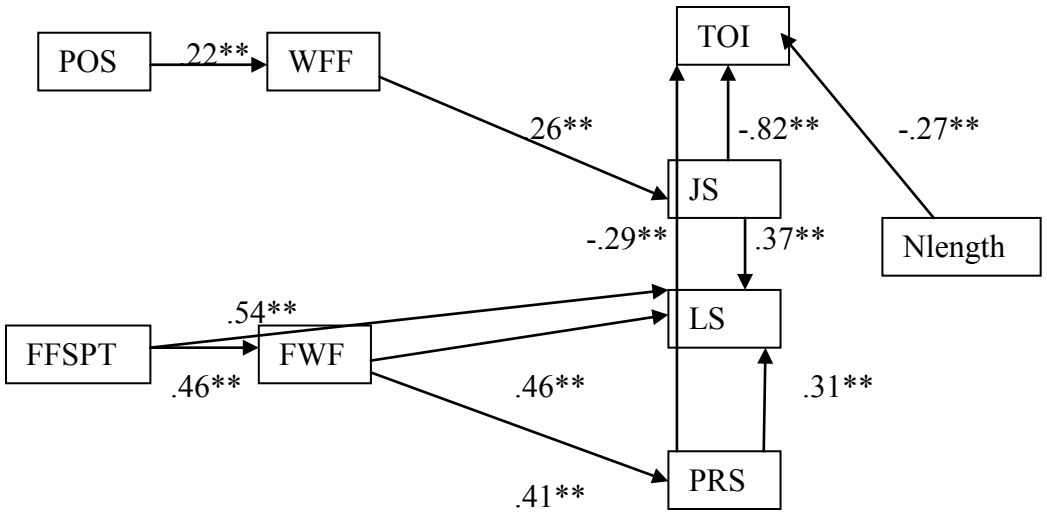
POSv – Perceived Organizational Support
FFSPTv – Family and Friends' Support
PERSRLTv – Personal Relationship Satisfaction
WFFv – Work-to-Family Facilitation
FWFv- Family-to-Work Facilitation
Nlength – Recoded 'Length of Service'
LIFESv – Overall Life Satisfaction
TOIv – Turnover Intentions
JSv – Job Satisfaction
COPINGv – Coping
SELFEFFv– Self-Efficacy
er=Error Term

Figure 8
Model 3, final



POSv – Perceived Organizational Support
FFSPTv – Family and Friends' Support
PERSRLTv – Personal Relationship Satisfaction
WFFv – Work-to-Family Facilitation
FWFv- Family-to-Work Facilitation
Nlength – Recoded 'Length of Service'
LIFESv – Overall Life Satisfaction
TOIv – Turnover Intentions
JSv – Job Satisfaction
COPINGv – Coping
SELFEFFv– Self-Efficacy
er=Error Term

Figure 9
Regression Weights of the Final Model (Model 2)



POS– Perceived Organizational Support
FFSPT – Family and Friends' Support
PRS– Personal Relationship Satisfaction
WFF– Work-to-Family Facilitation
FWF- Family-to-Work Facilitation
Nlength – Recoded 'Length of Service'
LS – Overall Life Satisfaction

TOI – Turnover Intentions
JS – Job Satisfaction
er= Error Term

Appendix A - Survey Description

Dear participant,

This survey intends to assess how you deal with pressures of your work and personal lives. We are primarily interested in how your work life influences your personal life. We hope that you will take about 20-25 minutes of your time to complete this survey.

Please complete all the questions as honestly as you can. This survey is carried out for academic research purposes only. As with any academic research, all results of this survey are confidential. No information that personally identifies you will be collected. Demographic questions asked are for research purposes only. Your responses are important for the success of this research project. If you have any questions about this study, please contact the primary investigator, Dr. Ronald G. Downey at downey@ksu.edu.

RISKS OR DISCOMFORTS ANTICIPATED: We do not foresee any risk or discomfort from participating in this study. You have the right to withdraw from completing this survey at any time without any penalty.

BENEFITS ANTICIPATED: An understanding of the dynamics of interaction between an individual's work and personal lives.

EXTENT OF CONFIDENTIALITY: The responses you provide are completely confidential. We will report only group information. Demographic questions asked are only for research purposes. No one will have access to the individual data except the primary and secondary researchers involved in this study.

IRB CHAIR CONTACT/PHONE INFORMATION: (This information is for the subject in case he/she has questions, or needs or wants to discuss any aspect of the research with an official of the university or the IRB)

• Rick Scheidt, Chair, Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224.

• Jerry Jaax, Associate Vice Provost for Research Compliance and University Veterinarian, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224.

O**pening Instructions:**

Please read the following terms of participation. If you agree with them, please proceed to the next page to start taking the survey. Thank you.

""TERMS OF PARTICIPATION: I understand this project is research, and that my participation is completely voluntary. I also understand that if I decide to participate in this study, I may withdraw my consent at any time, and stop participating at any time without explanation, penalty, or loss of benefits, or academic standing to which I may otherwise be entitled.

I verify that participation indicates that I have read and understand this consent form, and willingly agree to participate in this study under the terms described.""

Part-1

Demographic Questions

1. Are you a full-time employee in this organization? Yes No

2. How long have you been an employee in this organization?
   Less than 2 years
   Between 2 and 5 years
   Between 5 and 15 years
   Above 15 years

3. Please indicate your gender Male Female

4. What is your relationship/living status?
   Live alone
   Live with another adult in a committed relationship
   Live with no other adult, but with my/our children
   Live with another adult(s) in a shared household, but we are NOT in a relationship
   None of the above

5. Do you have children living at home? Yes No

6. If you have children living at home, how many children?

   One child Two children More than two children

Part – II

We are interested to know your opinion on a variety of issues that are related to your work life. Note that there are no correct or incorrect answers to the statements below. Please read each statement carefully and fill in the space under the number that corresponds to your level of agreement. Note that

1 = STRONGLY Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = SLIGHTLY Disagree
4= Neither Disagree nor Agree 5 = Slightly Agree 6 = Agree
7 = STRONGLY Agree

1. Perceived Organizational Support

Overall, how strongly do you agree with the following statements regarding support that you receive from your specific department?

1. My department values my contribution to its overall success

2. My department fails to appreciate any extra effort from me

3. My department would ignore any complaint from me

4. I feel that my department really cares about my well-being

5. Even if I did the best job possible, my department would fail to notice

6. My department cares about my general satisfaction in the program

7. Overall, I feel that my department shows very little concern for me

8. My department takes pride in my accomplishments at work

2. Turnover Intentions

1. Thoughts about quitting my organization have crossed/crosses my mind.

2. I plan to look for a new job within the next 12 months

3. Over the next year, do you think you will actively look for a new job outside of this organization?

3. Work-Family Facilitation

1. Talking with someone at work helps me deal with challenges at home

2. Spending time at work helps to relieve the stress I feel from home

3. My work energizes me so I can tackle the challenges of my personal life.

4. I feel more confident at home when I feel that I am being successful at my work

5. Having a successful day at work puts me in a good mood to better handle my personal responsibilities

6. Having a good day at work makes me a better person when I get home.

4. Family-Work Facilitation

1. Talking with someone in my personal life helps me deal with problems at work

2. The love and respect I get in my personal life makes me feel confident about myself at work

3. My personal life helps me relax and feel ready for the next day's work.

5. Coping

When I am under stress, I …..

1. Outline my priorities

2. Try to understand the situation

3. Think about the event and learn from mistakes

4. Analyze the problem before reacting

5. Tend to adjust my priorities

6. Tend to blame myself for procrastinating

7. I tend to become very tense

8. I tend to blame myself for being too emotional about the situation

9. I daydream about a better time or place

10. I fantasize about how things might turn out

11. I tend to treat myself to a favorite food or snack

12. I spend time with a special person

13. I visit a friend

14. I go and see a movie

15. I take time off and get away from the situation

6. Self-efficacy

1. I have to do things that I really do not have the time and energy for

2. I need more hours in a day to do all the things that are expected of me

3. I cannot ever seem to catch up

4. I do not ever seem to have any time for myself

5. There are times when I cannot meet everyone's expectations

6. I seem to have more commitments to overcome than other people (in similar positions) I know

7. Job Satisfaction

1. I feel fairly well-satisfied with my present work

2. Most days, I am enthusiastic about my work

3. I find real enjoyment in my work

4. Each day of work seems like it will never end

5. I consider my work rather unpleasant

8. Overall Life Satisfaction

1. In most ways, my life in general is close to my ideal

2. The conditions of my life in general are excellent

3. I am satisfied with my life in general

4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life in general

5. If I could live my life in general over, I would change almost Nothing

9. Personal Relationships Satisfaction

1. In most ways, my personal relationship in general is close to my ideal

2. The conditions of my personal relationship in general are excellent

3. I am satisfied with my personal relationship in general

4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in personal relationship in general

5. If I could live my personal relationship in general over, I would change almost Nothing

10. Family and Friends' Support

1. People in my personal life generally understand the way I feel about things

2. I can depend on the people in my personal life when I really need them

3. People in my personal life show their concern for my feelings and problems

4. I can trust the people in my personal life to keep their promises to me

5. I can open up about things that are really important to me to the people in my personal life