Role of Work and Family Enrichment in the Relationship between Environment factors and Outcomes in Work And Non-Work Domains

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Recently, researchers have started to draw a theory to explain the positive dynamics or work-family enrichment between work and family domains. Current study uses the Resources-Gain-Development model to attempt to explain work and family enrichment dynamics among academic faculty. Results found support for nearly all hypotheses, confirming that support in work and family domains played a crucial role in work and family enrichment which in turn led to positive outcomes in both domains. Contributions to literature and future research are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Positive experiences at the interface of work and family are demanding increased scientific and practical attention. Scientifically, topics such as work-family enrichment and work-family facilitation have proliferated in the literature, in part because evidence suggests they are distinct from negative experiences like work-family conflict (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). Moreover, there is increased evidence suggesting that positive experiences at the work-family interface are linked to valued employee and organizational outcomes (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). Concurrent with these scientific inquiries, organizations are noticing that a growing segment of the labor force seeks a well-fitting work and family situation and that "family friendliness" is an important attribute for securing competitive advantage in the marketplace.

Unfortunately, theoretical understanding of positive experiences at the interface of work and family remains underdeveloped. To date, most studies of work-family enrichment are not informed by theories designed to understand these phenomena. Instead, research is typically informed by theories designed for other purposes, including conservation of resources theory (for example, see Siu et al., 2015) which was designed to understand causes and consequences of stressor exposure (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993), or more generalized interpretations of system theory applied to managing the boundaries between work and family (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Clark, 2000) and experiences of work-family enrichment (e.g.,

McNall, Scott, & Nicklin, 2015). Even Greenhaus' and Powell's (2006) widely cited process model of work-family enrichment focuses primarily on mechanisms linking good experiences in one domain (e.g., work) with good experiences in the other (e.g., family), but lacks a unified theoretical explanation for why positive experiences at the interface of work and family occur.

There is a substantial need to develop a deeper theoretical understanding of positive experiences at the work-family interface. Scientifically, the intersection of work and family is a complex, secular reality for every working individual who has family responsibilities yet understanding of this reality remains simplistically focused on avoiding negative experiences. Understanding how the individual and social responsibilities of work and family come together in a positive and synergistic fashion is essential for understanding an orderly society, including effective subsystems of society like families and workplaces. Practically, as made crystal clear by results from the National Survey of Employers (2016), workers are increasingly demanding synergy in their work and family lives. Without solid theory of these synergies, evidence-based practices will languish.

Studies of the work-family interface often focus on employees in corporate and for-profit organizations. Theories of the work-family interface should be broadly applicable, including to workers from different types of employers outside the corporate setting. Higher education is an example of such a non-corporate employer; there are currently over 15 million academic faculty in the US (National Center from Education Statistics, 2016), yet we know surprisingly little about the work-family experiences of academic faculty. Therefore, the overall goal of this study is to refine theoretical understanding of workfamily enrichment, a positive individual-level experience at the interface of work and family (Casper, De Hauw, & Wayne, 2013; Grzywacz, Carlson, Kacmar, & Wayne, 2007). To achieve this goal, we test core propositions of the Resource-Gain-Development (RGD) Model (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007), the only integrated theoretically-based model of work-family enrichment. More specifically we test the proposition that environmental resources in the work domain enable work-to-family enrichment for academic faculty, whereas environmental resources in the family domain enable family-to-work enrichment. We also test the proposition that both directions of work-family enrichment contribute to beneficial effects in both domains (i.e., family and job satisfaction). Finally, we ask theoretically informed research questions about the role of self-efficacy to modify the hypothesized effects of environmental resources on work-family enrichment (bi-directionally), and work-family enrichment on family and job satisfaction.

BACKGROUND

As with any new area of scientific inquiry it takes time to clarify and refine key concepts. Many concepts have been introduced into the scientific space of "positive experiences at the interface of work and family." Some have studied "positive spillover" between work and family (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), whereas others have studied "work-family facilitation" (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004) and "work-family enrichment" (Gareis, Barnett, Ertel, & Berkman, 2009). Compounding the confusion, some authors have used the instruments to operationalize similar constructs under different names (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). Casper and colleagues (2013) attempted to "clean-up" and impose some guidelines on the literature, and the consequence has been that work-family enrichment is primarily conceptualized as an individual-level phenomenon reflecting how an individual is better at performing activities in one life domain (e.g., family) because of their responsibilities and activities in another life domain (e.g., work). By contrast, work-family enrichment is a system-level phenomenon reflecting how one social system (e.g., a family) performs better because of a system member's involvement in another social system (e.g., employment) (Grzywacz et al., 2007).

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

The Resources – Gain – Development (RGD) model (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007) articulates essential ideas for understanding work-family enrichment. Although Greenhaus and Powell

(2006) codified work-family enrichment and described the process, they did not elaborate its theoretical foundations or origins. The RGD model addresses these two missing elements by combining two bodies of the theory. First, the RGD model taps into Positive Organizational Scholarship (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003) and the fundamental principle that individuals hedonically seek to maximize positive experiences. The RGD model also uses two distinct ideas from Bioecological theory (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). First, work-family enrichment is conceptualized as a manifestation of human development which, according to Bioecological theory, is caused by progressively more complex interactions between the individual and the people, objects and symbols of his or her environment. Second, the form and power of person-environment interactions and their ability to produce work-family enrichment (i.e., human development) depends on discrete types of individual characteristics (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998).

Several propositions follow from the RGD model; however, three are central to the current analysis. First, the RGD model proposes that resources provide an opportunity for more complex interactions between the individual and his/her environment, thereby contributing to developmental outcomes such as work-family enrichment. Literature supports the notion that environmental resources, particularly those that are supportive in nature has positive implications for work-family enrichment (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; McNall, Nicklin & Masuda, 2010). Research also suggested that support from supervisors and colleagues is associated with greater work-to-family enrichment (e.g. Baral & Bhargava, 2010). Likewise, previous research suggested that greater support from family members or spouses is associated with greater family-to-work enrichment (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark & Baltes 2011). Therefore, based on the RGD model and previous research it was hypothesized that:

H1: Greater perceived organizational support is associated with greater work-to-family enrichment.

H2: Greater perceived family and friends support is associated with greater family – to work enrichment.

The RGD model also proposes that work-family enrichment is a manifestation of development that enables subsequent enhancements in performance. Engagement in multiple roles, especially high-quality roles, can bring positive outcomes for the individual (e.g. Voydanoff, 2001). Empirical findings also back the notion that resources in one domain (ex. work resources) may lead to work-family enrichment which contributes to valued outcomes in a receiving domain (Voydanoff, 2004). Thus, a flexible and supportive work environment has been associated with positive outcomes in the family domain (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Voydanoff, 2001). For instance, one may benefit from having an enhanced personality, such as learning to be more tolerant of diverse perspectives, through engaging in multiple roles (Sieber, 1974). Or, a supportive work environment may have an additive positive impact on individual's wellbeing (e.g. Stoddard & Madsen, 2007) and on having a higher marital quality (e.g. Voydanoff, 2001). Similarly, research also highlights family resources having a positive impact on work domain. Thus, family social support has been found to impact work satisfaction (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000), suggesting that family-to- work enrichment potentially leads to favorable outcomes. Based on these arguments, we propose:

H3: Greater work to family enrichment is associated with greater job satisfaction.

H4: Greater family to work enrichment is associated with greater personal relationship satisfaction.

It must be noted that work-family enrichment may not be restricted from having domain-specific benefits for satisfaction. Historically, work to family enrichment has been considered to have a crossdomain effect (Ford et al. 2007). Thus work-family enrichment is said to affect the family domain (receiving domain), and family to work enrichment is considered to affect the work domain (also receiving domain). This view has been challenged by researchers who contend that the consequences of work-family enrichment can be found in both the 'sending' and 'receiving domains.' Drawing on social

exchange theory, Peeters and colleagues (2013) argued that employees are likely to make cognitive attributions to the source of enrichment. This can have significances in the sending and receiving domains. For instance, work to family enrichment has been associated also with better job performance (van Steenbergen & Ellemers, 2009), suggesting that the impact was evident in the sending and receiving domains, supporting a within domain effect in addition to cross over effect. However, Hakanen, Peeters and Perhoniemi (2011) did not find family-to-work enrichment associated with work engagement (i.e., there was no cross-domain effect as traditionally expected). Such findings question the conventional view that work to family enrichment and family to work enrichment would predict only family outcomes and work outcomes respectively (Peeters, Brummelhuis & van Steenbergen, 2013). Because the RGD model was largely silent on the within and cross domain effects of work-family enrichment, we incorporated Peters and colleagues' thinking to hypothesize:

H5: Greater work to family enrichment is associated with greater personal relationship satisfaction

H6: Greater family-work enrichment is associated with greater job satisfaction.

We proposed self-efficacy as a moderator variable in our study based on following arguments. Bronfenbrenner and Morris (1998) specified three types of individual characteristics that can affect the form and power of person-environment interaction that leads to development, including "dispositional," "demand," and "resources." "Dispositional" characteristics are enduring elements of persons (e.g., personality) that enable or inhibit initiation of developmentally-generative person-environment interactions, while "demand" characteristics are attributes of individuals that elicit a different response from the social environment (e.g., gender, race, ethnicity). Finally, "resource" characteristics are those that allow individuals to extract greater potential from person-environment interactions.

We proposed self-efficacy, the moderator variable in our study, as a viable resource characteristic. Self-efficacy refers to "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura 1986, p. 391). Bandura (1986) argued that self-efficacy can affect one's choice of engaging (or not engaging) in a course of action. Those with high self-efficacy are more likely to utilize their resources to control their life events. High self-efficacy may help to control stress and distressing thoughts (Bandura, 1986), and may improve employee functioning and productivity in an organization (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). Higher self-efficacy individuals are more likely to seek out acquiring new skills, positive affect and even financial assets for one's family (Wayne, et al, 2007). Thus, self-efficacy can play an intervening role between environmental variables and work family enrichment, eventually leading to positive outcomes in both work and family domains.

The original RGD model is unclear on whether resource characteristics, like self-efficacy, influence only the path between resources and enrichment or if they can also affect the pathway between enrichment and outcome variables? As stated earlier, it is appropriate to anticipate that individuals with higher self-efficacy may be able to extract greater satisfaction from experiences of work-family/familywork enrichment. However, because the RGD model is silent on this question, we pose the following research question: "Does self-efficacy moderate the association between environment variables at work [and in family domains] and work-to-family [family-to-work] enrichment? Does self-efficacy also moderate associations between work-to-family [and family-to-work] enrichment and their respective outcomes?" We test these research questions through the following hypotheses.

H7: self-efficacy will moderate the association of perceived organizational support on job satisfaction, such that the association will be stronger for those with higher self-efficacy.

H8: self-efficacy will moderate the association of family and friends support on personal relationship satisfaction, such that the association will be stronger for those with higher self-efficacy.

WHY STUDY ACADEMICS?

Academics offer a unique background to study work and family enrichment. The professional life of faculty involves not only teaching, but also service and research. Student advising, establishing industry connections, collaborating with researchers locally and elsewhere are also part and parcel of a university faculty job (Sarwar, Waqas & Imran, 2014). Though there are variations regarding the number of courses taught, the number of committees led or served, and the number of publications needed to be "successful," the expectation is that faculty show commendable performance in all three domains. If is often considered, at least among research institutions, that faculty devote to research and, publish prolifically (Ward & Wold – Wendel, 2004). Research commitments tend to put a lot of strain on a faculty (Abouserie, 1996). Some institutions service to one's department or university as an integral part of a faculty job, in addition to teaching and research.

While most faculty do not follow a standard Monday thru Friday 8-5 schedule, this very flexibility can create challenges because of the absence of clear boundaries between work and family (Drago & Colbeck, 2003). These unclear boundaries are exaggerated by technology that facilitates communication irrespective of distance or location (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004). Being successful in one's profession as faculty is highly salient to one's professional identity especially after earning a doctoral degree and, sometimes, followed by a post-doc. Rewards in the form of tenure or promotion or even research funds allocation can sometimes be subjective, adding more pressure to faculty to put in longer work hours (Long & Fox, 1995). When work takes precedence over family, it may lead to conflict between family and work (Fox, Fonseca & Bao, 2011), and this has been the prominent topic of study in the work-family literature (for example, Eagan & Garvey, 2015; Winefield, Boyd & Winefield, 2014).

METHOD

Sample

Participants included 523 academic faculty members from four universities across the mid-west United States. Participants at a large 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.

Procedure

The data were collected using online survey created using the Axio survey system of the large University. The survey was comprised of demographic items, work and family enrichment scales, one personality measure, work and non-work environment variables and outcome variables. It 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. 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.

More information about the scales used is provided below.

MEASURES

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.' Reliability of this scale was .93.

Friends 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." Reliability of this scale was .93

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." Reliability of this scale was .90

Work-family Enrichment

Work-family enrichment 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." Reliability of this scale was .79

Family-work Enrichment

Family-work enrichment 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." Reliability of this scale was .82

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.' Reliability of this scale was .89

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." Reliability of this scale was .96

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 provides descriptive information about the sample. Of the 523 participants, slightly over half were male (56.2%). Almost all were full-time faculty (98.7%) with a doctorate degree (94.5%). Half reported to have been working for over 10 years. Over 80% reported in a committed relationship, and 38.6% had children. The means, standard deviations of the variables of interests are also provided (Table 1).

TABLE 1 DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION WITH DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS (N = 523)

Variables	M or n	SD	Range
Organizational Support	5.40	1.27	1.25 - 7
Family Friend Support	5.66	1.16	1.40 - 7
Self-Efficacy	5.49	.76	2.60 - 7
Work Family Enrichment	4.48	.94	1 - 7
Family Work Enrichment	5.39	1.11	1 - 7
Job Satisfaction	5.72	1.04	1.20 - 7
Personal Relationship Satisfaction	4.95	1.59	1 - 7
Demographics			
Gender			
Male	294		
Female	229		
Employment			
Fulltime	517		
Part time	6		
Length of Service			
Less than 1 year	17		
1-5 years	158		
5-10 years	105		
Relationship Status			
Live Alone	66		
Committed Relation	421		
Other	36		
Have Children			
Yes	202		
No	321		

Correlations

Table 2 provides the correlations among the study variables. The correlations reveal several important findings. First, perceived organizational support was positively and significantly associated with workfamily enrichment (r = .28, p < .01). Work-family enrichment was significantly associated with job satisfaction (r = .37, p < .01). Second, family friend support was positively and significantly associated with family-work enrichment (r = .48, p < .01). Family-work enrichment was associated with personal relationship satisfaction (r = .47, p < .01). Third, also significant but to a lesser degree, family-work enrichment was significantly associated with job satisfaction (r = .09, p < .05). The correlation between work-family enrichment and personal relationship satisfaction, however, was negative (r = -.15, p < .01). Finally, self-efficacy was significantly associated with family-work enrichment (r = .14, p < .01), job satisfaction, (r = .30, p < .01), and personal relationship satisfaction (r = .25, p < .01). With these preliminary findings, we now turn to hypotheses testing.

TABLE 2 CORRELATION AMONG VARIABLES

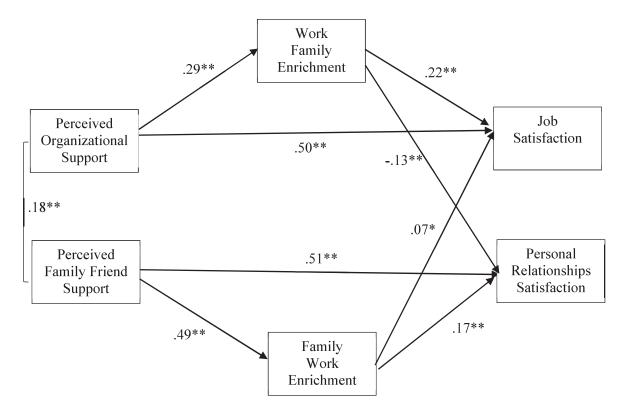
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Organizational Support	1.00						
2. Family friend Support	.18**	1.00					
3. Self-efficacy	.14**	.23**	1.00				
4. Work-to-Family Enrichment	.28**	09*	.07	1.00			
5. Family-to-Work Enrichment	.02	.48**	.14**	.03	1.00		
6. Job Satisfaction	.57**	.15**	.30**	.37**	.09*	1.00	
7. Personal Rel. Satisfaction	.05	.65**	.25**	15**	.47**	.02	1.00

** p < .01, * p < .05. Two-tailed test.

Hypotheses Testing

Path model was used to test the hypotheses. Figure 1 shows the results of the hypothesized within and cross domain effects (H1 to H6). Covariates (e.g., gender, length of service, relationship status) were included in the model (but not shown). The fit indexes indicated a reasonable fit of the model to the data: Chi-square (16) = 59.81, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .07, and Pc = .03.

FIGURE 1 MODEL TESTED WITH SIGNIFICANT VALUES, EXCEPT THOSE OF SELF-EFFICACY RESPORTED



To test the within domain association between support and enrichment (H1 and H2), perceived organizational support was positively related to work-family enrichment (b = .29, p < .01). Similarly, perceived family friend support was positively related to family-work enrichment (b = .49, p < .01). For the association between enrichment and outcome (H3 and H4), work-family enrichment was positively and significantly related to job satisfaction (b = .22, p < .01), and family-work enrichment was positively and significantly related to personal relationship satisfaction (b = .17, p < .01). The direct association between perceived organizational support and job satisfaction, and between family friend support and personal relationship satisfaction, were both still significant.

Regarding cross-domain effects (H5 and H6), family-work enrichment was significantly related to job satisfaction (b = .07, p < .05), whereas work-family enrichment was negatively related to personal relationship satisfaction (b = -.13, p < .01). The associations between perceived organizational support and personal relationship satisfaction, and between family friend support and job satisfaction, were not significant (and therefore were not included in the model).

Finally, self-efficacy was added into the model (not shown in figure 1), and interaction effects between self-efficacy (centered) and perceived organization support (centered), and between self-efficacy (centered) and family friend support (centered) were included to examine the moderating effects of self-efficacy (H7 and H8). The interaction effect between family friend support and self-efficacy on personal relationship satisfaction was significant (.22, p < .01). A closer investigation of the interaction effect suggested that the positive association between family and friends support on family-to-work enrichment was stronger when self-efficacy was high. The interaction effect between self-efficacy and perceived organizational support on work-to-family enrichment was not significant (.06, ns).

DISCUSSION

Interest in work-family enrichment has steadily increased in scientific and practical discussions of work and family life. Although the literature has grown substantially, few existing studies of work-family enrichment have been guided by theoretical models intended to understand the concept. The primary goal of this study was to build a better understanding of work-family enrichment, an increasingly important concept for organizational researchers and human resource practitioners. We sought to achieve this goal by testing the only theoretical model specifically designed to understand positive experiences at the interface of work and family; that is, the RGD model. Previous research studies have not used a workfamily enrichment theory but applied other stress theories or interpersonal behavior theories. Our study did not merely borrow other theories but tested a theoretical framework designed exclusively to comprehend positive experiences in the work-family interface. Further, virtually every hypothesis directly informed by the RGD model was supported in this sample of academics, and as such this study contributes to the literature. Moreover, elements of the study that tested ideas overlooked in the original formulation of the RGD model also contribute to the literature.

Overall, our proposed hypotheses derived directly from the RGD model received substantial support. First, collectively, all the hypotheses achieved a good model fit suggesting the explanation for why workfamily enrichment occurs (i.e., a form of individual development), and how that development occurs (i.e., through individual-environment interactions) is well-supported by data, thereby giving credibility to the theory underlying the RGD model. As workers expectations increase for greater synergy between work and family, it will become increasingly important that the entire experience of work-family enrichment (i.e., what it is, its origins, its antecedents, and its consequences) be understood so that organizations can design strategies to enable its emergence. When connected to the underlying theoretical explanation for how work-family enrichment occurs, our research suggests that organizations can purposefully manage experiences of enrichment through its provision of support-enhancing programs or initiatives. Organizations should make concrete efforts to let these initiatives known to employees.

Second, as far as the fit of individuals paths was concerned, environmental resources in work [and family domains were found to enable work-family [and family-work enrichment] to occur. There is now a growing and well-developed literature (for e.g., Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hansen, 2009; Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012) indicating that perceived work-place support is beneficial for work-family experiences including work-family enrichment. However, in the absence of strong theory, there is no unifying way to understand the overall pattern of results from different studies that used non-work-family enrichment to study the role of 'support.' Our results based on a work – family enrichment theory suggest that perceived supports, both from the organization and the family, provide a concrete tool for individuals to interact with their environment in a way that produces growth or development. This type of explanation is defensibly more parsimonious than those derived from stress and coping theories (e.g., COR) which assume individuals seek resources that once obtained contribute to better outcomes by offsetting resource losses.

Third, as our results suggest, work-family enrichment has cross-domain implications. These results are consistent with Peeters' and colleagues' (2013) argument that employees make cognitive attributions to the source of enrichment, thereby contributing to benefits within and across domains (e.g., greater work-to-family enrichments benefits both work and family). Our results also replicate and extend previous research (e.g. Carlson, Hunter & Ferguson, 2014; Jaga & Bagraim, 2011 respectively) by suggesting that Human Resource solutions often discussed for corporate employees may be effectively applied in the academic setting to promote positive attributes across life domains for academic faculty (Amelink & Creamer, 2007; McNall, Masuda & Nicklin, 2010). Unfortunately, the cross-domain associations observed in this study were not completely intuitive. Specifically, we found that greater work-to-family enrichment was associated with poorer (rather than better) personal relationship satisfaction. It is possible that this observation reflects some type of compensatory effect wherein individuals with poorer personal relationships are seeking supports or advice from coworkers or EAP programs to resolve relationship challenges. In cross-sectional data, help-seeking behavior in the workplace could manifest as a negative association: this is an important consideration for future research. Nevertheless, our results along with those from other studies (e.g. Carlson, Hunter & Ferguson, 2014; Jaga & Bagraim, 2011) and Peeters' and colleagues' (2013) theorizing also suggest that the RGD model may need to be expanded to accommodate both within and cross-domain implications.

Finally, our consideration of the modifying effects of 'self-efficacy' on environmental resources adds to the literature. Specifically, we found the association between family and friend support and family-towork enrichment to be stronger among individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy, but we did not see a comparable pattern for work-to-family enrichment from perceived organizational support. This pattern is simultaneously compelling and intriguing. It is compelling because it is consistent with the RGD model's proposition that resource characteristics (e.g., self-efficacy) allow some individuals to extract greater benefit from environmental attributes and subsequent person-environment interactions to produce developmental outcomes like work-family enrichment. We believe this is the first study to document partial support for this proposition. The finding is also intriguing, though, because the pattern was only observed for the family-to-work direction and not the work-to-family direction, which raises questions about the "availability" of different types of resources. Support in basic human relationships, such as those with family and friends have few (if any) structural strings attached to them, with the possible exception of reciprocity. By contrast, supports from coworkers and employers may have explicit expectations of reciprocity or structural imperatives (e.g., only full-time employees have access) that limit the extent to which between-person attributes like self-efficacy may enable differential effects for endusers of those supports. This is an interesting and important consideration for future research.

CONTRIBUTIONS

Our study provides two important contributions to existing literature. One, this study has explicit focus on academics which is a contribution to literature. Most research on work and family interface issues have focused primarily on employees in corporations and others in the for-profit sector of the economy. It is important that studies on work and family dynamics be extended to workers in other sectors of the economy. Toward this end, studying faculty employed in higher education is meaningful because few studies have considered work and family experiences of professionals in this industry. Second, the original purpose of RGD model was to apply it to general worker population. However, the results we obtained in this project allude to the fact that this model holds equally well to professionals in academia. Institutions of higher education and their Human Resources staff interested in attracting and retaining professionals can ideally apply the results of this study.

LIMITATIONS

The contributions of this study need to be considered in light of the study's limitations. The sample design relied on passive recruitment, minimizing the ability to generalize our study findings to the broader universe of faculty. Data were collected via an online platform and the associated problems inherent in survey research, including influence of one's mood while completing the survey and possible misinterpretation of study instructions and instruments are possibilities. Although these shortcomings are offset by our use of established instruments and modeling strategies that account for measurement error, problems with common method variance and the possibility of response biases persist. Causal inference is not possible due to cross-sectional nature of our data. Finally, as this was the first study explicitly designed to test propositions of the RGD model, and it was purposefully undertaken in a homogeneous professional occupation, we kept the model simple, wanting to limit many demographic (e.g., race), structural (e.g., marital or parental status, teaching versus research-intensive institution) or specific field (e.g., science versus humanities) variables. Future research should replicate these findings while considering possible systematic sources of variation attributed to the socio-cultural forces underlying these types of factors.

CONCLUSION

Work-family enrichment studies have been gaining attention and interest of researchers. Organizations, especially their human resources, are taking results from such studies more seriously than before to attract and retain a talented workforce. It is crucial that work-family enrichment studies be conducted using theoretical models designed to understand the phenomenon, and to include samples from diverse segments of the for-profit and not-for-profit economy. The current study tested propositions put forward by RGD model. More studies incorporating additional variables are needed to not only solidify the RGD model propositions but also to further understanding of work-family enrichment and develop human resources policies that facilitate its development.

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