

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

**WORK-FAMILY INTERFACE AND WORK OUTCOMES: THE MODERATING
ROLES OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY, COLLECTIVISM AND POWER
DISTANCE**

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Annie Owusua Nkulenu, declare that this work is the result of my research, undertaken in the Psychology Department, University of Ghana, Legon, and has not been presented by anyone for any academic award in this or any other university. All references used in this work have been fully acknowledged.



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ABSTRACT

Balancing the demands of work and family is a persistent challenge for many employees in the service sector, often leading to significant stress and potential conflict. Certain stressors affect mental well-being universally, and cultural factors appear to shape how individuals perceive and respond to family-work-related stress, influencing the degree to which it impacts mental health. This study investigates the relationship between Work-Family Conflict, Work-Family Enrichment and Work Engagement, Work Role Performance, and the moderating roles of proactive personality, collectivism, and power distance from the context of the service sector in Ghana. The study employed the Job-Demands Resources Theory and the Challenge-Hindrance Model as its theoretical lenses. Using the quantitative research approach, questionnaires were administered to 250 employees in the service sector (banking and finance, telecommunication, and hospitality). The study found that Work-Family Conflict did not significantly predict Work Engagement. However, higher level of Family-Work Conflict was associated with a lower level of Work Engagement. While Proactive Personality was significantly related to Work Engagement, it did not significantly moderate the relationship between Work-Family Conflict/Family-Work Conflict and Work Engagement. It was further observed that Power Distance significantly moderates the relationship between WFE and all three dimensions of Work Role Performance (Task Proficiency, Task Adaptivity, and Task Proactivity). However, Power Distance was not found to moderate the relationship between Family-Work Enrichment and any of the dimensions of Work Role Performance (Task Proficiency, Task Adaptivity, and Task Proactivity). Collectivism was also found to moderate the relationship between Work-Family Enrichment and only Task Adaptivity. Collectivism does not moderate the relationship between Work-Family Enrichment and Task Proficiency, Task Adaptivity, and Task Proactivity, as well as between Family-Work Enrichment and two dimensions of Work Role Performance. The findings were discussed and recommendations

made for research, organisational policy, and practice for improvement in work-life situations.





DEDICATION

**To my husband, Divine M.K.D. Nkulenu and children, Denelle, Daryl, and Duke
Nkulenu**

**To my parents, siblings, in-laws, and friends for their support through my PhD
journey**



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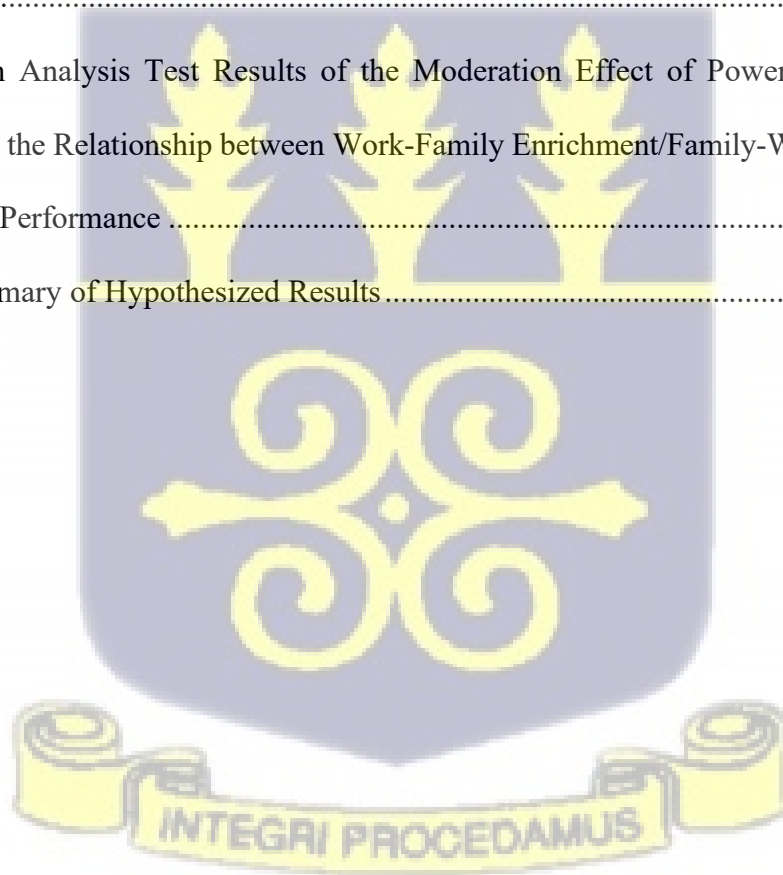
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Full Description/Meaning
WFC	Work-Family Conflict
FWC	Family-Work Conflict
WFI	Work-Family Interface
JD-R	Job Demands Resources
COR	Conservation of Resources
CHM	Challenge Hindrance Model
WFE	Work-Family Enrichment
FEW	Family-Work Enrichment



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, the interaction between work and family roles was often structured around clear boundaries, with employees typically managing work responsibilities within the physical office and attending to family roles primarily at home (Kubacka et al., 2023). In-person work environments and traditional working hours provided a defined separation between these two domains, enabling employees to compartmentalize work and family tasks. Although the impact, such as blurring of the interaction between work and family existed before COVID-19 (Powell, 2020), it was often experienced in specific circumstances and based on job characteristics such as long work hours, overtime, or work-related travel, in addition to socio-economic status and gender (Coyle et al., 2023; Hoobler et al., 2021; Pascucci et al., 2022). Various well-meaning organizations provided varying degrees of support and flexibility, yet the default mode of work largely preserved the boundaries, keeping the two domains relatively distinct.

However, the COVID-19 pandemic made the separation between work and family worse, especially for working parents and employees caring for other family members, as they found it increasingly difficult to maintain distinct boundaries between their work and family roles (Hokke et al., 2023; Kubacka et al., 2023). This resulted in collapsed role boundaries where work and family demands became intermixed, often occurring simultaneously and within the same physical space. It is worth noting that even in post-COVID-19, these collapsed role boundaries still exist (Hokke et al., 2023). Andrade and Petiz-Lousã (2021) acknowledged that even without the added pressures of COVID-19, employees regularly report

experiencing conflicts between family and work responsibilities. The pandemic only intensified these challenges, amplifying the strain on individuals in both developing and developed nations (Poggesi et al., 2019; Soomro et al., 2018).

On one hand, while empirical evidence shows that some employees adapted to the new demands of balancing work and family within a shared space, experiencing a gradual decrease in WFC, many individuals continued to struggle with high levels of conflict (Hokke et al., 2023). This is because the COVID-19 pandemic fundamentally altered the way people navigate between work and family (Contreras et al., 2020; Rana et al., 2021; Yildiz et al., 2021). It introduced various work-from-home technologies and strategies. The rapid shift to remote work and telecommuting, spurred by public health restrictions, forced employees to manage their work demands within the home environment, which now doubled as their workplace.

As technological advancements continue to enable remote work and enhance work flexibility, they also reshape traditional boundaries and expectations. For instance, technological tools that facilitate communication and productivity such as Zoom, Jira, Google Workspace and Microsoft Workspace apps allow employees to work across different times and spaces, but the constant connectivity can heighten the overlap of work and family roles. This overlap has potential implications for the quality of work engagement and work-family enrichment (WFE), particularly where cultural values such as power distance and collectivism influence how individuals navigate these blended roles. Moreover, while a hybrid work schedule can improve work-life balance by allowing employees some control over their work location, studies indicate that the more time employees spend working remotely, the more they may experience WFC (Hoobler et al., 2021; Pataki-Bittó & Kapusy, 2021). This is likely due to the increased overlap between work and family responsibilities, leading to challenges in establishing clear

boundaries between professional and personal roles.

The above challenges in balancing work and family are particularly pronounced in sectors that demand extensive human involvement and adaptability, such as Ghana's service sector. The service sector of Ghana, being the largest contributor to Ghana's gross domestic product (GDP) is heavy on manpower as the most important resource and human-based behaviour and attitudes. These are influenced by service demands, prolonged working hours, and periodic fluctuations (Adu et al., 2024; Emissah et al. 2016). These demands influence how engaged workers are while executing their roles at work and out of work. The contemporary workplace is an intricate and ever-changing environment where employees consistently manage numerous roles and obligations. While at that, one cannot ignore the other important part of an individual's life, the family.

Work and family are the two most important central domains of adult life (Kuschel, 2017; Michel et al., 2011). Work is essential to adulthood, offering economic security, a sense of purpose and chances for individual development. Work also facilitates the acquisition of skills, the establishment of social connections, and the attainment of professional objectives for individuals. Adults tend to modify their professional lives to accommodate their family obligations, highlighting the substantial influence of work in attaining a harmonious lifestyle. The significance of family life lies in its ability to offer emotional support, affection, and a feeling of inclusion. Participating in familial activities and fulfilling responsibilities can strengthen one's emotional well-being and equip individuals to face life's obstacles.

Over the past few decades, there has been a growing interest in understanding work-family experiences and the dynamic interplay between these domains (Allen & French, 2023). The relationship between work and family can take various forms, including conflict, enrichment,

segmentation, and integration, and it can significantly impact the well-being of individuals and organizations (Miller et al., 2022). These two domains interact with each other, resulting in both negative and/or positive feedback. Work and family interactions are important factors that significantly affect the well-being, engagement and performance of employees. One example of a positive outcome is the ability to balance work and family interactions by considering resources, known as Work to Family Enrichment (WFE) (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). Work-family conflict (WFC) may also occur when the demands and responsibilities of an employee's job conflict with the demands and responsibilities of their family life (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This results in negative feedback from the interaction. Many individuals struggle to balance their work and family responsibilities, leading to negative outcomes such as burnout, job dissatisfaction, family dissatisfaction and turnover intentions (Rubab, 2017).

The dynamics of work and family roles have also undergone significant changes in response to socio-economic and cultural transformations. Women's increased participation in the workforce and men's growing involvement in family and household tasks have made the traditional gendered division of labour more fluid and flexible. However, the blurring of boundaries between work and family domains has also given rise to the issue of work-family conflict (WFC), which refers to the strain and stress that arises from conflicting demands, pressures, and expectations between work and family roles. The purpose of this thesis is to provide an overview of the research on the interaction between work and family and its outcomes, focusing on the moderating processes that may influence this interaction, taking into consideration the JD-R theory and the Challenge-Hindrance theory.

1.1 Background

Work-Family Conflict (WFC) is a common issue that can have negative consequences for

both employees and their organizations (Nauman et al., 2020). This type of conflict significantly affects employees' level of engagement. This is because work-family conflict can lead to stress and a lack of work-life balance, making it difficult for employees to feel fulfilled and motivated in their work. Specifically, high job and family demands predict higher levels of psychological exhaustion and stress (Bakker et al., 2010; Schaufeli, 2017). In contrast, job resources are predictors of employee engagement (Bakker et al., 2014; Hakanen et al., 2008) and may also buffer the negative impact of job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), thereby influencing the level of employees' engagement. Engagement is an important predictor of organizational outcomes such as work performance and turnover (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

In the quest to expand the theoretical basis of work-family research and explanation of work-family experiences (Allen & French, 2023), WFC is assessed in the Challenge-Hindrance Stressor perspective. WFC can function either as a challenge or a hindrance stressor (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Extant studies indicate that individuals may appraise and respond to stressors in different ways. Thus, the impact of WFC on employee well-being depends on individual perceptions and coping strategies. When WFC is perceived as a challenge stressor, it can lead to increased engagement, as individuals may feel motivated to find ways to cope with the conflicting demands and may feel a sense of accomplishment when they are successful. Conversely, when WFC is perceived as a hindrance stressor, it can lead to decreased well-being, as individuals may feel overwhelmed and unable to effectively manage the conflicting demands. Subsequently, individual differences (personality traits) play a major role in the appraisal of stressors (Kilby, Sherman & Wuthrich, 2018). One of such personality traits is a proactive personality.

Proactive personality is a protective factor against the negative effects of WFC (Baker et al., 2004). Thus, a proactive personality may play a moderating role in how WFC affects engagement. Consistent with the Job Demand-Resource (JD-R) model and the Challenge-Hindrance Model (CH-M), proactive personality is considered a personal resource that can be utilized to manage work and family stressors. Given the significance of proactive personality in the interaction between work-family conflict (WFC), engagement, and work role performance, etc., it is necessary that much research is conducted to deepen the existing understanding of its effect on work-family interaction. Currently, prior studies show inconclusive evidence regarding the effects of WFC on engagement. For example, some studies indicate that WFC is negatively related to both outcomes (Obrenovic et al., 2020; Ribeiro et al., 2021) while others have found no relationship or even a positive relationship (Macit & Ardiç 2018; Tabassum, Farooq, & Fatima, 2017; Wang, Tsai, Lee, & Ko, 2021). One potential explanation for these inconsistent findings is the moderating role of individual differences, such as proactive personality. Yet less attention has been given to the effect of WFC on engagement and how proactive personality moderates the relationship between WFC and employee well-being from the perspectives of the CH-M (Allen & Eby, 2016; Casper et al., 2018; Jawahar et al., 2012).

Culture also plays a role in Work-Family Enrichment (WFE) (Zhang et al., 2018) thus, WFE is culture-specific (Baral & Bhargava, 2011). Yet, few studies have examined the moderating roles of cultural values such as collectivism and power distance in the relationship between WFE and its consequences. The few that exist also tend to focus on Western and developed countries (e.g., Brougham, Haar, & Roche, 2015; Wang, Luo, & Wang, 2020; Xu et al., 2018). The African context, with its collectivistic self-construal, represents a unique context

for exploring the causative influence of WFE on work role performance. Additionally, most existing research on work-family interactions focuses on the conflict perspective (Allen et al., 2020), with less attention paid to the positive aspects, such as enrichment (Cui & Zhang, 2021).

This study aims to investigate the relationship between WFC, WFE, and work engagement, work role performance, and the moderating role of proactive personality, collectivism, and power distance from the context of the service-based industry in Ghana.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the plethora of research exploring the intersection of work and family, most of these studies have been rooted in Western cultural contexts, particularly in North America and Western Europe (Hoobler et al., 2021). For instance, WFC has been studied in Canada, USA (Altura et al., 2021; Kiburz et al., 2017; McNall et al., 2021; Montani et al., 2020), Spain (Bande et al., 2019; Elahi et al., 2022; Escarda et al., 2022; Gago-Valiente et al., 2022), Israel (Kulik, 2024; Yagil et al., 2023), and China (Chen et al., 2020; Cui & Li, 2021; Liu et al., 2020a; Tang et al., 2023; Xin et al., 2020). Other studies were cross-national (Allen et al., 2020; Ben-Uri et al., 2022; Kelley et al., 2021; Montani et al., 2020). A few of these studies have been conducted in Africa, especially in the Ghanaian context (Akoensi & Annor, 2021; Annor, 2016; Nkulenu, 2015).

From the above, there seem to be a geographical research gap, as the majority of WFC studies have been conducted in East Asian countries (China) and Western countries, often at the

expense of underrepresented regions like Africa. This has led to a predominance of Western assumptions and models in understanding work-family conflict, often with the expectation that findings will generalize across diverse global contexts. However, the applicability of these models to non-Western contexts, such as Ghana, remains questionable, as cultural values, norms, and role expectations vary significantly. According to a meta-analytic study by Allen et al. (2020) among different countries, it was found that the strength of the relationships between work-family conflict and its outcomes (stress, work engagement, or family satisfaction) vary significantly across different regions and cultural clusters lending support for the configural approach. In the same vein, Ben-Uri et al. (2022) opined that Israeli and Swiss service workers differ in how they prioritize work and family roles and in their attitudes toward both conflict and facilitation between these roles.

Further, extant studies have shown that while certain stressors affect mental well-being universally, cultural factors appear to shape how individuals perceive and respond to family-work-related stress, influencing the degree to which it impacts mental health (Kulik, 2024). In effect, the tendency to apply findings from Western countries to other cultural contexts overlooks unique local dynamics and the impact of cultural variations on work-family interactions. For example, African cultural norms and values, such as communalism and extended family obligations, may shape work-family dynamics in ways not typically observed or valued in Western contexts. These differences call for a more culturally nuanced approach to studying WFC, as traditional Western-centric models may not fully capture the realities faced by employees in Ghana's service sector.

Secondly, in addition to work-family research being largely dominated by Western countries,

the theoretical underpinnings of such studies have also been the Job-Demands Resource Model (JD-R) and the Conservation of Resource (COR) theory. Extant studies in work-family research have not paid much attention to the integration of other theories, such as the Challenge-Hindrance Theory, into the largely used theories for a better interpretation of the kinds of stressors in the work-family interaction literature (O'Brien & Beehr, 2019). Thus, the COR Theory (Hobfoll, 1989), has been widely used in WFC studies to explain how resource loss affects employee stress, engagement, and performance. Authors such Obrenovic et al. (2020) and De Clercq et al. (2020) relied on COR to analyze how WFC depletes resources, leading to burnout and reduced job satisfaction. Similarly, Yucel et al. (2021) used COR to investigate the negative impact of WFC on job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion, highlighting how resource loss directly impairs employee well-being. However, COR Theory's focus on resource preservation and loss does not distinguish between types of job demands, such as whether a stressor acts as a challenge or a hindrance. Again, the COR Theory alone does not fully address how individuals may interpret or respond differently to stressors depending on whether they view them as challenges or hindrances, which is crucial in understanding the nuances of WFC. This limitation means that COR alone cannot account for situations where WFC might motivate employees to improve skills or manage time better, nor does it address positive outcomes such as WFE, work role performance and growth from overcoming challenging demands.

Also, the JD-R Model is another frequently used framework that categorizes workplace factors as either demands or resources, impacting employee engagement and burnout. The JD-R Model offers a more balanced view by categorizing workplace elements as either demands or resources, as seen in the work of Şahin and Yozgat (2021) and Tang et al. (2023). Specifically, Şahin and Yozgat (2021) and Tang et al. (2023) applied the JD-R Model to assess how WFC

reduces resources and, subsequently, job performance. The model's division of job demands and resources provides a structured approach to understanding how WFC can diminish engagement, but it lacks differentiation between demands that serve as challenges and those that hinder productivity. This is a key limitation in studies focused on WFC which employed the JD-R as its only underpinning theory, where stressors may affect individuals positively or negatively depending on personal characteristics, organizational context, and support structures. In addition, the absence of this distinction limits the JD-R Model's ability to capture the dual nature of WFC, where certain types of stressors might positively contribute to engagement through adaptive behaviours, while others might only exacerbate strain.

From the above discussions on theoretical underpinnings of work-family research, the theoretical gaps in the extant WFC research largely stem from a lack of integration between the JD-R Model and the Challenge-Hindrance Stressor Model. The literature is replete with studies that either employed the JD-R model, COR mode, or integrated the JD-R model with the COR or other models other than the Challenge-Hindrance Model. The Challenge-Hindrance Model distinguishes between demands that stimulate growth (challenges) and those that obstruct progress (hindrances). Consequently, the application and integration of the Challenge-Hindrance Model adds critical depths to WFC studies by clarifying how different stressors affect WFC outcomes. Thus, integrating the Challenge-Hindrance Model with the JD-R model will allow researchers to differentiate these responses and provides a more nuanced perspective on WFC. This integration would also support advanced moderation analysis in WFC research. For example, a moderator tends to amplify challenge perceptions and reduce the impact of hindrance stressors. Applying both models in tandem would create a framework for examining not only the types of stressors associated with WFC but also the conditions under

which these stressors may lead to positive or negative outcomes.

Thirdly, despite the growing body of research examining the dynamics between work-family conflict and work outcomes, several significant gaps persist, particularly concerning the complex roles of moderators. Much of the existing literature has primarily focused on the direct relationship between WFC and job performance, with studies often examining moderators like organizational support (Wang et al., 2021; Şahin & Yozgat, 2021). However, this approach lacks consideration of how personal characteristics, such as proactive personality, may moderate this relationship, which limits our understanding of individual differences in coping with WFC pressures. Examining proactive personality as a moderating factor could reveal how self-directed individuals handle WFC challenges differently, providing a richer understanding of how personal traits shape work engagement and role performance in the face of family demands (Xie et al., 2018).

Further, while cultural factors are recognized as influential in the work-family interface, they remain underexplored within WFC research, particularly regarding dimensions like power distance and collectivism. Previous studies have predominantly examined individualism and masculinity-femininity as cultural moderators, overlooking power distance and collectivism, which could uniquely impact WFC outcomes in collectivist and hierarchical societies (Allen et al., 2020; Gu et al., 2022). Understanding these cultural moderating factors is essential to capture the diverse ways WFC manifests across different cultural settings, as employees from collectivism may experience and manage WFC differently compared to those from individualistic backgrounds (Xu et al., 2018). Research that incorporates power distance and collectivism as moderators would provide insights into how cultural values influence work-role performance and engagement, particularly in culturally diverse and collectivist societies.

Again, existing research on the positive interactions between work and family roles (work-family enrichment) has often been limited to outcomes associated with family-to-work spillover rather than reciprocal influences (Cui & Zhang, 2021; Allen et al., 2020). This gap is notable, as positive interactions could act as moderators that alleviate the negative effects of WFC on outcomes like work engagement and work role performance, particularly in culturally complex environments where family and social roles play a strong part in employees' lives (Allen & Paddock, 2015). Exploring work-family enrichment within the context of proactive personality could reveal how these positive spillovers from family to work contribute to employee well-being, helping to shape policies that promote supportive work environments.

Finally, regarding the research designs used in work-family research, cross-sectional designs and two-wave time-lagged study designs dominate. Cross-sectional designs, commonly used in existing studies (see Bande, Jaramillo, Fernández-Ferrín, & Varela, 2019; Dodanwala, & Shrestha, 2021; Reina & Kudesia, 2020; Yucel, Şirin, & Baş 2021), capture data at a single point in time, which limits the ability to assess how work-family conflict evolves and interacts with outcomes like work engagement and Work role performance over extended periods. Again, this one-time snapshot does not accommodate the fluctuating nature of WFC, which may vary due to situational, contextual, or individual factors. For instance, findings from studies by Dodanwala and Shrestha (2021) and Yucel et al. (2021) offer insights into WFC and work engagement at a particular moment but failed to capture changes or causative factors that unfold over time, reducing the ability to draw conclusions about cause and effect.

On the other hand, other studies have employed time-lagged research design in the work-family research (See Chen, Allen, & Hou, 2020; Jensen, 2016; Kiburz, Allen, & French, 2017;

Montani, Vandenberghe, Khedhaouria, & Courcy, 2020; Wang, Tsai, Lee, & Ko, 2021) to explore temporal patterns in work-family interactions. Interestingly, all the above studies that employed a time-lagged design were two-wave in nature, except for the study by Kiburz et al. (2017), which employed a three-wave study design. Thus, while the above time-lagged studies contribute to a better understanding of temporal dynamics, these designs remain limited in scope and number. These studies failed to collect data beyond two points in time.

To bridge these methodological gaps, there is a critical need for studies employing three-wave or multi-wave designs to capture data at multiple (three) points in time. Such designs provide a more refined view of the dynamics between WFC and outcome variables, such as work engagement and work role performance. This will enable researchers to disentangle causal relationships and observe changes in WFC and its outcomes across time. Through this approach, a three-wave design could, for example, provide insights into how WFC interacts with proactive personality as a moderator, examining how personality traits might buffer or amplify the impacts of WFC on work engagement at multiple points. Again, a three-wave design is advantageous for exploring the moderating effects of cultural factors, such as power distance and collectivism, on the relationship between work-family enrichment and work-role performance (Sui et al., 2015). By tracking these relationships across time, the study can better explain how cultural values influence the work-family interface and impact work role performance. Thus, majority of extant literature on work-family commonly used cross-sectional designs, which cannot establish causality or temporal ordering of variables. These studies have used self-report measures, which are subject to common method bias and social desirability bias. This calls for a more rigorous data collection methodology to address these biases (Podsakoff et al. 2023; Podsakoff, 2003).

From the above four stated research problems, it can be observed that the relationship between work and family and its outcomes is complex and multifaceted, requiring a multidisciplinary and multilevel approach. This study seeks to address the above discussed research gaps in the work-family literature by examining the moderating process that influences the relationships between work, family, and outcomes on the individual and organizational levels.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

- i. To examine the impact of work-family conflict on work engagement.
- ii. To explore the moderating role of proactive personality in the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement.
- iii. To explore the moderating role of power distance and collectivism in the relationship between work-family enrichment and work-role performance

1.4 Significance of the Study

The effects of the interaction between work and family are mostly a pervasive issue that affects individuals, families, and organizations worldwide. The negative effects on individual well-being and organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, and productivity, have been well documented in the literature. However, less attention has been paid to the positive interaction and the moderating processes that influence these effects. This study, therefore, has significant implications for research, practice, and policy.

1.4.1 Research and Practice Significance:

This study contributes to the theoretical understanding of work and family and its outcomes by examining the moderating processes that influence the relationships between them. By identifying the factors that enhance or buffer the negative effects of WFC on individuals and organizations, this study informs the development of interventions and policies to promote work-family balance and well-being. Moreover, by identifying the mechanisms that explain how WFC affects outcomes, this study provides insights into the underlying processes and psychological mechanisms involved in WFC.

This study in addressing a methodological gap in the work-family literature and its outcomes, by using the three-wave time-lagged design and objective measures can establish causality and validity of the measures used. By examining the role of individual-level and work-level factors, this study provides a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of the factors that influence the interaction between work-family and its outcomes. The cultural and contextual factors that influence these interactions and its outcomes when explored, can enhance the generalizability and relevance of the findings to diverse populations and settings.

1.4.2 Policy Significance:

The development and implementation of public policies that promote work-family balance and well-being by identifying the cultural and contextual factors that influence the relationships between work and family and its outcomes is informed by this research. These may guide the development and implementation of policies such as family leave policies, childcare policies, and elder care policies that enhance work-family balance and well-being. This research informs the development and evaluation of public health interventions that promote work-

family balance and well-being by identifying the personal characteristics and coping strategies that enhance or buffer the negative effects of the interaction between work and family on individuals, to help in the development of public health interventions.

1.5 Scope of the Study

This study sought to study work and family interactions and outcomes and test the moderating processes within the Job Demand-Resource and Challenge-Hindrance theories perspective. The study paid attention to workers in the private and public organizations in the service-based sector of Ghana and specifically in the Greater Accra Metropolis who have been employed for at least six months.

1.6 Conceptualization of Terms

Chapter two gives an in-depth understanding of the following terms, previous empirical and theoretical literature reviewed in the area, but this session gives a preview into the next chapter

1.6.1 Work-Family Conflict

The concept of Work-Family Conflict (WFC) refers to the challenges and strains individuals experience when attempting to balance their work and family roles. Netemeyer et al. (1996), defines WFC as a form of inter-role conflict with general demands of time devoted to and strain created by the job interfering with performing family-related responsibilities. Theoretical frameworks and empirical studies have contributed to our understanding of the antecedents, consequences, and mechanisms through which WFC operates and one prominent theoretical framework used to examine WFC is the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). According to this theory, WFC can be viewed as a job demand and a stressor that depletes an individual's resources, leading to negative outcomes such as decreased well-

being and reduced work performance. This theory highlights the role of both job demands and job resources in shaping the experience of WFC.

Empirical studies have provided evidence for the detrimental effects of WFC on various outcomes. For example, a meta-analysis by Niazi et al., (2019) examined the relationship between WFC and job burnout. Their findings revealed a significant positive association between WFC and burnout, suggesting that higher levels of conflict are linked to increased burnout among employees. This study highlights the negative consequences of WFC on employee well-being. Moderators have also been identified in the relationship between WFC and outcomes which buffer the negative effects (French et al., 2018). JD-R theory, therefore, provides insights into the mechanisms underlying WFC, while empirical studies have demonstrated its impact on various outcomes.

1.6.2 Work-Family Enrichment (WFE)

Work-family enrichment (WFE) refers to a positive and mutually beneficial interaction between an individual's work and family roles, whereby experiences, resources, and satisfaction derived from one role enhance the quality and effectiveness of the other (Carlson et al., 2006). It involves the transfer of positive elements, such as skills, emotions, and support, from one domain to another, resulting in increased well-being, job satisfaction, and family functioning (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). This perspective recognizes the potential for work and family domains to positively influence and enhance each other, leading to overall positive outcomes for individuals and their families.

Studies have shown that work-family enrichment has numerous positive outcomes. For instance, a study by Carlson et al. (2020) found that work-family enrichment was positively

related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and overall life satisfaction. This suggests that when individuals experience positive interactions and experiences in both work and family domains, they are more likely to feel satisfied and committed to their jobs and have higher overall life satisfaction.

The role of individual and contextual factors in shaping work-family enrichment has also been explored. For instance, Carlson et al. (2021) found that work-family supportive supervisors were positively associated with work-family enrichment, indicating the importance of supervisor support in facilitating positive experiences and transfer of resources between work and family.

These studies highlight the positive outcomes associated with experiencing enrichment between work and family domains and emphasize the importance of individual and contextual factors in facilitating this process.

1.6.3 Collectivism

Collectivism is a socio-cultural concept that emphasizes the interdependence and interconnectedness of individuals within a group or community, prioritizing group goals and harmony over individual needs and desires (Wafula, 2010). Collectivism is used interchangeably with collectivist culture and it is characterized by a focus on collective identity, shared norms, cooperation, and social cohesion. Several studies have explored the relationship between collectivism and work-family conflict or work-family enrichment. Brougham, Haar, and Roche (2015) conducted a study among New Zealand Maori and found that collectivism positively influenced work-family enrichment. They highlighted how collectivist values

fostered a sense of interdependence and cooperation, leading to the spillover of positive experiences and resources between work and family domains.

In another study examining work-family conflict, Shah and Rajadhyaksha (2016) investigated the influence of collectivism in the context of global cities in India. They revealed that higher levels of work-family conflict were associated with lower levels of work-family collectivism, suggesting that work-family conflict may undermine the supportive social networks and resources typically associated with collectivism. Furthermore, Wafula (2010) examined work-family conflict among women from a collectivistic culture. The study provided insights into the experiences of women from a collectivist background, highlighting how collectivist values, such as interdependence and group harmony, played a role in mitigating work-family conflict.

These studies collectively indicate that collectivism can have a significant impact on work-family conflict and enrichment. Collectivist orientations, with their emphasis on cooperation and shared goals, are associated with lower levels of conflict and higher levels of enrichment between work and family domains

1.6.4 Power Distance

Power distance refers to the degree to which individuals in a society accept and expect an unequal distribution of power and authority within organizations or institutions (Hofstede, 1980). It reflects the extent to which hierarchical relationships are valued and respected in a culture. Literature on the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between work-family enrichment and work role performance is limited. However, some studies have explored the influence of power distance on various work-related outcomes. One study by Lu, Lu, and Gilmour (2019) investigated the role of power distance in the relationship between

work-family enrichment and job performance. They found that in high power distance cultures, work-family enrichment had a stronger positive effect on job performance compared to low power distance cultures. This suggests that individuals in societies with a higher acceptance of power distance may experience a greater boost in their work role performance when they experience enrichment in their work-family interface. Similarly, another study by Toker, Liron, and Biron (2019) examined the impact of power distance on the relationship between work-family enrichment and work engagement. They found that in high power distance cultures, the positive association between work-family enrichment and work engagement was stronger compared to low power distance cultures. This suggests that the level of power distance in a culture can influence the strength of the relationship between work-family enrichment and work-related outcomes. In contrast, a study by Zhou, Liu, and Chen (2020) explored the moderating effect of power distance on the relationship between work-family enrichment and job satisfaction. They found no significant moderating effect of power distance, suggesting that the influence of power distance may vary depending on the specific outcome being examined.

These studies therefore indicate that power distance can play a role in shaping the relationship between work-family enrichment and work-related outcomes. However, further research is needed to fully understand the moderating effect of power distance and its mechanisms in the context of work-family enrichment and work role performance.

1.6.5 Work Engagement

Work engagement refers to a positive, fulfilling, and energized state of mind characterized by high levels of dedication, vigor, and absorption in one's work (Halbesleben, 2010; Mazzetti et al., 2021). It reflects the extent to which individuals feel connected to their work, experience a

sense of enthusiasm, and are fully involved in their tasks and roles. Research on work engagement has explored its relationships with various factors and outcomes. A meta-analysis conducted by Halbesleben (2010) examined the associations between work engagement, burnout, demands, resources, and consequences. The findings revealed that work engagement was negatively related to burnout and job demands, while positively related to job resources and various positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. Another meta-analysis by Mazzetti et al. (2021) focused on work engagement within the framework of the job demands-resources model. The results indicated that job resources, such as social support, autonomy, and feedback, were positively related to work engagement, while job demands, such as workload and role conflict, were negatively associated with it. The study emphasized the importance of creating a work environment that provides sufficient resources to foster and sustain work engagement. Literature on work engagement therefore suggests that it is a valuable construct associated with positive outcomes and can be influenced by factors such as job demands, resources, and interventions. By fostering work engagement, organizations can create a more positive work environment and enhance employee well-being and performance.

1.6.6 Work Role Performance

Work role performance refers to the behaviours and actions that individuals engage in to fulfill their responsibilities and contribute to the goals and objectives of their organization within their specific work roles. It encompasses not only the traditional task proficiency but also adaptivity and proactivity (Griffin, Neal & Parker, 2007). Thus, work-role performance refers to the extent to which an employee performs their job duties and responsibilities effectively. It includes both task-related behaviours, such as completing assignments on time and meeting

quality standards, as well as contextual behaviours, such as helping colleagues and contributing to team goals. Work-role performance is a key factor in determining an employee's overall contribution to the organization and their potential for career advancement (Zhang, Sun & Zhao, 2020).

1.6.7 Proactive personality

Proactive personality refers to an individual's inclination to take initiative, show persistence, and actively engage in shaping their environment (Park & DeFrank, 2018). Individuals high in proactive personality demonstrate a proactive approach to work, displaying behaviours such as seeking opportunities, taking charge, and initiating change.

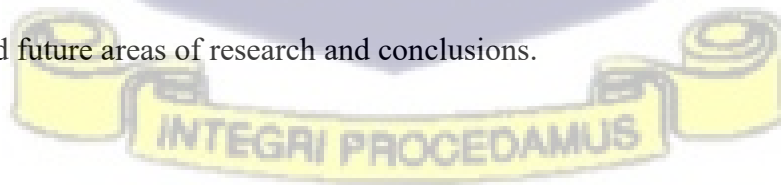
Research has explored the implications of proactive personality in various domains. Jiang (2017) investigated the relationship between proactive personality and career adaptability. The study found that individuals with higher levels of proactive personality were more likely to exhibit career adaptability, which refers to the ability to effectively manage career transitions and challenges. This suggests that proactive individuals are more adaptable in navigating their careers. This is similar to research conducted by Crant (2000), which is a comprehensive review of proactive behaviour in organizations. The study discussed proactive behaviour as a proactive response to work demands, such as taking initiative, problem-solving, and influencing the work environment. It highlighted the positive impact of proactive behaviour on job performance and career success.

Campbell (2000) also conducted research to focus on managing workplace initiatives and emphasized the significance of fostering a proactive work environment. The study discussed strategies for encouraging and supporting employee proactivity, including providing resources,

promoting autonomy, and recognizing proactive efforts. Proactive personality, thus, refers to an individual's inclination to take initiative and actively shape their work environment. It has been linked to positive outcomes such as career adaptability, proactive behaviour, job performance, and career success. Understanding the dynamics between proactive personality, situational factors, and organizational contexts can provide insights into fostering a proactive work environment and enhancing individual and organizational effectiveness.

1.7 Organisation of Study

Chapter One presents a comprehensive review of the research conducted on the correlation between work and family responsibilities in Ghana's service industry. The main focus is on examining the impact of these interactions on work engagement and work role performance. This section establishes the foundation for the study by examining fundamental ideas, identifying the research problem, stating the objectives, and highlighting the importance of the study. It also provides a summary of the thesis structure and outlines the content of each following chapter. Chapter 2 provides a thorough examination of the existing literature and establishes the conceptual framework and hypotheses for this study. In Chapter 3, the focus is on the methodology employed in the study. The chapter provides an account of the participants involved, the tools used, and the method employed to gather data. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the analysed data through the use of statistical tools, tables, and figures. Chapter 5 subsequently provides an analysis of the findings, highlighting the consequences, difficulties, suggestions, and future areas of research and conclusions.



CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on Work-Family Conflict, Work-Family Enrichment, Proactivity/Proactive Personality, Power Distance, Collectivism, Work Role Performance, and Work Engagement. This chapter also reviews the literature on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and the moderating effects. An analysis of related empirical studies follows the theoretical review. The research hypotheses are therefore stated after the review of the literature. The rationale for a quantitative method design and operational definitions of the key terms used are also presented in this chapter.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Theory

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2017), the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory was first introduced in English literature in 2001 by Demerouti and colleagues (Demerouti et al., 2001). Since then, it has inspired numerous empirical studies, literature reviews, and meta-analyses. The JD-R theory has evolved from a simple model, emphasizing two processes, health impairment and motivation, to a theory with specific propositions, comprising interactions between job demands, job resources, personal resources, job crafting, occupational well-being indicators, and work-related outcomes (Bakker et al., 2023). The popularity of the JD-R theory is mainly characterized by its flexibility since it divides all work characteristics and contexts into two categories: job demands and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

Job demands refer to the work-related aspects of physical, psychological, social, or organizational origin that require efforts of a physical or psychological nature. On the other

hand, job resources refer to work-related aspects of physical, psychological, social, or organizational origin that led to psychological and professional growth and decrease the detrimental effects of job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), another characteristic of the theory is its dynamic nature, which gives rise to two processes: health impairment, leading to burnout (exhaustion), and motivation, leading to work engagement. Job Demands-Resources theory, the demands-control model, the person-environment fit approach, and COR theory are influential job-related stress theories that have had a prominent impact on the field of work and well-being related psychology (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018), however, JD-R theory investigates the effects of working conditions on employees and the impact employees have on the working conditions.

According to the JD-R theory, factors of well-being and organizational behaviour influence each other over time on organizational, team, and individual levels (Bakker and Demerouti, 2018). JD-R theory outlines the processes where work requirements may impact job health, well-being, organizational behaviour, and job performance. More precisely, job stressors are identified based on self-reported states and perceptions of the individual employees. When organizational leaders know which particular tasks and problems require immediate attention, strategic, and structural measures are introduced to optimize problematic processes for the employees to allow them to improve the quality of their work life. In a similar vein, family issues can be characterized as disturbances affecting job performance.

Despite its relevance, the JD-R theory is not free from limitations. For example, the fact that it is an open model means that all types of concepts can be framed as job demands, job resources, personal resources, and work-related outcomes (Schaufeli, 2017). Furthermore, it is a

theoretical model that does not survive on its own in explaining both job resources and personal resources; it needs to resort to other models (e.g., Conservation of Resources Theory (COR); Hobfoll et al., 2018). While JD-R helps to explain job resources and explain its impact, COR explains personal resources and its impact. An additional limitation comes from the empirical literature, where studies (Viseu et al., 2023) assess one of the JD-R processes in isolation, neglecting that the health impairment and motivational processes must be addressed simultaneously. The JD-R also does not consider the existence of possible antecedents of job demands and job resources, even though there is evidence that substantiates the importance of these antecedents (Bauer et al., 2014) (e.g., Idris et al., 2011; Tummers & Bakker, 2021). In model one of this study, according to the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), work-family conflict serves as a job demand that depletes energy, resulting in reduced work engagement. However, employees with a proactive personality may possess personal resources that help them buffer the negative effects of WFC, thereby sustaining engagement. This theoretical grounding informs the moderation hypothesis of this study. The JD-R model is used in this study because work engagement is central to the first model of this study and JD-R offers a suitable lens in explaining how demands (WFC/FWC) reduce engagement unless balanced by resources. In high-pressure service roles in Ghana, employees often navigate overlapping demands. The JD-R model is particularly suitable for explaining engagement in such settings. In model two of the study, which considers the relationship between work-family enrichment and work role performance, work-family enrichment, according to the JD-R model, is a resource that increases an employee's work role performance.

2.1.2 Challenge-Hindrance Theory

The Challenge-Hindrance Theory postulates that workplace stressors can be categorized into two types: challenge stressors and hindrance stressors, with employees' perceptions of these stressors affecting their behaviours and outcomes. Consequently, the model underscores the significance of an individual's perception and classification of the stressor as pivotal in influencing its effects (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Horan et al., 2020).

Stress can positively enhance employee performance (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Boswell et al., 2004). Specifically, the challenge-hindrance stress framework suggests that there can also be positive outcomes related to experiencing stressors (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2005). Challenge-related stressors (i.e., positive stressors) and hindrance-related stressors (i.e., negative stressors) are antecedents to both positive and negative performance outcomes (e.g., Breevaart & Bakker, 2014; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LeFevre, Matheny, & Kolt, 2003; LePine et al., 2005). When experiencing challenge-related stressors, employees often feel motivated and engaged (LePine, LePine, & Jackson, 2004; LePine et al., 2005; Nelson & Simmons, 2011). Challenge-related stressors promote personal growth and achievement of the employee (Podsakoff et al., 2007), and have a positive relationship with favourable work outcomes such as job satisfaction (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Although both challenge and hindrance-related stressors cause strain (LePine et al., 2005), challenge-related stressors are perceived as rewarding experiences that are worth the discomfort involved. Examples of challenge-related stressors include an impending deadline, more responsibility, time stressors, and job complexity (Cavanaugh et al., 2000).

Both challenge and hindrance-related stressors are linked with adverse health outcomes such

as burnout and exhaustion (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005). However, hindrance-related stressors are known as negative stressors (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Hindrance-related stressors are associated with undesirable outcomes such as turnover intention (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Additionally, hindrance-related stressors are labeled as obstacles to successful performance that cannot be overcome through increased effort. Examples of hindrance-related stressors include role overload, role ambiguity, and obstacles that cannot be overcome (Cavanaugh et al., 2000).

Job stressors in general are positively related to WFC (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Moreover, job involvement has been labeled as a challenge stressor and is also positively related to WFC (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The positive relationship between job involvement and WFC might exist because challenge-related stressors presented in the work domain (e.g., job involvement) elicit engagement and attention (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) which increases job involvement. Challenge-related stressors are engaging in the work domain but may take away resources from the family domain. An individual's resources are limited (Hobfoll, 1989) and the engagement challenge-related stressors could exhaust all individual resources. Furthermore, challenge-related stressors may have detrimental effects on individual health, such as burnout and emotional exhaustion (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005), similar to hindrance stressors. Thus, it is likely that individuals who are exposed to challenge-related stressors in the work domain will report more WFC. The current study contributes to the challenge-hindrance stressor framework literature by expanding the framework to work-family outcomes as well as answering the call to identify individual buffers that may influence how individuals respond to stressors (Lepine et al., 2005). According to the Challenge-Hindrance theory, work-family conflict and work-family enrichment may be appraised

differently as a challenge or hindrance by different people.

2.2 Conceptual Review

The ensuing subsections provide a conceptual review of key concepts relevant to the study. These include Work-family conflict, Work-family enrichment, Proactivity/Proactive Personality, Power Distance, Collectivism, Work Role Performance, and Work Engagement.

2.2.1 Work-Family Conflict (WFC)

Work-family conflict (WFC) is increasingly becoming an important concept to psychology researchers and practitioners. WFC is characterized as an inter-role conflict where the demands and pressures arising from one's work and family roles are mutually incongruent to some extent (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p.77). This conceptualization of WFC is based on the role stress and inter-role conflict theories initially proposed by Kahn et al. (1964). It centrally holds that there are inherent conflicts and tensions between the responsibilities and demands of one's work and family roles, and these conflicts exist in specific dimensions or aspects of one's life (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In other words, the term WFC is the interface of work and family (Aazami et al., 2015) where stressors (incompatible demands) from the work domain and the family domain cause conflict. This interface between family and work has had a significant impact on the individual, the family, the organization, and society. Additionally, the concept of the inter-role conflict between family and work aligns with the Scarcity Hypothesis theory that everyone has limited energy to perform in multiple roles at once (Friedman, Christensen, & DeGroot, 1998). This is further supported by the Role Stress Theory, which asserts that it is difficult to manage multiple roles, such as work and family roles; this leads to stress for individuals.

Work-family conflict has witnessed several definitions from different scholars (Akinbode et al., 2018; Kahn et al., 1964; Kossek et al., 2011; Teoh et al., 2016). As earlier pointed out, from the perspective of Kahn et al. (1964, p.471), WFC is defined as “the pressure coming from the roles in family and work and being unable to fulfill the demands of both roles”. This implies that the inter-role conflict between work and family occurs when the degree of work and family demands tend to be mutually incompatible. In a similar vein but from the Spillover theoretical perspective, Kossek, Pichler, Bodner and Hammer (2011) explained WFC as when the work and domestic domains experience a spillover into each other leading to dispute. This view of WFC tends to suggest that work or family issues have a direct impact on each other. According to Akinbode et al. (2018) and Teoh et al. (2016), WFC relates to concurrent job and family stress that may be inconsistent, making it harder to participate in one domain due to involvement in the other domain. The above definitions point to the fact that WFC has been studied from different theoretical perspectives and lenses: role incompatibility, role conflict, spillover, role ambiguity, role overload, and work-life balance. Extensive research on WFC has effectively documented instances of conflict that emerge between work-related responsibilities and those in non-work domains due to factors like time constraints, emotional strain, and disruptions in behaviour (Carlson, Kacmar & Williams, 2000). Key factors contributing to WFC include excessive work hours, overwhelming work role demands, and various stressors encountered in the workplace (Bakker et al., 2004; Peter et al., 2016).

Several scholars agree that WFC can result in negative outcomes to both the individual and the organization (Aboobaker et al., 2017; Putnik et al., 2018). For instance, Aboobaker et al. (2017) observed that the rise of WFC in businesses has negative effects. Consequently, as the number of dual-career households increases, it is plausible that there will be higher conflict between

family and work roles (Major et al., 2008). Different factors in the workplace, such as total working hours, tight work schedules, unfriendly peers, and organizational culture, create conflicts between work and family roles (Chandra & Leenders, 2012; Rathi & Barath, 2013).

Work-family conflict has undergone a number of developments with regard to its directionality and dimensionality. The next subsections discuss the directionality and dimensions of WFC.

2.2.2 Family-to-Work Conflict

Family-to-work conflict (F-WC) arises when fulfilling family responsibilities creates challenges for employees in meeting their work-related duties (Frone et al., 1997). This conflict can induce stress, potentially resulting in reduced job satisfaction due to the depletion of resources (Gao et al., 2013). Thus, in the family domains, situations such as a working mother with a one-year-old child having temperature which deprives the mother of sleep in the night would lead to reduced performance at work. Thus, F-WC occurs when experiences in the family impede work life such as the presence of young kids, elder care responsibilities, interpersonal divergence within the family entity, and uncooperative family members (Valk & Srinivasan, 2011). Extant studies have shown that F-WC is modestly associated with less job satisfaction and moderately associated with less organizational commitment (Allen et al., 2020; Liao et al., 2019). It has also been established that F-WC has moderate and positive relationships with both burnout and stress (Amstad et al., 2011) while being moderately associated with less family satisfaction and marital satisfaction but is not significantly related to family commitment (Allen et al., 2020; Amstad et al., 2011; Liao et al., 2019).

2.2.2.1 Bi-Directionality of Work-Family Conflict

In this section, research findings that highlight the bidirectional nature of Work-Family Conflict are explored. Several studies, including those by Allen et al. (2015), Amstad et al. (2011), Liao et al. (2019), and Nohe et al. (2015), provide substantial empirical evidence demonstrating the reciprocity between work-related and family-related conflicts. These findings have implications for understanding the complex interplay between work and family domains.

The interface between work and family represents a complex and dynamic relationship wherein both domains can act as sources of strain, leading to inter-role conflict. Work-Family Conflict (WFC) is widely recognized as bidirectional, comprising Work-to-Family Conflict (W-FC) and Family-to-Work Conflict (F-WC) (Frone et al., 1992). This bidirectional conceptualization, first proposed by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), posits that conflict arises depending on the source domain—work or family—thus delineating two distinct yet interrelated forms of conflict.

Early research prior to 1985 largely overlooked the directional nature of WFC. However, Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) theoretical contribution emphasized that WFC is not a unidirectional construct but consists of two separable pathways: one where work demands interfere with family responsibilities (W-FC), and another where family demands intrude upon work responsibilities (F-WC). Subsequent empirical research has consistently supported this bidirectional model (Byron, 2005; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999), highlighting that W-FC and F-WC are influenced by distinct antecedents and yield different outcomes across life domains.

Work-to-Family Conflict (W-FC) refers to the extent to which role pressures from the work

domain hinder performance or engagement in the family domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This form of conflict typically arises when work obligations, such as long hours, overtime, irregular schedules, job stress, and work-related travel, encroach upon family responsibilities and time. As French et al. (2018) note, individuals experiencing W-FC often report increased psychological strain, reduced family satisfaction, and impaired familial interactions. For example, excessive job demands may result in reduced emotional availability at home or limited participation in family activities.

Empirical evidence robustly supports the bidirectional structure of WFC. Several key studies have systematically investigated this reciprocity. Nohe et al. (2015), in a meta-analysis of 33 empirical studies, identified reciprocal relationships between W-FC, F-WC, and strain. Their findings revealed that W-FC predicted psychological strain, which in turn exacerbated W-FC—a feedback loop similarly observed with F-WC. Moreover, W-FC was shown to exert a stronger influence on work-specific strain, while F-WC more significantly impacted strain in the family domain.

Allen et al. (2015) conducted a cross-national meta-analytic comparison of WFC and F-WC, examining how cultural, institutional, and economic variables shape conflict patterns. While they found no significant cross-national variation in W-FC, they observed that F-WC was significantly higher in more collectivistic societies and in countries with greater gender inequality. These findings underscore the contextual sensitivity of F-WC and suggest that family-based interference with work may be more pronounced in cultures with strong family obligations and rigid gender norms.

Amstad et al. (2011) provided further support for the directional specificity of WFC in their meta-analysis of work-related, family-related, and domain-unspecific outcomes. They found

that W-FC and F-WC were each more strongly associated with outcomes in their respective domains—W-FC with work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment) and F-WC with family outcomes (e.g., marital satisfaction, family functioning). This domain specificity reinforces the need to treat W-FC and F-WC as conceptually and empirically distinct constructs.

Additionally, Liao et al. (2019), adopting a resource-based perspective, demonstrated that work and family demands are positively related to both W-FC and F-WC, whereas greater control in either domain serves as a mitigating factor. Their meta-analytic findings suggest that autonomy and control function as valuable resources that can buffer the adverse effects of inter-role demands, thus reducing the likelihood of conflict.

Taken together, these findings solidify the theoretical and empirical foundation for understanding WFC as a *bidirectional construct*. The *interplay* between work and family domains is dynamic and reciprocal, with conflict emerging not only from competing demands but also from the resource depletion and strain that spill over across roles. This nuanced understanding warrants continued investigation into the mechanisms, contextual moderators, and long-term outcomes of both W-FC and F-WC.

2.2.2.2 Dimensionality of WFC

Researchers in the work-family domain initially conceptualised WFC as a unidimensional construct (Bohen & Viveros-Long, 1981; Kopelman et al., 1983). However, later, following a cross-examination of extant literature, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) proposed a multidimensional model of WFC. The multidimensional model view of WFC holds that work-family conflict can be divided into three main categories: time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behaviour-based conflict (Carlson et al., 2000; Zhang & Liu, 2011). These are

further discussed in the following subsections.

2.2.2.2.1 Time-Based Conflict

Time-based conflict is likely to occur when the time required for performing a specific role prevents a person from devoting appropriate time to other responsibilities undertaken by an individual in the family or work (Kalliath et al., 2017). For instance, individuals may have to work late to fulfill a tight work deadline, making them unable to deal with pressing issues at home. Although the individual is likely to allocate time properly, if too much time is allocated to a single role, there may be a reduction in the time for other roles. The competing time demands for each role make it physically impractical for individuals to be in two places at the same time. In the context of time-based conflict, two main aspects are considered: fulfilment of the demand for a role may be prevented by time stress in another role, and time stress in a particular role may affect or delay the fulfilment of the responsibilities of another role. Time-based demands can manifest in several ways, such as the total hours dedicated to work, irregular shift schedules, or taking time off from work to address family-related issues. For instance, scheduling night-time meetings can pose challenges for parents who need to support their children with homework. Likewise, as earlier on explained, when an employee takes a day off to attend to elder care responsibilities, it can hinder their ability to meet work deadlines (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Empirical evidence showed that WFC is positively associated with the amount and frequency of overtime worked per week as a result of time demands within the interface between work and family (Kalliath et al., 2017; Minnotte & Minnotte, 2018; Voydanoff, 2004). From the

work perspective, extant studies have identified clear positive associations between work-family conflict and several factors, including the weekly hours worked (Burke, 1988; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Also, W-FC and F-WC have been found to be positively correlated with various aspects such as the commuting hours, the number of hours worked, the frequency of overtime, the absence of flexible work schedules, and irregularities in shift patterns (e.g., Kinnunen, Geurts, & Mauno, 2004; Pleck, 1977; Voydanoff, 2005).

Similarly, from the family perspective, one's marital and parental status significantly influences the extent of time-related work-family conflict. Studies have consistently shown that married individuals tend to experience higher levels of WFC compared to unmarried individuals (Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977; Hwang, & Yu, 2021). This is because married individuals typically contend with more time-based demands, which can lead to increased work-family conflict. Similarly, being a parent, especially with younger children, is associated with greater time-based demands and subsequently heightened work-family conflict (Burch, 2019; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Parents of young children often face more time-related pressures compared to parents with older children. Spousal employment patterns also play a role in work-family conflict. Generally, a husband's work-family conflict is not significantly affected by his wife's employment status. However, husbands whose wives are engaged in professional or managerial careers tend to experience more work-family conflict, primarily due to longer working hours on the part of the wife (Eby et al., 2005; Matthews, Conger, & Wickrama, 1996). These studies have shown that there is a time-based conflict emanating from either the family perspective or the work perspective.

2.2.2.2.2 Strain-Based Conflict

The tensions generated by the two roles (thus, family and work roles) lead to the second form of WFC known as strain-based conflict. There is a strain-based conflict when stress reduces the personal resources of an individual, such as energy and physical or mental capacity, making it more challenging to fulfil the obligations of the other role (Amstad et al., 2011; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). For instance, stressful job circumstances can lead to frustration at home with spouse and kids. In effect, strain induced in one position by tension, anxiety, depression, apathy, and irritability may hinder the efficiency of an individual in another role: anxiety is the root causes of strain-based conflict. Therefore, work-family conflict will be caused by any pressure resulting from home or work roles. In a meta-analysis review on WFC and strain, Nohe et al. (2015) found that that WFC and strain predicted each other; WFC predicted strain, with a beta value of .08, at 95% confidence level, and strain predicted WFC with a beta value of .08 ($p < 0.05$).

From the work perspective, factors such as role ambiguity within one's job role have shown positive associations with WFC. Additionally, WFC has been correlated with a lack of support in the workplace (e.g., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Halpern, 2005; Lawrence et al., 2007; Tatum, 2001). Work stressors including job insecurity, role conflict and role overload have been found to impact outcomes such as burnout, employee health and work performance (Ganster & Rosen, 2013; Gilboa et al., 2008). In a similar vein, from the family perspective, demands stemming from a spouse, child, or other relatives can lead to increased levels of both work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Work-related stress can have repercussions on marital satisfaction and the overall functioning of the family unit.

2.2.2.2.3 Behaviour-Based Conflict

Behaviour-based conflict occurs when the behaviour needed in one role are inconsistent with the one needed in another role (Akinbode et al., 2018; Ratnaprabha et al., 2017). In other words, behaviour-based Work-Family Conflict arises when the actions and behaviours of employees at work clash with the behaviours expected of them in their family roles (Zhou et al., 2020). For example, a female in a management role at work is expected to exhibit leadership and assertive behaviour, while more submissive behaviours may be expected at home (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985a). Moreover, while an individual may need to be firm at work, his / her family may expect the person to interact warmly and emotionally (Kalliath et al., 2017). Edwards and Rothbard (2000) observed that behaviour-based demands do not inherently involve conflicting demands. Instead, it signifies that the behaviours developed in one role can potentially disrupt performance in another role. Specifically, while employing confrontational approaches to resolve work-related issues might be effective, the same approach may not work well when applied to family-related problems. This contrast is evident in the stereotype of a manager, which typically emphasizes qualities like independence, assertiveness, and objectivity. Conversely, family members often anticipate someone who is nurturing, warm, and emotionally engaged at home. When an individual cannot adapt their behaviour to align with the expectations of different roles, conflicts may arise (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) of which Carlson et al. (2000) empirically indicated that it is an occurrence of behaviour-based conflict.

2.2.3 Work Engagement

In engagement literature, it has been clearly argued that work engagement is different from employee engagement. The difference lies in terms of their conceptualization,

operationalization and focus (Shuck et al., 2017). Theoretically, the concept of work engagement was developed in combination with the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Thus, the JD-R model provides the theoretical foundation for understanding which job demands and job resources play a crucial role in shaping an individual's level of engagement at work. Additionally, work engagement, theoretically, is firmly rooted in the field of burnout literature, where it is often viewed as the positive counterpart to burnout. To illustrate, work engagement is seen as the opposite of burnout, as argued by Shuck (2011). Work engagement, according to Christian et al. (2011), is a persistent psychological condition where an individual consistently devotes their personal energy to the experience or execution of their work (p. 95). Thus, work engagement is a lasting mental state where employees consistently and actively invest their personal energies either in experiencing their work as something positive and fulfilling or in performing their work at a high level of dedication and focus. This state of mind is not a brief or occasional occurrence but rather a continuous aspect of an individual's relationship with their job.

In line with Christian et al.'s (2011) conceptualization of work engagement, Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002) describe work engagement as a persistent and positive state of mind connected to one's job and the positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind is marked by high levels of energy (vigour), dedication, and absorption in their work tasks (p.74). Just as employee engagement has three sub-dimensions so is work engagement. From the conceptualization of work engagement by Schaufeli et al. (2002), there are three sub-dimensions of work engagement: Vigour, Dedication, and Absorption. Vigour entails possessing elevated levels of energy and cognitive fortitude during work while dedication involves a profound engagement with one's tasks, accompanied by feelings of importance and

enthusiasm (Schaufeli et al., 2002). On the other hand, absorption is concerns complete focus and contented immersion in one's work (Schaufeli et al., 2002). This conceptualization aligns with the JD-R model's emphasis on personal resources such as vigour and dedication.

Work engagement has been operationalized as the contrasting state to feelings of exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced professional efficacy (Schaufeli et al. 2002). As indicated earlier on, from a theoretical perspective, work engagement has its roots in the study of burnout: for instance, it is often regarded as the positive counterpart to burnout. Moreover, it has been established as the opposite experience to burnout, as explained by Schaufeli et al. (2002). Work engagement primarily centres on an individual's engagement with their work activities, as exemplified by the statement, "When I get up in the morning, I feel motivated and enthusiastic about going to work," as articulated by Schaufeli et al. (2002).

2.2.4 Work Role Performance

In every organization, employees are assigned a specific set of responsibilities and tasks they are expected to perform within their jobs. These sets of responsibilities and tasks are work roles. The effective and efficient execution of such roles by employees contributes to the performance of the organization. Work roles as asserted by Neal et al., (2012) refer to the tasks and duties an individual is assigned to carry out in their employment. Similarly, Murphy and Jackson (1999) defined work roles as the complete set of performance responsibilities related to one's employment. From the above two definitions, it can be deduced that work role occurs in the employment context, indicating that they are specific to one's job. Based on this understanding, it can be argued that there are potential variations in work roles across different

jobs and or organizations. In other words, work roles can vary significantly depending on the sector or industry, the position of the employee, organizational culture, etc.

Griffin, Parker, and Mason (2007) described work role performance as the evaluation of an individual's behaviour within any job or work setting. Griffin et al. (2007) definition of work role performance emphasizes the assessment of an individual's behaviour within the context of any job or work environment. This definition has several noteworthy implications. First, it highlights the significance of behaviour in evaluating an employee's performance. By focusing on behaviour, the authors acknowledge that what an individual does in their role is of paramount importance. This perspective aligns with the idea that an employee's actions and conduct can directly impact an organization's success, irrespective of the specific job or industry (Santoro, Messeni-Petruzzelli, & Del Giudice, 2021). Furthermore, Griffin's et al. (2007) definitions imply that the criteria for evaluating work role performance should be adaptable and context-dependent as it includes work setting. This recognition underscores the variability in job roles across different organizations and industries. Consequently, what constitutes effective performance in one job may differ substantially from another. Therefore, this definition encourages a more flexible and contextual approach to assessing work role performance, acknowledging that the behavioural expectations placed on employees can vary widely and that each individual may also have unique observable competencies that contribute the performance. As such a one-size-fits-all approach of work role performance conceptualization may not be suitable. This assertion aligns with that of Otero-Neira, Varela-Neira and Bande (2016) which iterated that performance is characterized as observable and measurable actions reflecting an individual's skills and level of contribution.

Griffin et al. (2007) proposed a model of work role performance that identifies three levels at which behaviours can contribute to effectiveness. These levels are task, team, and organizational. For each level there are three forms of performance, namely proficiency,

adaptivity, and proactivity. In essence, work role performance can be conceptualized as a cross-classification of three categories of behaviour: proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity. Within this framework, the actions and behaviours associated with one's role can have a positive impact on the effectiveness of an individual, team, and the organization (Griffin et al, 2007).

According to Griffin et al. (2007), the uncertainties and complexities at the workplace and work environment require that an employee exhibit different work role behaviour aimed at achieving effectiveness. Proficiency is the degree to which an employee meets the formalised requirements of the work role. It involves the behaviours that show that "an employee meets the known expectations and requirements of his or her role as an individual" (Griffin et al. 2007, p.331). On the other hand, adaptivity is the degree to which an employee or an individual adapts to changes in work systems or roles. Proactivity is the degree to which an employee initiates self-directed action to anticipate or initiate change in work systems or roles. Proactivity, in the context of employee engagement, entails the proactive involvement of employees through their personal initiative, innovative contributions at the workplace, and their capacity for "self-driven, forward-looking actions aimed at altering their individual work circumstances, their specific job roles, or themselves" (Griffin et al, 2007, p.332). Each of these dimensions of work role performance as opined by Griffin et al. (2007) would assume varying functions depending on the level of uncertainty and formal structure inherent in the specific task or job. Work role performance there refers to the responsibilities fulfilled by individuals

employing their knowledge, skills, and abilities in the routine activities of an organization (Erdogan & Bauer, 2020).

2.2.5 Proactive Personality

Proactive personality refers to an individual's inclination or disposition to take initiative and exhibit proactive behaviours in various aspects of their life, including work, family, and personal pursuits. Bateman and Crant (1993, p.105) described proactive personality as "one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who effects environmental change". According to the authors, proactive individuals scan for opportunities, show initiative, take action, and persevere until they reach closure by bringing about change (Bateman & Crant, 1993, p.105). Proactive individuals often display a high level of initiative in generating innovative results (Kim, Hon, & Lee, 2010). A proactive personality encompasses personal characteristics like self-starting behaviour, a propensity for embracing change, and having a forward-thinking perspective. In other words, proactive personality reflects a person's tendency to be forward-thinking, action-oriented, and self-driven in addressing challenges and opportunities.

Crant (2000) and Thomas et al., 2010 concur with Bateman and Crant' (1993) conceptualization that proactive personality is a dispositional tendency or factor. Dispositional factors refer to enduring personal traits that enhance an individual's capacity for proactive behaviour (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Proactive behaviour describes the "self-directed and future-focused action in an organization, in which individual aims to bring about change to the oneself and/or the situation" (Bindl & Parker, 2010, p.3). It is acknowledged that employees who exhibit proactive behaviours demonstrate a disposition towards actively exerting control over their surroundings (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The consistency of a

“counteractive” (passive) response not only benefits the individual but also has positive implications for the organization (Bateman & Crant, 1993, p. 105). Consequently, in order to foster organizational success, specific measures can be implemented to reduce passive (counteractive) behaviours and enhance proactivity within the workplace (Bjorkelo, Einarsen, & Matthiesen, 2010).

2.2.6 Work-Family Enrichment

Work-family literature has accorded significant attention to both inter-domain conflict (Allen et al., 2016; Kossek and Lautsch, 2012; Voydanoff, 2005) as well as positive spill-over processes like enrichment and facilitation (Chen et al., 2018; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999). Work-family enrichment (WFE) defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improves the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006, p. 73). This implies that roles played in different domains are symbiotic and participation in one role engenders more energy and resources for others. Work-family enrichment is also defined by McNall, Nicklin and Masuda (2010) as a phenomenon where individuals experience positive outcomes and advantages by engaging in both their work and family responsibilities. This emphasizes that being active in one role can positively impact the quality of life in the other role. When individuals participate in work and family roles, they can transfer valuable resources, skills, and positive emotions between these domains. This transfer of resources and positive experiences contributes to enhancing well-being, satisfaction, and performance in both work and family domains. Ultimately, work-family enrichment highlights the mutual benefits and synergies that can exist between work and family roles, leading to overall improvements in various aspects of individuals' lives.

Some common theories that help explain the work-family enrichment are the Conservation of Resources (COR) and the Job-Demand Resource (JD-R) Theories. COR according to Hobfoll (2002), individuals strive to acquire, retain, and protect valuable resources to cope with stress and maintain well-being. Thus, individuals with access to resources from both work and family roles are less likely to experience negative outcomes. The resources gained from work and family roles can buffer against stress and contribute to improved physical and psychological well-being. According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), the JD-R Theory indicates that every work environment consists of job demands and job resources. Job demands refer to aspects of the job that require physical, psychological, or emotional effort and are associated with costs for the individual while job resources refer to aspects of the job that help achieve work goals, reduce job demands, and stimulate personal growth and development.

JD-R Theory in the work-family enrichment literature, can be applied to understand how job demands and resources in the work domain can impact an individual's ability to manage their work and family roles effectively. Job demands, such as long working hours, high workload, and job stress, can lead to work-family conflict (Akram, 2020), where the demands of work interfere with family responsibilities, whereas, job resources, such as social support at work, autonomy, and job control, can facilitate work-family enrichment by providing individuals with the resources needed to effectively balance their work and family roles. In the understanding of job demand and resources from the work perspective, JD-R Theory offers a framework for understanding how work-related factors can influence work-family interactions and outcomes.

2.2.7 Cultural Dimensions

A structural perspective dominates the work-family literature. Studies to a large extent tend to

focus more on structural antecedents such as family characteristics (e.g. marital status, support), job characteristics (e.g. overload, flexibility, job demand, hours spent, job involvement), and organizational characteristics (e.g., organizational support, supervisor support) (Achour et al., 2017; Adhikary, 2018; Allen et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2019; Liao et al., 2019; Long & Li, 2012; Michel et al., 2011; Nohe et al., 2015; Van den Eynde et al., 2019).

While a majority of these empirical and meta-analytic studies cover a wide range of antecedents and moderators, they pay less attention to cultural antecedents and moderators (French et al., 2018; Long & Li, 2012). To date, the studies of French et al. (2018), Allen et al. (2015), and Long and Li (2012) are the meta-analysed studies that considered the cultural dimension of WFC either as an antecedent or a moderator.

The role of culture in the work and family of employees in Sub-Saharan countries cannot be overemphasized. (Galovan et al., 2010) in their study on cross-cultural comparison between USA and Singapore, argued that the work and family factors that affect the WFC experiences of individuals are shaped by the values, beliefs, and conceptions of roles that arise through socialization. The authors concluded that the theoretical relationships in the WFC developed in the more culturally individualistic West may need to be adapted when studying populations in the more collectivist East. This view is supported by the meta-analysis study of (Long & Li, 2012) which stated different results for culture in the USA and in China but showed evidence of the existence of cultural factors as moderators. The authors further reported that culture can only moderate the relationship between WFC and job satisfaction.

In shaping the work-family interface, societal and national culture play a key role (Powell et al., 2009). (House et al., 2004) define culture as “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of

members of collectives that are transmitted across generations”. To (Maznevski et al., 2002), culture is “the pattern of variations within a society, or, more specifically, as the pattern of deep level values and assumptions with societal effectiveness, shared by an interacting group of people”. Therefore, in this research, culture is operationalized at the individual level. The nature and strength of the association between individual experiences in the work and family domains can be influenced by certain norms and values.

2.2.7.1 Collectivism

Collectivism and Individualism refer to “the extent to which people see themselves as an integral part of a social group with the primary alliance to the group or as separate individuals with primary responsibility for themselves and their very immediate family only” (Barak et al., 2011). More specifically, individualism shows to what extent people prioritize their objectives over group objectives and prefer casual interactions to close private connections, while collectivism suggests to what extent people are proud to be part of a group, society, or family. Anglo and West European countries, thus, the Global North countries, are mostly Individualistic while Asian, African, Latin American, and Eastern European societies are mainly collectivist societies (Friedrich et al., 2006). For example, individualistic nations include Hungary, Sweden, Canada, and the United States, whereas Taiwan, Nigeria, and Ghana are considered collectivist (Hofstede, 2011).

2.2.7.2 Power Distance

Power distance refers to the acceptance of inequalities in power, status, or wealth within societies (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). This cultural value influences interactions and perceptions of authority figures based on varying power levels. Key elements include the acceptance of

hierarchical differences, respect for authority, norms of interaction, cultural variations across levels, and impacts on decision-making processes within organizations. Understanding power distance is essential for grasping how power differentials are viewed and operationalized across different societal levels (Daniels & Gregurus, 2014). There are significant implications for work-related outcomes at both individual and organizational levels. At the individual level, research has shown that there is a positive correlation between power distance and the individual's satisfaction and continuance commitment to work. There is also the individual's demonstration of high levels of trust and conformity in high power distance cultures. At the organizational level, in cultures characterised by a high-power distance, workers may exhibit greater levels of loyalty, compliance, and submissiveness toward their superiors. Also at the organizational level, the influence of power distance on organisational dynamics and communication patterns can have significant consequences for collaboration and decision-making procedures (Daniels & Gregurus, 2014; Tara, Kirkman & Steel, 2010).

The concept of power distance can have diverse implications for work-family interaction, shaping how individuals manage the equilibrium between their personal and professional obligations. cultures characterised by high power distance may impose greater pressure on individuals to prioritise work obligations over familial responsibilities. This may result in increased tension, longer work hours, and challenges in maintaining a healthy work-life balance (Ly, 2013). The impact of power distance on communication styles in the workplace can potentially extend to personal interactions. Individuals from cultures with a high-power distance may be more acclimated to indirect and formal communication, which may influence the way in which they interact with family. According to Ly (2013), power distance-related cultural norms can influence expectations regarding the interaction between work and family.

In cultures that place a high value on hierarchy, for instance, members of society may feel compelled to prioritise professional obligations over time spent with their families.

2.3 Work-Family in Ghana

This subsection discusses the work-family issues from the context of Ghana, a developing country within Sub-Saharan African countries. It is further discussed under the work context and the family context.

2.3.1 The Work Context

The Ghanaian formal and informal service sector, as of January 2018, constitutes the most significant contributor to the Ghanaian Gross Domestic Product (GDP) with 57.2% with a wide range of service-driven companies (Sarpong, 2018). As of 2019, the services sector still constituted the largest sector of the Ghanaian economy, accounting for 52 percent of the GDP (Huq & Tribe, 2018). This indicates an approximately 5.2% decline in its contribution to the GDP. Within the services sector, Huq and Tribe (2018) report that the most important sub-sectors are: transport and storage (10%); information and communication (9.8 %); trade, repair of vehicles and household goods (7%) and financial and insurance activities; education and public administration and defence and social security (4% each). In the Ghanaian labour force, the formal sector was largely dominated by males until recently, when it has witnessed the influx of females. The dominant informal sectors include activities and sub-sectors such as trade and agriculture. In its contemporary phase, Ghanaian culture and traditions expect females to combine education, work, child care, husband care, and home care. These are traditions that a typical Ghanaian working woman cannot compromise. However, the traditions and role expectations differ from region to region and within organizations across the country

due to practices, demands, and economic activities.

The formal and informal sectors of the Ghana work context can also be viewed from the urban and rural context. In the urban context, the key source of employment is the service sector (finance and insurance, public administration, arts, entertainment, recreation, information, and communications) and commerce. Whereas in rural areas, agriculture dominates the source of employment or work. However, the service sector, which is deemed the driving force behind the latest favourable economic growth of Ghana, has low ability for labour absorption (Ackah & Baah-Boateng, 2012). Further, a large percentage of the working class are stuck in poverty (Aryee et al., 2005; Aryeetey & Kanbur, 2008). Aryee et al. (2005) examined the antecedents and outcomes of a fourfold taxonomy of work-family conflict. The authors noted that “inadequate pay is not only a potential source of stress in urban sub-Saharan Africa but also motivates an increased investment of time and energetic resources into income generating activities” (Aryee et al., 2005, p. 272).

The body of research on work-family interaction in Ghana demonstrates a comprehensive examination of the multifaceted challenges and dynamics involved. From qualitative analyses of lived experiences to cross-national comparisons (Annor, 2014) and sector-specific studies (Otoo, 2023; Turpin-Quaye, 2018), these works collectively highlight the critical need for supportive organizational policies and individual coping strategies to enhance work-life balance and employee well-being in Ghana. The conduct of research in the work and family interaction space in Ghana has produced very interesting results. Annor (2014), in a qualitative study highlights the lived experiences of employed parents managing work and family demands in Ghana. The study also spells out the challenges faced by parents and the strategies

they employ to balance their responsibilities. Annor (2016) further explored how work-family enrichment impacts Ghanaian employees, showing that support resources from both work and family roles positively influence well-being. Amankwah (2021) examined how organizational and individual factors impact the relationship between work-family balance and conflict. The study found that supportive work environments and personal coping strategies play crucial roles in mitigating work-family conflict. To investigate the impact of work-family conflict on the Quality of Work-life (QWL), Nkulenu (2015) with a focus on gender differences revealed that women experience higher levels of WFC, negatively impacting their QWL more than their male counterparts

2.3.2 The Family Context

The term family in Ghana elicits the notion of “male-headed units of extended families consisting of one or several wives and their children and often extended with unmarried or elderly relatives” (Brown 1996, p. 21). In the past, men were considered mainly as breadwinners in the traditional family system, while females were responsible for household duties. Further, the involvement of women in income-generating acts was mostly limited to the informal sector, which provided the necessary flexibility and geographical closeness to allow them to fulfil their family commitments (Ardayfio-Schandorf & Wrigley, 2001). However, this traditional setting based on gender roles and responsibilities is increasingly changing allowing women to work in both the formal and informal sector and still maintain a good family system (Amo-Mensah & Addison, 2014). Recent statistics indicate that the proportion of women involved in wage employment doubled between 1960 and 2008 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2005, 2008). Although females continue to bear much of household responsibilities, various rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS) point to a slow but gradual increase in

male involvement in household chores and childcare, particularly in urban areas (Ghana Statistical Service 1995, 2000, 2008).

Additionally, working males and females are responsible for caring for the nuclear family and the extended family, especially the aged. In Ghana, caring for aged parents is a moral obligation to adult children (Mensa-Bonsu & Dowuona-Hammond, 1996). These represent a challenge to individuals combining work and family responsibilities. While the extended family system may be a source of demand, they are also a major source of social support for working parents. For example, in the absence of family-supportive services from the government and organisations, extended family relatives play a critical role in caring for young children: grandmothers, siblings, and other relatives are often involved in providing childcare beyond the period of statutory maternity leave (Aryee et al., 2005).

2.4 Review of Related Studies

2.4.1 Relationship between Work-Family Conflict and Work Engagement

Many factors influence work engagement, like individual emotion, organization and so on (Lyu & Fan, 2020). Based on the JD-R model, individuals play multiple roles with different needs and uneven distribution of resources. Individuals have their cognition and evaluation of resource input, and make choices in the trade-off of obtaining, preserving resources and effective stop-loss (Bakker et al., 2014). For female employees, it is difficult to balance family roles and work roles. In the face of serious work-family conflicts, they tend to increase their investment in family and reduce their investment in work because of the realistic trade-off between the demand for family roles and the poor availability of work resources (Bakker &

Xanthopoulou, 2013).

Women are commonly associated with the role of caring for children and are less committed to their careers because of their parenting responsibilities (Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2010). However, despite these positive consequences, scholars have argued that high work engagement can threaten employees' work-family lives (Bolino & Turnley, 2005). Some extant studies have provided evidence for this line of thought. For example, in the United States of America, Halbesleben et al. (2009) reported a positive association between work engagement and WFC. Chernyak-Hai and Tziner (2016) also found that employees' engagement at work increases WFC among employees in Israel. In Nigeria, studies conducted by Balogun and Afolabi (2019, 2020) showed that working mothers in the Nigerian banking industry who are highly engaged at work reported negative work-family interference. To better understand how work engagement predicts WFC across work settings, Listau et al. (2017) echoed the need for more empirical research on this topic to better understand how work engagement predicts WFC across work settings.

According to the JD-R model, any job's traits can be divided into job demands and job resources, in which job demands are the "negative aspects" that deplete personal work energy, like work-family conflict in this study (Bakker et al., 2014). On the contrary, work resources are "positive aspects" in work, like psychological and physiological costs. One of the core assumptions of the model is that there is a work attrition path for employees, that is, the health attrition process, which is caused by job burnout caused by excessive job requirements and lack of work resources, and then leads to negative organizational outcomes.

Engagement is one of the important outcomes of WFC. This is so because when an individual experiences high levels of WFC, it can have significant implications for their emotional and

psychological well-being, which in turn affects their relationship to the job and the organisation. Existing studies have demonstrated that there is a relationship between WFC and engagement which is in line with the tenets of the JD-R theory. For instance, in a study by Nwachukwu, Chládková, Moses, and Vu (2022) on Work-to-family conflict, family satisfaction and engagement, the authors found that there was a strong effect of WFC on engagement in men and for married managers among millennial managers in Nigeria. However, most extant studies that studied the relationship between WFC and engagement operationalised engagement as work engagement with very few operationalising engagement as employee engagement. For instance, Balogun, and Afolabi (2019) studied the relationship between work engagement and WFC with job demands and resources as moderators from the context of Nigeria. The authors found that work engagement was positively related to WFC. While this finding provides insights into the relationship between WFC and engagement, it is centered on work engagement. Yet, it has been pointed out that employee engagement is a distinct construct from work engagement or any other related engagement construct (Shuck et al. 2016). The difference in these two constructs of engagement hinges on the relationship of the employee to the organisation with employee engagement having both relationships to the work and the organization. Extant studies have established significant negative relationship between WFC and engagement (Balogun & Afolabi, 2019; Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2016; Listau et al., 2017). It is worth noting here that these studies operationalised engagement as work engagement.

Very few studies as earlier noted have examined the relationship between WFC and employee engagement. However, even for the studies that operationalised engagement as employee engagement in the relationship between WFC and engagement, they have reported a significant

negative relationship existing between WFC and employee engagement. To illustrate, Kengatharan and Kunatilakam (2020) examined the relationships between WFC, employee engagement and job performance. The authors collected data using self-report questionnaires from 169 female nurses working in three major hospitals in Sri Lanka. Kengatharan and Kunatilakam (2020) found that WFC has a significant but negative relationship with employee engagement. The authors further observed that the negative relationship between WFC and employee engagement was weaker for those reporting a higher level of leader-member exchange. Similarly, Ribeiro et al. (2023) in their study, which examined the effect of WFC on employee engagement and performance with data from employees from various Portuguese organizations, noted that employees who experience higher levels of WFC tend to have lower engagement and a stronger desire to leave their current job. In further agreement with the negative relationship between WFC and employee engagement, Wang et al. (2021) with 426 married male employees in the software and information service industries in China indicated that WFC showed a significant negative effect on both employee engagement and employee innovative behaviour. This negative relationship could be explained by the fact that highly engaged employees may exert high amounts of resources by way of physical energy and the energy required to meet emotional and cognitive demands (Kahn 1990; Schaufeli et al 2002). As a result, highly engaged employees tend to experience high work-family conflict due to loss of resources (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985; Eckenrode & Gore 1990; Halbesleben et al 2009).

2.4.2 Moderators in the Relationship between WFC and Engagement

Extant literature has indicated that the absence of job resources or high job demands can negatively affect the employee (Alarcon, 2011). Furthermore, several scholars agree that in the same way as job resources can attenuate stress that comes from work overload and pressure,

personal resources can do the same. In effect, many studies have examined the moderating role of job and personal resources in mitigating the impact of WFC outcomes. Nonetheless, less attention has been paid to the moderating role of proactive personality as personal resource in the relationship between WFC and its outcomes, specifically, employee engagement and emotional exhaustion. The literature is discussed under three themes: job resources, personal resources and mixed resources.

2.4.2.1 Job Resources as Moderators

Several studies have focused on explaining the moderating role of job resources on the relationship between WFC and its outcomes. Under moderating job resources, scholars have employed moderators such as co-worker support, organizational caring, job autonomy, job scheduling, work support, and family-supportive supervisor behaviour. To illustrate, Han et al. (2023) in their study on WFC and outcomes among 321 kindergarten employees across multiple sites in South Korea found that if co-workers are emotionally supportive (co-worker emotional support), it helps reduce the emotional exhaustion caused by WFC. However, Han et al. (2023) further found that the other type of co-worker support, instrumental support, makes the emotional exhaustion from work conflicts even more intense.

In the same vein, from a personal and job resource perspective, Mostafa (2022), in research with 484 physicians working in 21 public hospitals in Egypt, found that high levels of self-sacrificing disposition and work meaningfulness mitigate the WFC outcome of emotional exhaustion. Thus, the strong willingness to help other colleagues and the ability to find one's work meaningful act as a kind of protection against the emotional exhaustion caused by the conflict between work and family. Similarly, with a sample of 238 service worker-manager pairs from hotels using a two-wave study design, Wang et al. (2021) observed that an

organization's caring reduces the influences of WFC on emotional exhaustion. In another study that employed Chinese social workers, Jia and Li (2022) observed a negative relationship between WFC and exhaustion. However, Jia and Li (2022) further observed that this negative impact is mitigated and reversed when employees receive work support from their top leader and manager. Using the JD-R model, Yucel (2019) found that job autonomy and schedule flexibility moderate the effects of WFC on work engagement. In other words, these two job resources act as a buffer against the negative consequences of WFC conflict adding this only occurs within the matching-domain relations. Furthermore, Balogun and Afolabi (2019) noted in their study that the relationship between work engagement and WFC was notably influenced by job demands and resources. In particular, Balogun and Afolabi (2019) noted that working mothers who were highly engaged in their work and faced both high job demands and high job resources reported lower levels of WFC. This finding aligns with the tenets of the JD-R model, which posits that job demands and resources influence employee well-being and performance. Evidently, high work engagement is associated with a positive and fulfilling work experience.

As such, when combined with job resources, the positive effects of work engagement may outweigh the negative effects of job demands, leading to lower levels of WFC for highly engaged working mothers. More specific job resources, thus, family-supportive supervisor behaviour, a two-wave time-lag study design, and health-care workers in Chinese hospitals, Gull et al. (2023) found that the relationship between WFC and emotional exhaustion is more pronounced among employees with less supportive supervisors in comparison to those with more supportive supervisors. Thus, when employees experience challenges in balancing their work and family responsibilities, having a supportive supervisor can act as a buffer against

emotional exhaustion. Supervisors who understand and accommodate family needs may help mitigate the negative effects of conflict, contributing to lower emotional exhaustion levels among employees. On the other hand, for employees with less supportive supervisors, the strain from WFC may have a more pronounced impact on their emotional well-being.

2.4.2.2 Personal Resources as Moderators

Regarding personal resources acting as moderators in the relationship between WFC and its outcomes, several scholars have employed many personal resources to explain how personal resources may buffer the negative consequences of WFC on its outcomes. However, it seems that largely, less attention has been paid to the role of proactive personality in moderating the relationship between WFC and outcomes such as work engagement and emotional exhaustion. Specifically, the personal resources largely employed are emotional intelligence, family support, marriage, motherhood, resilience, positive refocusing, and self-efficacy.

Personal resources are typically framed as moderators of the relationship between work demands and strain according to the JD-R theory. In line with this, several scholars have studied how personal resources attenuate the negative effect of WFC outcomes on employees. Chakravorty and Singh (2020) from the perspective of primary school teachers in India noted that emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between WFC and emotional exhaustion. Similarly, Balogun and Afolabi (2020) conducted research on 615 working mothers in selected Nigerian banks found that emotional intelligence and resilience played a protective role in the relationship between work interference with family and family interference with work and emotional exhaustion. The authors, argued that the adverse effects of WFC on overall burnout and its dimensions were less pronounced among working mothers who exhibited higher levels of emotional intelligence and resilience. In the same vein, Bernuzzi

et al. (2022) from the perspective of Italian health professionals with high levels of resilience encountered minimal WFC, irrespective of their moral distress levels. Additionally, Bernuzzi et al. (2022) found that the health professionals who regularly employed positive refocusing were more resistant to burnout in the aftermath of moral distress. In other words, both Balogun and Afolabi (2020) and Bernuzzi et al. (2022) agree that resilience as a personal resource act as a buffer against the negative consequences of WFC.

In another study, Pan et al. (2022) from the context of China, surveyed 386 female employees of nine companies in China and explored WFC outcomes such as subjective happiness and organizational citizenship behaviour with the moderating role of family support. The authors observed that family support among female professional employees moderates the impact of WFC on both subjective happiness and organizational citizenship behaviour, demonstrating a weaker association when family support levels are higher. Murtaza, Mousa, and Roques (2021) also conducted research using 202 telecom service employees, observed the potential moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between facilitation and exhaustion but. However, Murtaza et al. (2021) found no support for the moderating role of self-efficacy on the relationship between the WFC and exhaustion. In effect, according to Murtaza et al (2021), a personal resource such as self-efficacy may not significantly influence the impact of WFC on exhaustion. Balogun (2023) found that among female nurses in public hospitals, self-efficacy and resilience buffer the positive relationship between WFC and work engagement. From the perspective of marital status and motherhood personal resources, 1,219 female social workers in China and the COR theory, Zheng et al. (2022) found that the relationship between WFC, burnout, and depression may have been influenced by both marital and motherhood statuses. Specifically, Zheng et al. (2022) argued that being

unmarried and without children emerged as factors that increased the risk of depression among female healthcare and social service providers.

2.4.2.3 Mixed Resources as Moderators

Many scholars have also examined the moderating effects of both personal and job resources on WFC and its outcomes. To illustrate, Gu et al., (2020) from the perspectives of the JD-R and COR theories, and among 320 female preschool teachers in China noted that supervisor work-family support and deep acting directly reduced WFC over time, while meaning of work protected against increased WFC in the presence of work overload and higher levels of surface acting. In the same vein, from the perspective of the JD-R theory and 402 firefighters in China, Wu et al. (2019) found that a strong supervisor-subordinate relationship, known as guanxi (job resource), is linked to a potential improvement in the relationship between WFC and burnout. On the other hand, the authors further noted that the consistent suppression of expressivity (an emotion regulation strategy that is a personal resource) may intensify this relationship. Additionally, in situations where supervisor-subordinate is high, employing cognitive reappraisal (an emotion regulation strategy that is a personal resource) seems to be an effective strategy in alleviating the impact of WFC on burnout.

2.4.3 Moderating role of Proactive personality in the relationship between work-family conflict and Work Engagement

Individuals with proactive personality traits have more ideas and intentionally take personal initiative to change their situation (Buil et al., 2019). According to Wang et al. (2019), a proactive personality refers to a behavioural tendency that focuses on imposing or changing

one's environment, aiming to achieve a different future by looking for opportunities, showing initiative, and being determined to bring about meaningful change. Thus, employees characterized by a proactive personality prefer new methods and ideas to improve their work (Yan et al., 2019). Hu et al. (2020) explain that proactive personality functions seem more efficient in helping individuals achieve their goals when faced with a new and challenging environment. Elsaied (2019) indicated that proactive personalities, namely employees who have unique ways of doing tasks and propose new ideas to increase initiative in using business, and persistence to shape and influence the environment.

Another study by Xie et al. (2018) reveals a complex relationship between proactive personality and work-to-family conflict. They find that proactive personality is negatively related to work-to-family conflict for men but positively related for women, suggesting differences in the perceptions of work-to-family conflict across individuals. Thus, a negative relationship means that more proactive men tend to experience less work-to-family conflict. Likely, they can take initiative to manage work demands in ways that protect their family time (e.g., delegating, time management, boundary setting). Unlike for women, a positive relationship means that more proactive women actually tend to experience more work-to-family conflict. This may be because proactive women may take on more responsibilities or leadership roles at work, increasing work demands and social expectations may still place a higher burden on women to also manage family duties, so increased work involvement leads to more conflict. Therefore, the same personality trait (being proactive) leads to different outcomes for men and women. Xie et al. (2018) explored how proactive personality might influence the level of marital satisfaction in 241 Chinese dual-earner couples. Xie et al. (2018) noted that proactive personality was linked to higher levels of work-family support and,

simultaneously, higher levels of work-family conflict, which subsequently predicted higher and lower marital satisfaction, respectively. Also, the authors found a direct crossover effect of marital satisfaction between partners, implying that an individual's proactive personality and its influence on their own marital satisfaction could extend to impact their spouse's satisfaction as well.

Altura et al. (2020) explored the effects of being proactive on how employees perceive conflicts in both their work and family lives, as well as the outcomes related to their work. Altura et al.'s (2020) findings revealed that being proactive is linked to more conflicts arising from work-interference-in-family (WIF), but fewer conflicts arising from family-interference-in-work- in-work (FIW). The authors further found a positive association between proactive personality and employee performance as well as WIF, while observing a negative relationship between proactive personality and FIW.

Work engagement and proactive personality play an important role as personal resources with a relatively stable tendency to create opportunities that allow employees (gender controlled) to manage their work effectively and personal resources (Caniëls et al., 2018). Employees with proactive characteristics have a work engagement associated with positive work results, and experiencing success in their work (Yan et al., 2019). Aligning proactive personality traits that are fixed and malleable through the right approach in studying the emergence of work engagement, employees should strive to be involved in their work (Tisu et al., 2020). A high level of proactive personality towards employees can result in higher work engagement (Yang et al., 2017). Proactive employees will achieve positive work outcomes through work engagement, gender at their level was significantly associated with work engagement (Wang et al., 2017). In particular, the results show that the effect of work engagement is higher when

frontline employees have a more proactive personality (Buil, Martínez, & Matute., 2019). It should be noted that the compatibility between work and family domains leads to feelings of success, promoted by motivation (Baeriswyl et al., 2016).

Organizations have tried to address this issue to identify the possible effects of cross-domain conflict, whether from work to family or from family to work (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001; O'Driscoll et al., 2004). The state of the art clarifies that the relationship between employees' perceived exhaustion due to high demands originating from work and family environments, coupled with other occupational causes, such as stress, turnover, and individual performance (Khan 2015), can negatively impact organizations' performance and productivity.

On the other hand, valuing work principles that encourage work and family stability, such as part-time jobs, career breaks, parental leave, flexible work schedules, and compressed work weeks (Ministerial Task Force on Work and Family, 2002), fosters workers' performance and mental health (Fitzpatrick et al. 2012). As such, it is crucial to balance the family and professional domains (Smith et al. 2016). Individuals who experience happiness at their workplace present higher productivity rates, which drives organizations to focus their understanding of the importance of family life in the search for possible solutions (Obrenovic et al. 2020). The state of the art has highlighted several discussions concerning the effect of work-family conflict on organizational and individual well-being (Ford et al. 2007; Kossek & Ozeki 1998). Inter-domain conflict negatively affects employees, which is visible through decreased performance, productivity, and job satisfaction (Johnson et al. 2005). In addition to the above, it is worth noting its influence on life satisfaction, psychological distress, and turnover rates (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In other words, the conflict experienced between

both domains, family and work, not only has harmful consequences for one domain, but for both. Thus, it should be emphasized that an intervention at the level of this conflict should focus on both domains to obtain effective results.

2.4.4 Moderating role of Power Distance and Collectivism in the relationship between Work-Family Enrichment and Work Role Performance

Cultures high in power distance are characterized by stricter social order, respect for tradition, and limited upward social mobility, and as stated by Ollier-Malaterre (2015), the more differences in status and power there are in a culture, the more individuals are likely to segment their life roles. Further, individualism-collectivism is predisposed to WFC and WFE signifying inter-reliance negatively as well as positively concerning work, in addition to family roles correspondingly. Hofstede (1980) defined individualism-collectivism as a unit in which beings in a state, like to perform as individuals instead of being members of groups. Many studies revealed that individualism or collectivism is considered as the most broadly practiced dimension in terms of making distinction of beliefs, values, and practices among diverse cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Imada, 2012; Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002; Triandis, 1995) and it explained the differences in the values and beliefs associated with that of work domains in addition to family dominions (Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999; Yang, Chen, Choi, & Zou, 2000; Spector et al., 2004, 2007; Lu et al., 2010; Chappell, 2012). Eastern countries were generally perceived to have more collectivism than individualism in Western countries (Aycan, 2008; Hofstede, 1980; Powell et al., 2009; Spector et al., 2004, 2007).

Ollier-Malaterre (2015) suggested that individuals in low (versus high) power distance societies should experience greater work-family enrichment. She posited that, as individuals in

these societies have more autonomy in achieving their tasks, their jobs are usually more empowering and rewarding. In turn, rewarding jobs may promote resource gains at work, such as positive emotions, that could spill over into the personal life domain and benefit employees' family role (Ollier-Malaterre, 2015). The second hypothesis pertains to the segmentation/integration of life roles. Similar to what Ollo-López and Goñi-Legaz (2015) suggested but based on different rationale, it has been argued that individuals in low (versus high) power distance societies should integrate their work and life roles more because low power distance societies may be conducive of greater informality and more holistic reasoning (Ashforth et al., 2000; Ollier-Malaterre, 2015). For instance, there was more collectivism in China as compared to the United States (Yang et al., 2000), more collectivism in Taiwanese than British (Lu et al., 2006) and more collectivism in Malaysia than Western countries (Hassan et al., 2010; Hassan et al., 2014). Therefore, the employees might be more collectivists than individualists.

In general, individualism-collectivism was interconnected within WFI positively, having low level of WFC and high level of WFE among Eastern countries and regarded more as compared to the Western countries (Hassan et al., 2010; Lu et al., 2010; Powell et al., 2009; Sav, Harris, & Sebar, 2011). In addition, collectivists integrated work roles and family roles to a greater extent as compared to the individualists who were supposed to increase with their experiences within one role and in result enhance their life satisfaction within the other role (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004; Powell et al., 2009). Asian workers were more collectivism in culture orientation; they recognize these areas to improve each other by experiencing less interference of work as compared to family (Chappell, 2012; Sav et al., 2011). Kabasakal and Bodur (2004) stated that high societies take high level of social support

likely in which people wish to accept others' responsibility for happiness. However, low societies take low support from others, in which individuals' concentration only remains on self-enhancement and self-sufficiency. Therefore, collectivist workers were more associated with low WFC by reducing work-family stressors; they linked with high WFE as well as job satisfaction than individualist workers in Eastern cultures than Western countries (Spector et al., 2004, 2007; Aycan, 2008; Powell et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2010).

From meta-analytic studies, Allen et al., (2015) compared cross-national mean differences in work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict across cultural contexts. (Allen et al., 2015) found that family-to-work conflict was higher in more collectivistic societies versus more individualistic cultures in countries with a higher versus a lower economic gender gap, and in countries other than the U.S. versus the U.S. Similarly, (French et al., 2018) also found through meta-analysis that culture significantly moderate some of the relationships between work/family support and work interference with family. The authors further noted that support, which is a moderator, may be most important for reducing WFC in collectivist or assertive cultures, or countries that have high unemployment rates such as Sub-Saharan Countries. Consequently, culture has a significant role to play in WFC, either as an antecedent or moderator. However, from the empirical studies and meta-analyses, most of the cross-cultural comparative studies stem from the Global North, with few on the Global South, specifically, the Sub-Saharan African countries. Each of these two groups of nations has its unique cultural orientations and, therefore, might be affected differently by culture as an antecedent or a moderator. There is, therefore, a need for studies from the Sub-Saharan African countries that provide a clear understanding of the contextual cultural dimension of WFC.

2.5 Research Model and Statements of Hypothesis

2.5.1 WFC and Work Engagement

Work Engagement is a critical outcome influenced by WFC. When individuals experience high levels of WFC, it impacts their emotional and psychological well-being, thereby influencing their attachment to both their job and the organization (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). According to the JD-R model, WFC acts as a demand that can deplete resources, negatively impacting engagement levels (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In high-demand environments such as the service sector, WFC can lead to mental and emotional exhaustion, limiting the capacity for employees to stay engaged at work (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Given the frequent customer interactions and often unpredictable hours typical of service roles, the stress induced by WFC can create additional strain, making it difficult for employees to maintain energy and motivation for their work. Furthermore, the Challenge-Hindrance model suggests that WFC is a hindrance stressor rather than a challenge stressor, meaning it obstructs employees' goal achievement and personal growth, thus negatively affecting their engagement levels (LePine et al., 2005; Cavanaugh et al., 2000).

Again, from the JD-R model's perspective, FWC can act as an external pressure that competes with work demands, reducing the psychological resources employees can dedicate to their work (Bakker et al., 2014). However, the model also suggests that employees who experience enrichment from family life might have a buffer against the negative effects of FWC on Work Engagement, making the impact of FWC on WE potentially less severe in organizations with supportive policies (Wayne et al., 2007). The Challenge-Hindrance Stress model further posits that FWC could hinder goal attainment at work, as employees might feel torn between family obligations and work demands, ultimately leading to lower engagement (Crawford et al., 2010;

Halbesleben et al., 2014). Extant studies in the Work-Family literature align with the JD-R model's premise, establishing a link between WFC and Work Engagement. For instance, Nwachukwu et al. (2022) indicated that WFC had a strong effect on Work Engagement, particularly for married millennial male managers in Nigeria, underscoring the toll WFC takes on Work Engagement across diverse employee demographics. Again, extant research often demonstrates a significant negative relationship between WFC and work engagement, with studies by Balogun & Afolabi (2019), Chernyak-Hai & Tziner (2016), and Listau et al. (2017) consistently reporting such findings. Based on the above arguments and evidence, the following hypotheses are formulated:

***H1a:** There is a significant relationship between WFC and WE*

***H1b:** There is a significant relationship between FWC and WE*

2.5.2 Proactive Personality as a Moderator in the Relationship between Work-Family Conflict and Work Engagement

The role of proactive personality in shaping work engagement has been the focus of considerable research, suggesting that proactive individuals are more likely to take initiative, seek positive change, and engage in self-directed efforts to improve their work environment (Parker et al., 2019). Proactive personality, as a stable dispositional trait, is associated with a person's tendency to effect change, plan, and pursue goals despite obstacles, which are characteristics that naturally foster engagement in the workplace (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). This positive relationship is grounded in the JD-R model, which posits that personal resources, like proactive personality, can buffer the impact of job demands on engagement by encouraging behaviours that mitigate stressors and enhance work-related vigour and dedication (Salanova et al., 2006).

A proactive personality allows individuals to take a problem-solving approach to work challenges, which can mitigate the strain associated with high WFC. According to the JD-R model, proactive individuals are more likely to leverage personal resources to cope with the demands of WFC, enabling them to maintain higher levels of work engagement despite the pressures of balancing work and family roles (Bakker et al., 2014). This aligns with evidence from studies by Crant (2000) and Fay & Frese (2001), who argue that proactive individuals are resilient and better equipped to adapt to conflicting demands by anticipating stressors and planning solutions. Belschak and Den Hartog (2010) argued that proactive individuals manage role conflicts more effectively, thereby sustaining higher engagement levels. Also, from the tenets of the Challenge-Hindrance model, it can be argued that proactive individuals perceive WFC more as a challenge than a hindrance, which, in turn, reduces the potential negative impact of WFC on Work Engagement (Crawford et al., 2010). In other words, when proactive individuals encounter WFC, they may interpret it as an opportunity to develop strategies and gain control over work-life boundaries, effectively diminishing the resource depletion effect of WFC (Hobfoll, 1989).

Similarly, proactive personality may serve as a valuable personal resource in the context of family-work conflict. When proactive individuals experience FWC, their inclination toward planning and adaptability helps them to restructure or prioritize family-related demands, thereby reducing the adverse effects on their work engagement (Strauss et al., 2017). This effect can be particularly beneficial in the service sector, where employees face fluctuating schedules and high interpersonal demands that might otherwise exacerbate family-work interference (Christian et al., 2011). For proactive individuals, FWC may be seen as another challenge to overcome, leading them to take control by finding creative ways to fulfil family obligations

without compromising work engagement. This process reflects the JD-R model's assertion that individuals with higher personal resources can experience greater resilience in the face of demanding situations (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Based on the above rationale, this study hypothesizes the following:

***H2a:** Proactive Personality will relate positively and significantly to work engagement.*

***H2b:** Proactive Personality moderates the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement such that the negative relationship is weaker for individuals with high proactivity compared to those with low proactivity.*

***H2c:** Proactive Personality moderates the relationship between family-work conflict and work engagement such that the negative impact of family-work conflict on work engagement is weaker at high levels of proactivity.*

2.5.3 Power Distance as a Moderator in the Relationship between Work-Family Enrichment and Work Role Performance

Power distance, which reflects the extent to which individuals accept and expect unequal distribution of power within organizations and society, can moderate the relationship between work-family enrichment and work-role performance (Hofstede, 1980; Ollier-Malaterre, 2015). In high power distance contexts, individuals tend to respect hierarchies and adhere to defined social roles, which can influence how work and family domains interact and enhance each other. Specifically, high power distance may strengthen the positive effects of WFE on task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity, as employees in such cultures are more likely to segment their work and family roles, reducing role interference and stress while enhancing resources gained from each domain (Ashforth et al., 2000; Ollo-López & Goñi-Legaz, 2015).

For employees in high power distance settings, the hierarchical and segmented nature of roles

promotes a supportive environment where positive spillover from the work domain into the family domain is encouraged but controlled, leading to enriched work-family experiences (Ollier-Malaterre, 2015; Powell et al., 2009). In contrast, low power distance cultures, which emphasize egalitarian relationships and greater autonomy, may complicate the experience of WFE. Although autonomy in low power distance settings can facilitate work-family integration and lead to greater resource accumulation (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000), the fluidity and potential overlap of roles may sometimes reduce the buffering effect of WFE on task outcomes, particularly under stress or conflicting demands (Ashforth et al., 2000; Ollier-Malaterre, 2015). Furthermore, as low power distance cultures encourage direct empowerment and responsibility (Billing et al., 2013), employees may experience heightened work demands and internalized pressures, leading to increased potential for role conflict (Ollier-Malaterre, 2015). Consequently, the positive effect of WFE on task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity may be less pronounced in low power distance contexts, as role boundaries are more fluid, and resource gains may not translate as effectively across domains.

Ollo-López and Goñi-Legaz (2015) argued that in high power distance contexts, the likelihood of work-family conflict diminishes as individuals prioritize social order and role separation, reducing overlap between domains. Moreover, Ollier-Malaterre (2015) observed that high power distance fosters greater role segmentation, leading to reduced interference between work and family responsibilities. By contrast, in low power distance cultures, where employees experience more empowerment and egalitarian work relationships, the blending of work and family roles is more common. This integration can promote WFE, as individuals derive positive emotions from work that can enhance their family life and vice versa, ultimately supporting the JD-R model's proposition of resource gain (Ashforth et al., 2000; Ollier-Malaterre, 2015).

Thus, power distance may positively moderate the relationship between WFE and various work-role outcomes, as WFE fosters task proficiency, task adaptivity, and task proactivity in high power distance settings. Hence, this study hypothesizes the following:

***H3a:** Power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.*

***H3b:** Power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.*

***H3c:** Power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.*

***H3d:** Power distance moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.*

***H3e:** Power distance moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.*

***H3f:** Power distance moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.*

2.5.4 Collectivism as a Moderator in the Relationship between Work-Family Enrichment and Work Role Performance

Collectivist cultural orientation emphasizes interdependence, loyalty, and support among group members, which can influence the effects of WFE on task performance outcomes by

enhancing the positive spillover of family resources to work. Collectivism encourages the integration of work and family roles, which can enhance WFE by creating a supportive environment that strengthens both domains (Aycan, 2008; Powell et al., 2009). Thus, employees from collectivist backgrounds are more likely to experience a sense of responsibility toward both family and work domains, leading to increased engagement and performance in their roles when they experience family support (Triandis, 1995). This dynamism can facilitate task proficiency as employees leverage family resources to meet workplace expectations, while also supporting adaptivity and proactivity as they feel motivated to improve their roles for the collective benefit (Aycan et al., 2000).

In collectivist settings, positive family experiences may encourage employees to adapt their behaviour to better serve the organization, aligning with the findings of Spector et al. (2007), who noted that collectivist cultures emphasize social harmony and support for adapting to work demands. This can enhance task adaptivity, as employees are more willing to adjust behaviours in response to family-induced positive states. Similarly, proactivity may also be supported, as employees in collectivist cultures draw motivation from their family roles to contribute positively to work, aligning with Triandis (1995) who observed that collectivist orientation increases the value placed on proactive contributions to the group. Research shows that collectivist employees report lower WFC and higher WFE due to cultural norms that facilitate strong support networks and mutual role reinforcement (Hassan et al., 2010; Lu et al., 2010). Kabasakal and Bodur (2004) argued that collectivist values emphasize social support, reducing work-family stressors and promoting WFE. In Western societies, where individualism prevails, the distinct separation of work and family roles may impede the positive spillover effects characteristic of WFE (Sav et al., 2011; Chappell, 2012).

Given the evidence, employees in collectivist culture are likely to exhibit greater benefits from WFE in their work-role performance, particularly in terms of task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity. This reasoning leads to the following hypotheses:

H3g: *Collectivism moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of collectivism.*

H3h: *Collectivism moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of collectivism.*

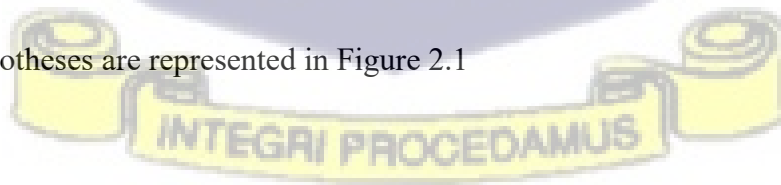
H3i: *Collectivism moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of collectivism.*

H3j: *Collectivism moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of collectivism.*

H3k: *Collectivism moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of collectivism.*

H3l: *Collectivism moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of collectivism.*

The study's hypotheses are represented in Figure 2.1



2.6 Conceptual Framework

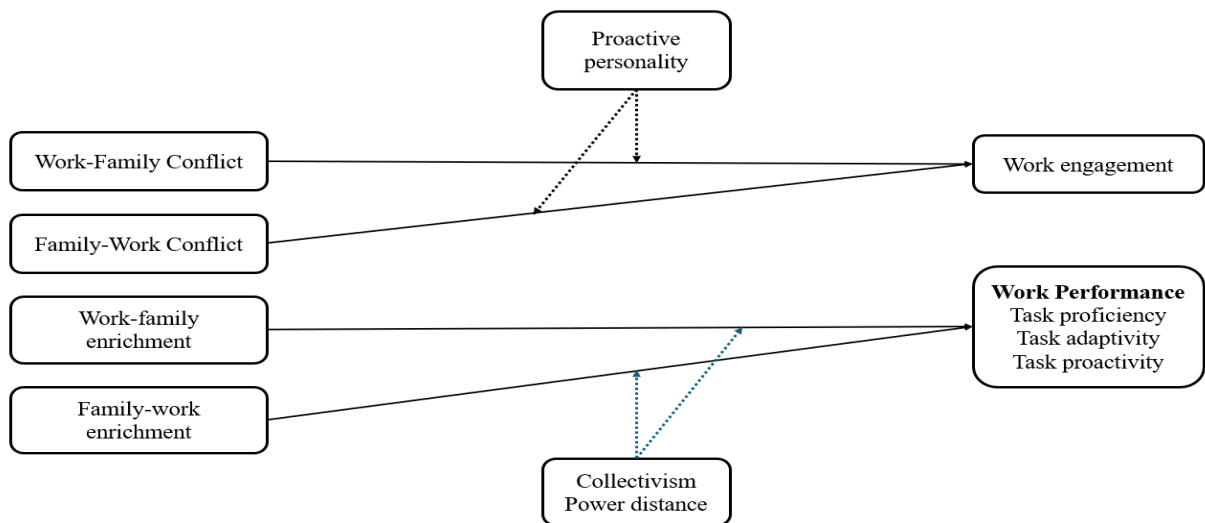


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework



Combining the Job Demands- Resources (JD-R) Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) with the Challenge-Hindrance Stressor Framework (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) this paper uses an integrated theoretical approach to investigate the processes by which work-family interface experiences influence important employee outcomes. Work engagement and work role performance are positioned in the conceptual framework as outcomes. Under the JD-R paradigm, work-family conflict (WFC) and family-work conflict (FWC) are conceptualised as barrier stressors functioning as job demands. These pressures exhaust psychological resources, so it is hypothesised that they would reduce work engagement. Considered as job/personal resources, Work-Family Enrichment (WFE) and Family-Work Enrichment (FWE) help to reduce stresses that improve functioning in the other area. These are supposed to improve job role performance (task proficiency, task adaptivity, task proactivity).

The study runs through proactive personality, collectivism, and power distance as moderators. One personal tool that helps to lessen the bad consequences of WFC and FWC is a proactive personality. By means of proactive actions, aggressive people help to offset the consequences of conflict. Cultural aspects that affect people's view and application of enrichment events include collectivism and power distance. These are hypothesised to help regulate how WFE and FWE affect the results.

The findings from the review of the related studies on Work-family Conflict and its outcomes reveal that there is a need for more research in the work-family interactions domain. Studies have examined multiple factors influencing the relationship between work and family and its outcomes, including emotional exhaustion, and job crafting, employing various research designs and methods. Also, various theoretical lenses such as Conservation of Resources

(COR) theory, Proactive Personality theory, Crossover Theory, Resource-Gain and Resource-Drain Theory, Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory, and the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model have used in extant studies. However, despite this substantial body of work, certain gaps remain that limit our understanding of the nuanced interplay between these constructs. In the ensuing subsections, the identified research gaps are discussed under methodological, theoretical, contextual, and conceptual issues that have either been insufficiently examined or less focused. A summary table of the research perspectives is provided in Table 2.1 below.



Table 2.1: Work-Family Conflict Studies and their Focus, theory and Design

No.	Author (Year)	Focus/ Factors	Sam ple/ Cou ntry	Research Design	Theory
1.	Yang, Qi, Zeng, Han, and Pan, (2021)	work-family conflict, Work engagement, affective commitment, job satisfaction (Mediator)	358 primary and secondary school principals, China	Self-reported Survey	Role conflict theory, Conservation of Resources theory, Spillover theory
2.	Lyu and Fan (2020)	Work family conflict, Work engagement, Job crafting, Gender	391 Employees from three public sectors China	• field survey	Job Demands Resource (JD-R) model, Conservation of Resources Social Identity Theory
3.	Tang, Wang, Qi, Chen, and Roberts (2023)	Work-family conflict, Work engagement	203 preschool teachers China	• Self-reported Survey	Job demands-Resources theory
4.	Yucel, Şirin, and Baş (2021)	Work-family Conflict, Work Engagement, Supervisor Support, Turnover intention	350 public hospital employees in Erzincan province, Turkey	• Cross-sectional • Self-reported survey	• Leader-Membe r Exchange Theory • Social exchange theories
5.	Balogun and Afolabi (2019).	Work Engagement , Work-Family Conflict, Job demands,	156 working mothers Nigeria	Self-reported survey	Job Demands-Resources

		Job resources			
6.	Dodanwala, and Shrestha, (2021)	Work-family conflict, Job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion (mediator)	308 construction professionals, Sri Lanka □	• Cross-Sectional Survey	Conceptual
7.	Bande, Jaramillo, Fernández-Ferrín, and Varela (2019)	Work-family conflict, Ingratiation, Self-promotion, Proactive Behaviour	249 salespeople and 145 supervisors Spain	• Cross-Sectional Survey • Self-reported survey	• Role Theory Conservation of resources Theory (COR)
8.	Jensen (2016).	WFC, Work-role conflict,	1703 employees in oil and gas firms	• A two-wave cross-lagged study	• COR
		Emotional exhaustion	Norway		
9.	Wang, Tsai, Lee, and Ko, (2021)	WFC, Emotional exhaustion Job performance, organizational reward (moderator), Caring (moderator)	238 service worker-manager pairs from 33 hotels Taiwan	• Two-wave /time points study design	Ego Depletion theory
10.	Ribeiro, Gomes, Oliveira, and Dias Semedo (2023)	WFC, Employee engagement, Individual Performance, Turnover intention	167 employee s Portugal	• Self-Reported Survey	• Conceptual

11	Obrenovic, Jianguo, Khudaykulov, and Khan (2020)	WFC, Psychological safety, Psychological well-being (Emotional Exhaustion)	277 Employees in the manufacturing and service firms Bahrain (Middle East)	Self-reported survey	COR
12	Cui & Li, (2021)	WFC, Proactive Behaviour, Workplace Anxiety (Moderators: Immediate supervisor perspective taking, Emotional intelligence)	450 employees China	- Two waves - multi sourced lagged data	COR
13	Gu, Tan, Ho, & Liu (2022)	WFC and individual-level subjective well-being (moderators: Individualism, collectivism, masculinity, femininity, uncertainty avoidance and indulgence-restraint)	23,277 individuals across 37 countries	Cross-sectional	Hofstede's cultural model
14	Xu, Wang, Mu, Jin, & Gao, (2018).	WFC, WFE, (Moderator: individualistic culture,	China	- Cross-sectional - Meta-analysis	Role Theory
		Economic development)			
15	Xie et al. (2018)	WFC, Work-family facilitation, proactive personality and marital satisfaction	241 Chinese dual-earner couples China	- Cross-sectional - Quantitative - Path analysis	spillover crossover

					model
16.	Altur a, Rao, & Viric k (2020)	WFC and proactive personality (Mediators: work- interference- in- family, family- interference- in- work)	1,150 employees USA	• Cross-sectional • Structural equation modeling,	• Resource- Gain • Resource- Drain Theory
17.	Asbari, Novitasa ri, & Purwant o (2021)	Work performanc e, social support, work- family conflict	145 female employees Indonesia	• Cross-sectional • Structural equation modeling,	• Conceptual
18.	Zainal, Zawawi, Aziz, & Ali (2020)	Work-family conflict; Job performance; Social support; Service sector (Moderators: social support received from supervisors and family)	250 employees working in service sector Malaysia	□	• Role Theory • COR
19.	De Clercq et al., (2020)	WFC, Work Engagement , Job performance , Career satisfaction (mediator: work engagement)	400 employees 236 completed sets of surveys Pakistan	• Three-wave, • time-lagged data • 4 weeks between each round.	• COR

20.	(Bernuz zi et al., 2022)	WFC, burnout, resilience, moral distress, positive refocusing	153 Italian healthcare professionals Italy	• Cross-sectional • Self-reported survey	• COR
21.	(Nwach uk wu et al., 2022)	Work-to- family conflict, family satisfaction and Engagement (Moderators : gender and marital status)	127 millennial managers Nigeria	• Cross-Sectional • structural equation modelling method.	•



2.6.1 Methodological Gaps

The research methods and designs of studies in the work-family interactions is very important for ascertaining the validity, reliability and applicability of the research findings. A rigorous research design and method enhances the understanding of how work and family domains and dynamics influence each other leading to a better understanding of the strategies for managing these interactions in diverse contexts. The analysis of extant studies in terms of the methodologies they employed revealed many methodological gaps. This methodological limitations in the work-family literature highlight significant gaps that restrict our understanding of the complex, dynamic nature of work-family conflict and its outcomes. Cross-sectional designs, commonly used in existing studies (see Bande, Jaramillo, Fernández-Ferrín, & Varela, 2019; Dodanwala, & Shrestha, 2021; Reina & Kudesia, 2020; Yucel, Şirin, & Baş 2021), capture data at a single point in time, which limits the ability to assess how work-family conflict evolves and interacts with outcomes like work engagement and Work role performance over extended periods. This one-time snapshot does not accommodate the fluctuating nature of WFC, which may vary due to situational, contextual, or individual factors. For instance, findings from studies by Dodanwala and Shrestha (2021) and Yucel et al. (2021) offer insights into WFC and work engagement at a particular moment but fail to capture changes or causative factors that unfold over time, reducing the ability to draw conclusions about cause and effect. Other studies also employed time lagged research design (See Chen, Allen, & Hou, 2020; Jensen, 2016; Kiburz, Allen, & French, 2017; Montani, Vandenberghe, Khedhaouria, & Courcy, 2020; Wang, Tsai, Lee, & Ko, 2021) to explore temporal patterns in work-family interactions. Interestingly, all the above studies that employed time-lagged design were two

waves in nature except the study of Kiburz et al., (2017) which employed a three-wave study design. Thus, while the above time-lagged studies contribute to a better understanding of temporal dynamics, these designs remain limited in scope and number. These studies failed to collect data beyond two points in time. Additionally, while a few employed experimental sampling methodology (see Kiburz et al., 2017), none used the longitudinal research design in examining WFC and its outcomes.

Similarly, reliance on self-reported data introduces methodological biases, including social desirability bias and common method variance, which may lead to inaccuracies in the assessment of WFC and its associated outcomes. Table 2.1 above shows that majority of extant studies in the WFC literature relied heavily on self-reported data collection method. This tends to introduce potential biases such as social desirability bias and common method variance. For example, studies by Tang et al. (2023) and McNall et al. (2021) relied solely on participants' perceptions, potentially leading to skewed data that does not fully capture the impact of WFC on job performance or personal well-being.

To bridge these methodological gaps, there is a critical need for studies employing three-wave or multi-wave designs to capture data at multiple (three) points in time. Such designs provide a more refined view of the dynamics between WFC and outcome variables, such as work engagement and work role performance. This will enable researchers to disentangle causal relationships and observe changes in WFC and its outcomes across time. Through this



approach, a three-wave design could, for example, provide insights into how WFC interacts with proactive personality as a moderator, examining how personality traits might buffer or amplify the impacts of WFC on work engagement at multiple points. Again, a three-wave design is advantageous for exploring the moderating effects of cultural factors, such as power distance and collectivism, on the relationship between work-family enrichment and work-role performance. By tracking these relationships across time, researchers can better understand how cultural values influence the work-family interface and impact work role performance. Similarly, a three-wave study could measure WFC, work engagement, and cultural moderators at intervals of six months, one year, and eighteen months, providing a longitudinal perspective on how shifts in work demands and family responsibilities affect these interactions. Including multi-source data in this design can help reduce self-report bias, leading to a more balanced and comprehensive understanding of the dynamic and reciprocal influences within work-family interactions. Thus, there is a need for studies that employ longitudinal, three-wave, and experimental sampling methodology in the study of WFC and its outcomes.

2.6.2 Theoretical Gaps

The work-family literature has witnessed a range of theories being employed to explain how WFC impacts various work-related outcomes. From the review of articles as seen in Table 2.2 below, commonly used theories include the Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory, the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model, and Role Theory, each contributing valuable insights into the relationship between WFC and variables like work engagement, job performance, and well-being. For instance, the Job Demands-Resources Model has been employed in studies examining work-family interactions, as seen in Balogun and Afolabi (2019); Lyu and Fan (2020); Montani, Vandenberghe, Khedhaouria, and Courcy (2020); Şahin and Yozgat (2021);

Tang, Wang, Qi, Chen, and Roberts (2023); and Yagil, Cohen, and Yonatan (2023). Out of the identified theories, the most widely employed theory in the field of WFC is the Conservation of Resources. The Conservation of Resources Theory has been widely used in studies of work-family conflict, including those by Bartlett, Buscot, Bindoff, Chambers, and Hassed (2021); Cui and Li (2021); De Clercq, Haq, and Butt (2020); Kiburz, Allen, and French (2017); Liu, Xin, Shen, and He (2020); McNall, Tombari, and Brown (2021); Nicklin, Meachon, and McNall (2019); Obrenovic, Jianguo, Khudaykulov, and Khan (2020); and Yang, Qi, Zeng, Han, and Pan (2021). Similarly, the Role Theory has been a foundation for studies on work-family conflict and related outcomes, including Bande, Jaramillo, Fernández-Ferrín, and Varela (2019); Xu, Wang, Mu, Jin, and Gao (2018); Yang, Qi, Zeng, Han, and Pan (2021); and Zainal, Zawawi, Aziz, and Ali (2020).

Some studies also applied less commonly used theories, such as the Spillover-Crossover Model, Hofstede's Cultural Model, Ego Depletion theory, and the Role theory to explore the cultural and relational dynamics of WFC. Additionally, a few studies employed combinations of these theories, notably the COR theory and JD-R model, to provide a broader perspective on the resource dynamics at play. However, significant theoretical gaps remain, particularly in the limited integration of the JD-R Model with the Challenge-Hindrance Stressor Model, which could enhance understanding of how different types of stressors affect WFC and its outcomes. Table 2.2 below shows the various studies and employed theories as well as their focus.



Table 2.2: Theoretical Lenses within WFC studies

No	Author(s)	Focus	Theory
1	Wang, Tsai, Lee, & Ko (2021)	WFC, Job Performance, emotional exhaustion (Moderators: organizational reward and caring)	Ego Depletion theory
2	Cui & Li, (2021)	WFC, Proactive Behaviour, Workplace Anxiety (Moderators: Immediate supervisor perspective taking, Emotional intelligence)	COR Theory
3	Gu, Tan, Ho, & Liu (2022)	WFC and individual-level subjective well-being (moderators: Individualism, collectivism, masculinity, femininity, uncertainty avoidance and indulgence- restraint)	Hofstede's cultural model
4	Xu, Wang, Mu, Jin, & Gao, (2018)	WFC, WFE, (Moderator: individualistic culture, economic development)	Role Theory
5	Xie, Zhou, & Gong (2018)	WFC, Work-family facilitation, proactive personality and marital satisfaction	Spillover - Crossover Model
6	Altura, Rao, & Virick (2020)	WFC and proactive personality (Mediators: work-interference-in-family, family-interference-in-work)	Resource-Gain/Resource- Drain Theory
7	Obrenovic et al. (2020)	WFC, Psychological safety, Psychological well-being (Emotional Exhaustion)	COR Theory
8	Asbari, Novitasari, & Purwanto (2021)	Work performance, social support, work-family conflict	Conceptual
9	Zainal, Zawawi, Aziz, & Ali (2020)	Work-family conflict, Job performance (Moderators: social support received from supervisors and family)	Role Theory, COR Theory
10	De Clercq, Haq, & Butt (2020)	WFC, Work Engagement, Job performance, Career satisfaction (mediator: work engagement)	COR Theory

No	Author(s)	Focus	Theory
11	Lyu & Fan (2020)	Impact of WFC on work engagement and role demands	JD-R Model
12	Yang, Qi, Zeng, Han, and Pan, (2021)	work-family conflict, Work engagement, affective commitment, job satisfaction (Mediator)	Role conflict theory, COR Theory, Spillover theory
13	Lyu and Fan (2020)	WFC, Work engagement, Job crafting, Gender	JD-R Model, COR Model, Social Identity Theory
14	Tang, Wang, Qi, Chen, and Roberts (2023)	WFC, Work engagement	JD-R Model
15	Yucel, Şirin, and Baş (2021)	Work-family Conflict, Work Engagement, Supervisor Support, Turnover intention	• Social Exchange Theory, • Leader-Member Exchange Theory
16	Balogun and Afolabi (2019).	Work Engagement, Work-Family Conflict, Job demands, Job resources	JD-R Model
17	Dodanwala, and Shrestha, (2021)	Work-family conflict, Job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion (mediator: emotional exhaustion)	Conceptual
18	Bande, Jaramillo, Fernández-Ferrín, and Varela (2019)	Work-family conflict, Ingratiation, Self-promotion, Proactive Behaviour	• COR Theory • Role Theory
19	Jensen (2016)	WFC, Work-role conflict, Emotional exhaustion	COR Theory
20	Ribeiro, Gomes, Oliveira, and Dias Semedo (2023)	WFC, Employee engagement, Individual Performance, Turnover intention	Conceptual

No	Author(s)	Focus	Theory
21	Obrenovic, Jianguo, Khudaykulov, and Khan (2020)	WFC, Psychological safety, Psychological well-being (Emotional Exhaustion)	COR Theory
22	Bernuzzi, Setti, Maffoni, & Sommovigo (2022)	WFC, burnout, resilience, moral distress, positive refocusing	COR Theory
23	Nwachukwu, Chládková, Moses, and Vu (2022)	WFC, family satisfaction, engagement,	-



From the above table, several studies in the work-family conflict literature lack a clearly defined theoretical foundation and are instead conceptual, often focusing on describing relationships between variables without rooting these analyses in established theories. These studies include works by Asbari, Novitasari, and Purwanto (2021); Cheung, Huang, Chang, and Wei (2020); Dodanwala and Shrestha (2021); Liu, Yin, and Shen (2020); Nwachukwu, Chládková, Moses, and Vu (2022); and Reina and Kudesia (2020). This lack of a theoretical underpinning presents limitations, as theories such as the Job Demands-Resources Model or the Conservation of Resources Theory offer structured frameworks that help in understanding complex, multidimensional relationships in work-family interactions. Conceptual studies often provide valuable insights into variable associations, but without theoretical support, they may lack explanations for the mechanisms driving these associations.

Furthermore, from Table 2.2 above, the COR Theory, developed by Hobfoll (1989), is widely used in WFC studies to explain how resource loss affects employee stress, engagement, and performance. Studies such as those of Obrenovic et al. (2020) and De Clercq et al. (2020) relied on COR to analyze how WFC depletes resources, leading to burnout and reduced job satisfaction. Similarly, Yucel et al. (2021) used COR to investigate the negative impact of WFC on job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion, highlighting how resource loss directly impairs employee well-being. However, COR Theory's focus on resource preservation and loss does not distinguish between types of job demands, such as whether a stressor acts as a challenge or a hindrance. Again, the COR Theory alone does not fully address how individuals may interpret or respond differently to stressors depending on whether they view them as challenges (e.g., motivating) or hindrances (e.g., overwhelming), which is crucial in understanding the nuances of WFC. This limitation means that COR alone cannot account for situations where WFC might

motivate employees to improve skills or manage time better, nor does it address positive outcomes such as WFE, work role performance and growth from overcoming challenging demands.

The JD-R Model is another frequently used framework that categorizes workplace factors as either demands or resources, impacting employee engagement and burnout. The JD-R Model offers a more balanced view by categorizing workplace elements as either demands or resources, as seen in the work of Şahin & Yozgat (2021) and Tang et al. (2023). Specifically, Şahin and Yozgat (2021) and Tang et al. (2023) applied the JD-R Model to assess how WFC reduces resources and, subsequently, job performance. The model's division of job demands and resources provides a structured approach to understanding how WFC can diminish engagement, but it lacks differentiation between demands that serve as challenges and those that hinder productivity. This is a key limitation in studies focused on WFC, where stressors may affect individuals positively or negatively depending on personal characteristics, organizational context, and support structures. In addition, the absence of this distinction limits the JD-R Model's ability to capture the dual nature of WFC, where certain types of stressors might positively contribute to engagement through adaptive behaviours, while others might only exacerbate strain.

On the other hand, some studies employed less conventional theories, such as the Spillover-Crossover Model and Hofstede's Cultural Model, to examine the broader context in which WFC operates. To illustrate, Xie, Zhou, and Gong (2018) utilized the Spillover-Crossover Model to understand how WFC influences marital satisfaction, while Gu, Tan, Ho, and Liu (2022) applied Hofstede's Cultural Model to investigate cultural dimensions like individualism

and collectivism as moderators in the WFC-well-being relationship. These theories are valuable for their focus on interpersonal and cultural dynamics, but they do not provide a robust framework for analysing the resource exchanges inherent in work and family roles, nor do they consider how different types of stressors might affect WFC. There is a need for a single study that integrates these models with the Challenge-Hindrance framework to clarify how cultural or relational factors impact the perception of WFC as either a challenge or a hindrance, offering a richer, more nuanced understanding of work-family interactions.

Meanwhile a few studies, such as the one by Lyu & Fan (2020) used a combination of JD-R and COR Theory to explore how resources and demands interact in the context of WFC. This combined approach benefits from COR's emphasis on resource preservation and JD-R's categorization of demands and resources. Specifically, Lyu and Fan (2020) applied both theories to examine how gender moderates the relationship between WFC, job engagement, and job crafting. While this dual-theory approach is a step toward a more comprehensive framework, it still falls short by not addressing the challenge-hindrance distinction within demands. Without the Challenge-Hindrance Model, this combination cannot capture the motivational aspects of WFC or explain why certain demands may positively contribute to outcomes like engagement and personal development.

From the above discussions, the theoretical gaps in existing WFC research largely stem from a lack of integration between the JD-R Model and the Challenge-Hindrance Stressor Model. The literature is replete with studies that either employed the JD-R model, COR mode, or integrated the JD-R model with the COR or other models other than the Challenge-Hindrance Model. The Challenge-Hindrance Model distinguishes between demands that stimulate growth (challenges) and those that obstruct progress (hindrances). Consequently, the application and

integration of the Challenge-Hindrance Model could add critical depth to WFC studies by clarifying how different stressors affect WFC outcomes. Thus, integrating the Challenge-Hindrance Model with the JD-R framework would allow researchers to differentiate these responses and provides a more nuanced perspective on WFC. This integration would also support advanced moderation analysis in WFC research. For example, resources like proactive personality could serve as moderators that amplify challenge perceptions and reduce the impact of hindrance stressors. Applying both models in tandem would create a framework for examining not only the types of stressors associated with WFC but also the conditions under which these stressors may lead to positive or negative outcomes.

In effect, while theories like COR and JD-R provide valuable insights into resource dynamics, they do not distinguish between challenge and hindrance stressors within WFC. On the other hand, less frequently used theories, such as cultural models, add valuable context but lack a focus on resources. By integrating the JD-R Model with the Challenge-Hindrance Stressor Model, future research can overcome these limitations, offering a more refined framework that addresses both the positive and negative aspects of WFC. This combined approach would support deeper insights into the mechanisms underlying WFC and inform more targeted strategies for managing work-family dynamics in the workplace.

2.6.3 Contextual Gaps

In examining the table of recent studies on work-family conflict and its outcomes in Table 2.3 below, several contextual research gaps emerge when categorizing findings by country development status, sample size, and industry/sector. These gaps unearth potential biases in the geographical distribution of research, the concentration of studies in specific industries, and the implications for understanding WFC across diverse socio-economic and cultural

landscapes. In terms of contextual gap, there seems to be much concentration of studies in the WFC literature in the developed countries, with less attention being paid to developing countries such as Ghana. Table 2.3 below shows the distribution of the articles by country and sector/industry.

Table 2.3: Article Distribution by Sector and Country

No.	Author (Year)	Country	Study's Sample	Developed/Developing Country	Sector/Industry
1	Chen, Allen, and Hou (2020)	China	105 dual-career couples	Developing	Dual career (General)
2	Montani, Vandenberghe, Khedharia, and Courcy (2020)	Canada, USA	160 employees (Canada), 153 employees (USA), 208 employees (USA)	Developed	General Employees
3	Liu, Xin, Shen, He, and Liu (2020)	China	311 employees (83 teams) from the service sector	Developing	Service
4	Cheung, Huang, Chang, and Wei (2020)	China	280 automobile employees, 282 manufacturing employees	Developing	Manufacturing, Automobile
5	Yang, Qi, Zeng, Han, and Pan (2021)	China	358 primary and secondary school principals	Developing	Education (Service)

No.	Author (Year)	Country	Study's Sample	Developed/Developing Country	Sector/Industry
6	Liu, Yin, and Shen (2020)	China	2,372 nurses from five hospitals	Developing	Healthcare (Service)
7	Lyu and Fan (2020)	China	391 employees from three public sectors	Developing	Public Sector (Service)
8	Tang, Wang, Qi, Chen, and Roberts (2023)	China	203 preschool teachers	Developing	Education (Service)
9	Kiburz, Allen, and French (2017)	USA	102 employees and alumni from Southeastern university and community college	Developed	Education (Service)
10	Bartlett, Buscot, Bindoff, Chambers, and Hassed (2021)	Multiple countries	16,697 English-speaking adults	Mixed	General Population
11	Yucel, Şirin, and Baş (2021)	Turkey	350 public hospital employees	Developing	Healthcare (Service)
12	McNall, Tombari, and Brown (2021)	USA	117 employed adults (Caucasian females without children)	Developed	General Employees

No.	Author (Year)	Country	Study's Sample	Developed/Developing Country	Sector/Industry
13	Nicklin, Meachon, and McNall (2019)	USA	231 employed graduate students	Developed	Education (Service)
14	Balogun and Afolabi (2019)	Nigeria	156 working mothers	Developing	General Employees
15	Reina and Kudesia (2020)	USA	558 participants (205 students, 168 nurses, 185 community members)	Developed	Education, Healthcare (Service)
16	Dodanwal a and Shrestha (2021)	Sri Lanka	308 construction professionals	Developing	Construction
17	Bande, Jaramillo, Fernández-Ferrín, and Varela (2019)	Spain	249 salespeople and 145 supervisors	Developed	Sales / Service
18	Jensen (2016)	Norway	1,703 employees in oil and gas firms	Developed	Oil and Gas
19	Wang, Tsai, Lee, and Ko (2021)	Taiwan	238 service worker-manager pairs	Developing	Service
20	Ribeiro, Gomes, Oliveira, and Dias Semedo (2023)	Portugal	167 employees	Developed	General Employees

No.	Author (Year)	Country	Study's Sample	Developed/Developing Country	Sector/Industry
21	Obrenovic, Jianguo, Khudaykulov, and Khan (2020)	Bahrain	277 employees in manufacturing and service firms	Developing	Manufacturing and Service
22	Cui and Li (2021)	China	450 employees	Developing	General Employees
23	Gu, Tan, Ho, and Liu (2022)	37 countries	23,277 individuals	Mixed	General Population
24	Xu, Wang, Mu, Jin, and Gao (2018)	China	Cross-sectional survey (meta-analysis)	Developing	General Population
25	Xie et al. (2018)	China	241 Chinese dual-earner couples	Developing	Dual career (General)
26	Altura, Rao, and Virick (2020)	USA	1,150 employees	Developed	General Employees
27	Asbari, Novitasari, and Purwantono (2021)	Indonesia	145 female employees	Developing	General Employees
28	Zainal, Zawawi, Aziz, and Ali (2020)	Malaysia	250 employees in service sector	Developing	Service
29	De Clercq et al.	Pakistan	400 employees (236 completed)	Developing	General Employees

	(2020)		surveys)		
30	Yagil et al. (2023)	Israel	303 call-center employees	Developed	Call Centre/ Service
31	Bernuzzi et al. (2022)	Italy	153 healthcare professionals	Developed	Healthcare/Service
32	Nwachukwu et al. (2022)	Nigeria	127 millennial managers	Developing	Service



From the above table, it can be observed that one major contextual gap in the research on WFC and its outcomes is the imbalance in studies conducted in developed versus developing countries. Table 2.3 highlights a concentration of studies in China and the United States. Other developed countries, like Canada, Norway, and Italy, as well as developing nations such as Turkey, Nigeria, Indonesia and Ghana, are represented to a lesser extent. This distribution highlights a geographical research gap, as the majority of WFC studies have been conducted in East Asian countries (China) and Western countries, often at the expense of underrepresented regions like Africa, South America, and the Middle East. Developing countries are characterized by unique economic pressures, lower levels of institutional support for families, and often more conservative gender roles, all of which can impact WFC dynamics. For instance, in Nigeria, traditional gender roles might place additional pressures on working mothers, as seen in the study by Balogun and Afolabi (2019). However, limited research in other parts of Africa, Latin America, and Southeast Asia fails to capture these localized WFC dynamics, leading to a skewed understanding of WFC that primarily reflects Western and East Asian experiences.

This gap limits the applicability of findings in a global context, as different cultural norms, economic pressures, and family dynamics influence work-family conflicts and their outcomes in diverse ways. Again, the cultural emphasis on collectivism in many developing countries like Ghana, Nigeria and Pakistan may shape how individuals perceive and prioritize family obligations relative to work demands. In developed nations like the U.S., which emphasizes individualism, employees may experience WFC differently and have distinct approaches to managing such conflicts, especially where institutional supports like family leave are available. However, the relative lack of studies in regions outside China and the U.S. risks

creating an overgeneralized view of WFC based on a limited set of socio-cultural and economic contexts. This discrepancy underscores the need for more research in underrepresented developing countries like Ghana, where WFC dynamics might differ significantly due to socio-economic conditions, labour market structures, and cultural norms surrounding family roles.

Further, the table also reveals significant gaps in the sectors studied, with the majority of WFC research focused on healthcare, education, and general employee populations. Notably, healthcare professionals, public sector employees, and general service workers represent a large portion of the sample population in both developing and developed countries. For example, Liu, Yin, and Shen (2020) studied 2,372 nurses in China, while McNall, Tombari, and Brown (2021) focused on healthcare professionals in the U.S. These studies highlight the WFC challenges faced by workers in emotionally demanding and time-intensive fields where job demands can directly interfere with family responsibilities. However, other sectors, like banking and finance, technology, telecommunication or gig economies, remain underrepresented in the research, despite the unique WFC challenges they may present, such as high-stakes decision-making, extensive travel, or unpredictable schedules.

This sectoral gap limits a holistic understanding of WFC across diverse industries and contributes to an incomplete picture of how different job characteristics influence WFC. For instance, while healthcare workers might face conflict due to long hours and emotional labour, workers in technology or finance sectors might experience conflict due to high performance demands and extended work hours. Addressing this gap would involve studying underrepresented sectors where employees likely encounter distinct WFC pressures and coping mechanisms. It is particularly important to understand WFC in emerging industries, like the

technology, banking and finance, and the telecommunication sectors where remote work and flexible hours could both alleviate and exacerbate WFC in ways not seen in more traditional sectors. Similarly, from the industry perspective, there seem to be a significant gap in research particularly in high-stress industries like construction, manufacturing, and gig-based work, where job demands and schedules are often rigid and demanding. The study by Dodanwala and Shrestha (2021) on construction professionals in Sri Lanka highlights a rare focus on a demanding industry in a developing country. However, much of the WFC literature continues to focus on public sector employees, educators, and healthcare workers, leaving significant gaps in other industries. For example, industries like retail, logistics, and manufacturing where employees often lack control over their schedules and work in physically demanding roles encounter unique WFC pressures that are not yet fully explored in the literature.

Another notable gap in the existing research as can be observed from Table 2.3 is related to sample size. Studies with larger sample sizes, such as those by Gu, Tan, Ho, and Liu (2022) and Bartlett et al. (2021), provide robust statistical power, allowing for more generalizable insights into WFC. In contrast, many studies use relatively small samples, often fewer than 200 participants, limiting the statistical power and generalizability of their findings. For example, Chen, Allen, and Hou (2020) in China studied only 105 dual-career couples, which may not capture the full range of WFC experiences even within that specific group. This gap in sample size is further complicated by an imbalance in sample characteristics; for example, Kiburz, Allen, and French (2017) focused solely on Caucasian females without children, limiting the relevance of their findings for a broader, more diverse population. This gap in sample size and diversity highlights the need for more comprehensive, large-scale studies across different demographic groups, which would yield insights into how factors like race, marital status, and

parental status intersect with WFC experiences. Small sample studies are still valuable for exploring nuanced experiences and developing theories, but scaling up sample sizes and ensuring diverse representation also enhances the robustness and applicability of findings, especially in multicultural societies where WFC dynamics may vary significantly among different social groups. Hence, the need for studies that employ large sample size.

2.6.4 Conceptual Gaps

Despite the growing body of literature exploring the relationships between work-family conflict (WFC) and its outcomes, several research gaps persist, particularly concerning unexplored relationships and constructs, as well as the roles of moderators. First, many studies, such as those by Wang et al. (2021) and Şahin & Yozgat (2021), investigated WFC's direct effect on job performance, often using moderators like organizational rewards. However, these studies typically lack exploration into how personality traits, such as proactive personality, moderate this relationship. This oversight limits the understanding of individual differences in handling WFC and Work Role performance. Additionally, while organizational and supervisory support has been examined (e.g., Zainal et al., 2020), further research into how proactive behaviours could buffer or exacerbate WFC effects on work performance is warranted, particularly given the importance of such personality traits in dynamic work settings.

In addition, although Gu et al. (2022) explored cultural moderators such as individualism, collectivism, and masculinity/femininity, broader constructs like power distance and collectivism remain under-researched in their moderating effect on WFC outcomes. This is crucial for understanding WFC within culturally diverse environments and aligns with the third objective to examine cultural dimensions in work-family enrichment and work-role

performance. Xu et al. (2018) studied cultural factors, yet there remains a significant gap in understanding how cultural attitudes towards authority and group harmony, as expressed through power distance and collectivism, might impact WFC's effects on performance. Addressing this gap would offer valuable insights into cross-cultural variations in WFC outcomes, especially in developing countries where collectivist and hierarchical norms may influence work-family dynamics differently from those in individualistic cultures.

Again, while numerous studies have examined various personal and job resources as moderators in the relationship between WFC and its outcomes, the role of proactive personality remains underexplored. Although some research has identified proactive personality traits as influential in work engagement and emotional exhaustion, more nuanced investigations are needed to understand how proactive individuals manage their work-family balance. The mixed findings regarding gender differences in the effects of proactive personality on WFC highlight the complexity of this construct, necessitating further exploration to clarify these dynamics across different demographic groups. Additionally, the interaction between different types of WFC, specifically, work interference with family and family interference with work warrants further study. Existing literature has primarily focused on WIF, leaving a gap in understanding how FIW influences emotional outcomes and engagement. Research that concurrently examines both directions of conflict will provide a more comprehensive understanding of how these inter-domain tensions affect employee well-being, work role performance and engagement.

Further, the literature indicates that job and personal resources can buffer the adverse effects of WFC on engagement and emotional exhaustion. However, there is a lack of studies examining mixed resources, thus, the interplay of job and personal resources, within diverse

occupational contexts. For example, while existing studies (e.g., Gu et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2019) have addressed the combined effects of these resources, a comprehensive framework that systematically explores the interactions between different types of resources is needed to identify effective interventions. Moreover, whereas personal resources such as emotional intelligence and resilience have been highlighted as buffers against the negative impacts of WFC, less attention has been directed toward other personal characteristics that may serve as moderators. In the same vein, there is a lack of research on proactive personality and job crafting within the WFC literature, despite their relevance to employee-driven efforts to manage WFC. Studies like Xie, Zhou, & Gong (2018) focused on proactive personality, yet further research is needed to understand how it could act as a buffer or intensifier in the WFC and work engagement relationship. Additionally, although work-family enrichment is sometimes considered alongside WFC, as in Xu et al. (2018), the focus has often been limited to enrichment as an outcome rather than as an interactive construct with WFC. Exploring work-family enrichment and job crafting as adaptive behaviours could reveal how employees might balance demands in both domains.

Finally, the role of emotional well-being constructs, such as subjective well-being, psychological safety, and resilience, has been examined sporadically in the WFC literature (e.g., Obrenovic et al., 2020; Bernuzzi et al., 2022). Emotional exhaustion is often highlighted as an outcome of WFC, but limited attention is given to factors like subjective well-being or positive refocusing as mechanisms that could alleviate or exacerbate the impact of WFC on job performance and engagement. This gap in examining emotional well-being factors as moderators leaves a gap in understanding how employees can maintain performance and engagement despite WFC pressures.

Addressing these gaps can enhance the relevance and applicability of WFC research, offering insights into how personality traits and cultural attitudes, resources shape WFC outcomes in diverse settings. Understanding these dynamics can inform targeted interventions and organizational policies to promote work engagement, resilience, and job performance across various cultural and industrial contexts.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Chapter three provides an elaborate account of the methodology adopted and employed in the study to help achieve the research objectives. According to Stevens (2002), one very important aspect of research is choosing the right methodology which is regarded as a crucial component of research studies (Hancock et al., 2009). This chapter commences with a comprehensive exposition of the philosophical bases of the research, informing the research design and approach, methodology, as well as the study setting. This is followed by an explanation of the principal elements, including the study setting, target population, sample frame, and the specific sample employed. Furthermore, it describes the utilized instruments. In addition, the chapter explains the methodology used to gather data, including a comprehensive overview of preliminary studies and the steps taken to collect and prepare the data for analysis.

3.1 Philosophical Underpinnings

Research philosophies are a set of beliefs, assumptions, and principles that underlie the approach of this study. Thus, helping to guide the design and approach to research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Research philosophy describes the fundamental beliefs of the researcher with respect to how knowledge in a specific field of interest is developed. These beliefs influence how the study is conducted. The philosophical paradigm adopted in a study also performs a major role in terms of determining the most optimal research design and consequently the avoidance of confusion and ambiguity (Collis & Hussey, 2014). According to the research onion by Saunders et al. (2016), there are four different philosophies which are positivism, realism, interpretivism, and pragmatism. Considering the aim of this study is to

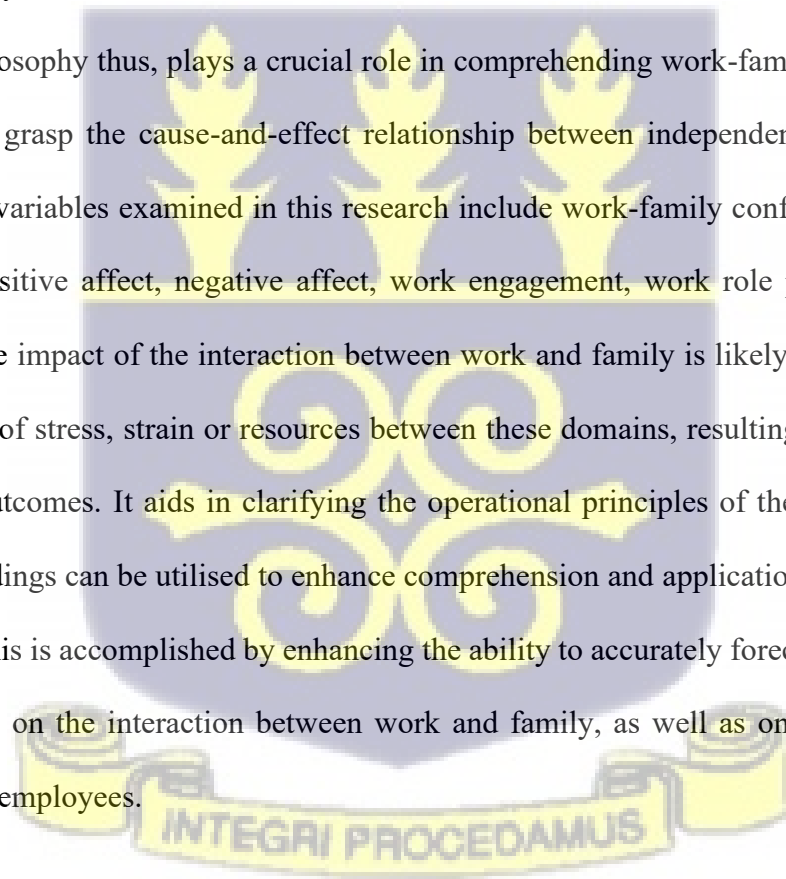
examine work-family conflict and outcomes: a test of moderating processes on the individual and organizational level, this research is rooted in the positivist philosophy due to the interest in the nature of the variables being studied and the unique methodological approach for data collection, analysis, interpretation of data and discussion. Accordingly, it makes use of positivism philosophy, which entails the objective collection of quantifiable data for use in establishing the relationship between specific study variables (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The positivism paradigm is also selected since it emphasises the careful measurement of study variables through data aggregation (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). According to Morris (2006) the positivist researcher maintains that it is possible to adopt a distant, detached, neutral and non-interactive position. This position enables the researcher to assume the role of an objective analyst, making detached interpretations about those data that have been collected in an apparently value-free manner.

Positivism is a philosophical approach that emphasizes empirical observation, scientific method, and objectivity in research. It is rooted in the belief that knowledge can be obtained through objective observations and measurements. From the positivist philosophy perspective, events relating to humans have a determined, identifiable cause that is verifiable. The selection of research methods that emphasize empirical evidence and objectivity, such as surveys and statistical analysis are guided by the positivist philosophy. The use of structured data collection techniques to ensure reliability, and objectivity in gathering empirical evidence and the use of statistical methods and quantitative analysis to test hypotheses for drawing conclusions based on the empirical data are guided by the positivist philosophy.

Positivism is a scientific method that seeks to understand the relationship between causes and

effects by examining the law-like connections between variables. It emphasises objectivity and the ability to provide explanations. The distinguishing factor between positivism and interpretive philosophies lies in positivism's clear, distinct, scientific, and value-neutral methodology, while the interpretive places significant emphasis on subjective understanding and criticises positivism for oversimplifying and lacking comprehension of the complexities of the social world. Positivism unambiguously establishes causal relationships. This distinction was recognised as significant from an interpretive perspective. Positivism's cause-effect orientation serves to narrow the knowledge gap in the field of social sciences. Thus, the positivist philosophy assumes that answers can be found by carefully measuring and analyzing data, particularly numerical data. This research therefore drew on these assumptions.

Positivism philosophy thus, plays a crucial role in comprehending work-family interaction by enabling us to grasp the cause-and-effect relationship between independent and dependent variables. The variables examined in this research include work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, positive affect, negative affect, work engagement, work role performance and exhaustion. The impact of the interaction between work and family is likely to be influenced by the transfer of stress, strain or resources between these domains, resulting in both conflict and positive outcomes. It aids in clarifying the operational principles of these variables and implies the findings can be utilised to enhance comprehension and application of work-family psychology. This is accomplished by enhancing the ability to accurately forecast the impact of specific factors on the interaction between work and family, as well as on the lifestyles of employers and employees.



3.2 Research Approach

According to Saunders et al. (2016), the second layer of the research onion is the research approach, in which there are two types of approach. The approaches are inductive and deductive. Taking into consideration the main objective of this study, the study uses a deductive approach. In the deductive approach, one develops a hypothesis from the theory and devises a research strategy to test the hypothesis to accept or reject it. Whereas in the inductive approach, one has to collect data, analyze it, and develop a theory based on the result of the analyzed data (Saunders et al., 2016). The deductive approach is the basis of the research to test a theory by analyzing the hypotheses.

The deductive approach requires the research to be consistent with a positivist philosophy (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). This approach represents characteristics of the correlation between theory and research. Based on gained knowledge that may be inferred from the theoretical reflection about the research field, one assumes a hypothesis that will be observed in empirical analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2007). According to Robson and McCartan (2002), cited in Saunders et al., 2016), deductive research goes through five (5) steps. First develop a hypothesis from a theory, second, express the hypothesis in operational terms, third is hypothesis testing, fourth analyzes the particular result of the inquiry and in the fifth and final stage verify or modify the theory on the base of your findings. The collection of quantitative data is an important characteristic of the deductive approach although it may use qualitative data sometimes. In the deductive approach., highly structured methodology is implemented to assist replication to guarantee reliability. Generalization is another important characteristic of the deductive approach (Saunders et al., 2016).

According to Creswell (2013), a descriptive survey collects information by administering a questionnaire to a sample of individuals. This research method was an appropriate choice since the research also aimed to identify characteristics, frequencies, trends, correlations, and categories. In effect, Creswell (2013) stated that descriptive research determines and reports how things are and helps a researcher describe a phenomenon in terms of attitude, values, and characteristics. The study used a survey design. A survey is a data collection tool used more often than not, to gather factual information about individuals. Creswell (2013) argues that survey design provides a quantitative or numerical description of some fraction of the population, which is the sample, through the data collection process of asking respondents questions and eliciting responses from them. This data collection, in turn, enabled the researcher to generalize the findings from a sample of responses to a population. In this research, a questionnaire was used as questionnaires allowed the researcher to collect large amounts of data within a period; also, questionnaires are less expensive than many other data collection techniques (Yin, 2009) and lastly, questionnaires can be used to collect information on a wide range of issues, including but not limited to issues relating to personal facts, work attitudes, and opinions.

According to Bryman and Bell (2015), a key advantage of surveys is that they facilitate the collection of data from a relatively large sample in a time and cost- efficient manner. In addition, the use of surveys allows for a reduction in researcher bias. Such bias has been found to negatively impact the credibility of the findings due to the presence of the As Bryman and Bell (2015) indicated, a key advantage of surveys is that they facilitate the collection of data from a relatively large sample in a time and cost-efficient manner. In addition, the use of surveys allows for a reduction in researcher bias. Such bias has been found to negatively

impact the credibility of the findings due to the presence of the researcher's opinion during the data interpretation process (Chenail, 2011).

Quantitative research can take the form of experimental studies, surveys, informal comparison studies, and correlational studies (Hammarberg et al., 2016). According to Enosh and Ben-Ari (2016), quantitative research may be used to evaluate hypotheses by analyzing statistics and numbers. The quantitative approach was employed because this study examined the cause-and-effect relationships between variables, which were measured numerically and analyzed using a range of statistics. At all times, quantitative research seeks to establish causal relationships between dependent and independent variables (Errasti-Ibarrondo et al., 2018).

As a result, the positivism philosophy was used in this thesis to look into the variables' causal relationships (Al-Ababneh, 2020). The approach for this research was quantitative or deductive, with hypotheses tested, based on the research objectives. Positivism is the intellectual underpinning of quantitative research methods. The current study emphasized quantitative assessment in collecting and analyzing data and adopted a deductive approach to understanding the link between theory and research. Furthermore, incorporate norms of natural sciences and positivism (Bell & Bryman, 2019) while checking the statistical relations between the variables chosen for the study. Accordingly, the quantitative method selected affirms existing assumptions about the relationship between the variables used in this study. The quantitative approach also allows the testing of the statistical relationships between the variables of the study.

One quality of the quantitative research, according to Creswell, (2013), is the requirement that the sample used must reflect the attributes of the target population, which implies that in

quantitative studies, representativeness is always crucial hence the use of a probability sampling procedure in selecting the sample for the study. Saunders and Thornhill (2009) had earlier maintained that a quantitative research approach usually requires a relatively large sample size selected for meaningful analysis and applicability of generalization of the findings to the entire population. An advantage of quantitative research is that it gives objective results as compared to a qualitative approach which can be value-laden (Yin, 2009). Again, the rationale behind the quantitative method is that the researcher can analyse the objectives generated on the topic as a statistical representation of the collected data (Creswell & Poth, 2017).

3.3 Research Design

Sekaran and Bougie (2013) define a research design as the scheme, outline or plan that is used to generate answers to the research problems. A research design can be regarded as an arrangement of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance with the research purpose. It was the conceptual structure within which research was conducted. The philosophical foundation of quantitative design is grounded in positivist epistemology, which emphasizes quantification, objectivity, and deductive logic (Tuli, 2010). Burns and Grove (2003) define research design as “a blueprint for conducting a study” or as the general plan on how to go about answering your research questions (Saunders et al., 2019).

In quantitative research, there is the concern to avoid a common method bias and, in this study, a further step was taken to avoid it. Common method bias occurs when the way data collected in a study introduces systematic errors that affect the relationships among variables, leading to biased results. This bias can arise from using the same measurement method for multiple

variables, which can inflate the relationships between variables artificially. Some sources of common method bias include Common Rater Bias which may arise when the same individual provides data for both predictor and criterion variables, leading to potential biases in responses, and Common Measurement Context, which occurs when data for predictor and criterion variables are collected in the same measurement context, increasing the likelihood of method biases. Common Item Context arises from the items' characteristics, such as wording or format, which can influence responses. Other sources of method biases may be from the attributes of items in the questionnaire being ambiguous or socially desirable (Podsakoff et al. 2003).

Researchers are therefore cautioned to be aware of common method bias and take steps to mitigate its effects to ensure the validity and reliability of their research findings (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Introducing a temporal separation in the data collection process can help reduce issues of common method bias. This informed the use of a time-lagged design in this study. Using a time-lagged design involves collecting data at different points in time, which helps mitigate the influence of method biases that may arise from respondents' tendencies to provide similar responses across measures or due to the proximity of items in an instrument. By introducing a temporal delay between data collection points, researchers can minimize the impact of method biases on the study results (Podsakoff et al., 2012). This is one of the key reasons for choosing the method for this study. Some researchers have used the time-lagged design in the work-family literature (Landolf et al. 2020; Odle-Dusseau et al. 2018). This study therefore, employed a three-wave time-lagged research design.

3.4 Target Population

According to Saunders et al. (2016), the population of a study is the entire set of cases (elements) from which a sample is drawn. A population can also be defined as the complete set

of individuals, objects or events with common observable features in which the researcher is interested. Ghanaian service-based sector employees of both public and private organizations, working in the Greater Accra Region, was the population. The service sector was used because it is currently ranked highest in Ghana as contributing to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) with a growth rate of 13.4% (Quarterly Gross Domestic Product Report-Ghana Statistical Service, 2021) and cuts across retail, banks, hotels, real estate, education, health, social work, information technology services, recreation, media, communications.

The service sector employees tend to experience issues concerning the interaction between work and family due to its human effort-based nature and the quest to satisfy clients (Gamor et al. 2014; 2018; Dankwa et al. 2023). In the African, especially Ghanaian, cultural setting of an extended family system orientation (Nukunya, 2003), there are specific demands or responsibilities on men and women where men are seen as breadwinners of the family and women serve as the caregivers. As the quest for professionalism emerges, the service sector, for example, experiences employees conflicting or finds it challenging to balance the interactions between work and family (Ahmed, 2014; Gamor et al., 2018; Osei Boakye et al., 2022; Dankwa et al., 2023). The demands have also increased the dual-career couples and employees performing multiple roles (Osei Boakye et al., 2022). These are characterized by customer service demands, peak period fluctuations (Adu et al. 2024), long working hours (Adu et al. 2024; Burke et al., 2016; Icha-Ituma, 2017), work overload, and reduced family care hours with its impact on the individual such as reduced work performance. These informed the target population of this study.

The accessible population, however, was limited to employees from three selected service organizations: finance, telecommunications, and hospitality sectors, located in the Greater

Accra. These were the organizations from which the sample was drawn. Access was determined based on organizational consent and the employee's availability, and meeting the inclusion criteria during the data collection period.

3.5 Sampling Technique

According to Webb (2000), there are two main types of sampling techniques. These are probability sampling and non-probability sampling. With probability sampling, all elements are given equal chances of being selected, whereas with non-probability sampling, the chances of selection depend on the researcher's discretion. They are sampled to achieve the demands of research objectives (Webb, 2000). This study used a non-probability sampling technique. Purposive sampling was used to select the service-based organizations from the public and private sectors. Webb (2000) posits that sample members should meet specific criteria for completing their investigation. The criteria were based on respondents' exposure to some form of work and family interactions in both the public and the private sector. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where researchers select participants based on their ease of access and availability. In convenience sampling, individuals who are readily accessible to the researcher are included in the study, often because they are convenient to reach or are willing to participate.

According to Creswell (2013), convenience sampling involves selecting freely those cases that are easiest to obtain for your sample. The choice of utilizing this sampling technique suits the research because of the ease of data gathering and the ability to overcome time constraints due to the size of the sample size (Creswell, 2013). The study selected the respondents using the convenience sampling approach, which entails distributing the questionnaires based on accessibility and convenience for both the researcher and the respondents. This approach was

employed since it enables the study to use subjects who could be reached and included in the study. It was possible to select respondents who were more eager and able to provide the needed data for the study by using the convenience sampling technique over the three-wave period. Within the work-family literature, studies by Adu et al. (2024), Landolfi et al. (2020), and Odle-Dusseau et al. (2018) have deployed the convenience sampling technique.

3.5.1 Inclusion Criteria

Participants who qualified to participate in the study were formal and informal service-based organization workers who had been in the organization for at least six months at the time of data collection and worked full-time.

3.6 Sample Size for the Study

Determining the adequate sample size to address the research questions is vital to any study. Calculating the exact sample size is critical for producing the best results and ensuring that the hypothesis testing has an increased chance of identifying a substantial difference in the parameters. When deciding how big a sample size ought to be, the method of data analysis and model complexity are essential factors to consider (Malhotra et al., 2017). According to Fornell and Lacker (1981), a bigger sample size leads to fewer errors in the study. Stevens (2012) also posited that the sample size should be greater than 300 to determine a sample size for a statistically reliable analysis. Small sample sizes are highly suggested as appropriate in other studies (Sideridis et al., 2014). Even so, some argue that a sample size of less than 100 is too small for data analysis, and, as a result, a sample size of more than 500 is recommended if the research has more than seven (7) constructs (Hair et al., 2016). Santoni and Harahap (2018) recommended that a sample size of between 100 and 150 is the critical number under the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) technique with up to five (5) variables and each construct

explained by three or more indicators is sufficient for power analysis. Santoni and Harahap (2018) posit that robust statistical analysis, such as SEM, should use a sample size of at least five (5) times the number of constructs to ensure the maximum likelihood of estimation. Kline (2011) strongly advised that the minimum acceptable sample size for the SEM be at least five or ten cases per parameter, while Breckler and Berman (1991) posited that study results can be stable only when the sample size is greater than 200. The sample size for the study was drawn based on Tabachnick and Fidel (2013) formula for a sample size. Thus, $N > 50 + 8m$, where N determines the sample size, where m is the number of independent variables, and N is the number of samples; therefore, $N > 50 + 8(5)$. Thus, $N > 90$, the Sample size was therefore greater than ninety.

The sample for this study consisted of 250 employees drawn from three sectors of service-based organizations in Ghana, representing the Finance, telecommunications, and hospitality sectors. Participants were selected using a purposive sampling technique.

The gender distribution of the sample included approximately 145 (58%) male and 105 (42%) female participants. The data collection was carried out over three waves, ensuring that the final sample consisted of respondents who completed all three phases. This resulted in a final sample size of 250, out of an initial 350 respondents at Wave 1, thus having a response rate of 71%.

3.7 Source of Data

The primary source of data was obtained for the study. According to Saunders et al. (2012), primary data constitutes new data collected specifically for a study. An assertion made by Yin (2014) suggests that primary data enables first-hand assessment of situations and phenomena. The study collected primary data from the sampled respondents for accurate, complete, and reliable data. The primary data was directly obtained from respondents through hard and soft

copies of questionnaires. A primary data source was chosen because there is a need to get first-hand information from the respondents. The primary source of data for this study was from the Ghanaian service-based organizations in Accra.

3.8 Research Instrument

Primary data, by extension, would not exist if it were not for the study process and was obtained via surveys (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015; Saunders et al., 2019). The research depended on structured questionnaires for collecting data to answer the objectives set for the study. The research instruments were mainly closed-ended questions, adapted and modified to suit the Ghanaian settings, and research objectives and test the rating of various attributes. The development of the instruments was informed by the study's objectives, research design, and pertinent issues identified in the literature review.

Questionnaires are research instruments to source primary data associated with positivistic and phenomenological methodologies (Alexander, 2010). A structured questionnaire is used to source the primary data regarding work-family conflict and outcomes: a test of moderating processes on the individual and organizational level. The researcher administered a survey questionnaire to each member of the sample population. The questionnaire will have close-ended questions. The close-ended questions will provide more structured responses to facilitate tangible recommendations. The closed-ended questions are used to test the rating of various attributes and, reduce the number of related responses to obtain more varied responses. The closed-ended questions provided data that is easy to compute and analyse. In contrast, the open-ended questions permitted a greater depth of response thus adding quality to the data collected. Closed-ended questionnaires also provide possible answers out of which the respondent is required to select answers which reflect their views. The use of close-ended questions is meant

to restrict and control the responses of respondents. The questionnaire is also believed to guarantee the confidentiality and anonymity of respondents since it was generally self-reporting.

The questionnaires were developed into three waves due to the time-lagged design being used for this research, with each wave having various sections based on the number of research objectives. Wave one entailed the independent variables of the study, thus work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. Wave two entailed moderating variables such as proactivity, power distance, and collectivism. The third wave comprised the dependent variables such as work engagement, exhaustion, and work role performance. The form of measurement for the questionnaires was the Likert scale. Each wave took approximately fifteen minutes to fill.

3.8.1 Work-Family Conflict

A two-dimensional measurement approach was adopted in this study, namely, work-family conflict and family-work conflict. These two perspectives were measured with the scale developed and validated by Netemeyer et al. (1996). A 10-item scale of work-family conflict with a 7-point Likert-type response. Responses are based on a Likert scale ranging from '1 – Strongly Disagree' to '7 – Strongly Agree'. Sample items include "The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life" and "I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home". These items were scored by assigning numerical values (1–7) to each item based on responses, with each subscale (W→F or F→W) summing or averaging the scores across the 5 items, and no item was reverse-scored. Higher scores indicate a greater degree of conflict. According to studies by Bilodeau et al. (2023) and Efeoglu and Ozcan (2013), five items were used for work-family interference, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.92,

and five other items measured family-work interference with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88.

3.8.2 Work-Family Enrichment

Work-Family Enrichment is a two-dimensional scale of Work-Family Enrichment and Family-Work Enrichment adapted from Carlson et al., (2006)'s 18-item work-family enrichment scale with a 5-point Likert-type response. The scale has 9 items for each dimension. The items on the scale were scored by The items were scored by assigning numerical values (1–5) to each item based on responses, with each subscale ($W \rightarrow FE$ or $F \rightarrow WE$) summing or averaging the scores across the 9 items, and no item was reverse scored. Higher scores indicate a greater degree of enrichment. Cronbach's alpha for a study conducted by Mishra et al., (2019), 9-item Work-Family Enrichment (WFE) and Family-Work Enrichment (FWE) scales are 0.96 and 0.95, respectively. This indicates a high level of internal consistency, suggesting that the scale reliably measures work-family and family-work enrichment with the given items on a 5-point Likert-type response scale. Sample items on the scale include “My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member,” and “My involvement in my family helps me to be more cheerful and this helps me be a better worker”.

3.8.3 Collectivism

Collectivism - Triandis, and Gelfland, (1998)'s 8-item collectivism scale with a 9-point Likert-type response. Scoring was done by assigning numerical values (1–9) to responses. For collectivism, sum or average the scores for the 8 collectivism items: Horizontal Collectivism (HC): Measures seeing oneself as part of a group, emphasizing equality. Vertical Collectivism (VC): Measures strong group identification with acceptance of hierarchy and

authority. A total collectivism score is the mean of the 8 items. There was no reverse scoring. According to a study by Sivadas (2008), eight items were used for collectivism, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.82. This indicates an adequate level of internal consistency for the scale. Sample items on the scale include "I feel good when I cooperate with others in my group" and "The well-being of my group members is important to me".

3.8.4 Power Distance

Power Distance – Sharma (2010) – 5-item power distance scale with a 5-point Likert-type response. The Cronbach's alpha for the 5-item power distance scale developed by Sharma (2010) with a 5-point Likert-type response format is typically reported in the literature as being above 0.7, indicating good internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of reliability, or how well the items in a scale measure the same underlying concept. Values above 0.7 are generally considered acceptable, while values above 0.8 are preferable for more rigorous studies. The scoring was done by assigning numerical values to each response (1–5). The sum or average of the item scores is used to compute the total or mean power distance score. No reverse scoring is required; all items are positively worded. In a study by Orekoya (2024), five items were used for power distance, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.83. Sample items on the scale include "I tend to follow orders without asking any questions" and "I find it hard to disagree with authority figures".

3.8.5 Work Engagement

Work Engagement - 9-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) by Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) on a 6-point Likert scale. This scale demonstrates strong internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha for the UWES-9 typically ranges from 0.85 to 0.92, indicating high reliability across various studies and samples. Scoring of the Work Engagement was

by assigning numerical values from 0 – 6 points, and the average of the average of the scores of the 9 items was calculated. This average represents the individual's general level of engagement at work, with higher scores indicating stronger engagement. A study conducted by Domínguez-Salas et al. (2022), nine items to measure the Work Engagement Scale (UWES), with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.94. Sample items on the scale include “At work, I feel overflowing with energy” and “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous”.

3.8.6 Work Role Performance

Work Role Performance – Griffin, Neal & Parker (2007) – a 9-item Work Role Performance Scale with a 5-point Likert-type response. The Cronbach's alpha for the 9-item Work Role Performance Scale developed by Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007), which utilizes a 5-point Likert-type response, has been documented with varying levels of reliability for its subscales. Specifically, the proficiency subscale has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.72, the adaptivity subscale has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87, and the proactivity subscale has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.82. These values indicate an acceptable to a high level of internal consistency across the different dimensions of the scale. The scoring of the Work Role Performance was by assigning the numerical value of 1-5 to the response, and the average score was computed for each subscale. A higher average indicates stronger performance in that domain. A study conducted by Zhang, Sun & Zhao (2020), nine items to measure the Work Role Performance, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.89. Sample items on the scale include for proficiency, “I effectively perform the core task of my job”, adaptability, “I adapt well to changes in my core task”, and proactivity, “I initiate new and better ways of doing core task”.

3.8.7 Proactive Personality

Proactive personality –10-item scale developed by Crant and Kramir (1999). All the items

were anchored on a 5-point Likert response. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale, indicating its internal consistency reliability, is reported to be 0.89, suggesting a high level of reliability for the scale items. The scoring of the Proactive Personality was by assigning the numerical value of 1-5 to the response, and the average score was computed. There was no reverse scoring. For the score range, 10 is the least proactive, to 50 is the most proactive. Sample items from the scale include “I am always looking for better ways to do things” and “I excel at identifying opportunities”.

Demographic variables- The following demographic variables were included in the surveys: age, gender, marital status, religion, educational status, etc.

3.9 Data Collection Procedure

3.9.1 Pilot Study

Three service-based organizations were purposively sampled for the pilot study in this research. Thirty (30) participants from the service-based organizations were conveniently sampled to pre-test the survey questionnaire, data collection design, and selection processes to ensure it helps achieve the aim of the study (Creswell, 2013). The participants were 19 males, 11 females, with an average age of 41 years. Both hardcopy and online copies of the questionnaires were administered depending on the participant's preference. The questionnaires were administered in three waves, thus wave one for independent variables (WFC, WFE), wave two for moderators (proactive personality, collectivism, power distance), and wave three for dependent variables (work engagement, work role performance). Each wave was administered at two-week intervals. Using a two-week interval helps create a temporal break between data collection, which reduces the rate of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012). The time lagged design has been used by researchers (See Ampofo et al., 2022;

French et al., 2022; Rasheed et al., 2024). Item analysis was conducted for the various items on each questionnaire, and items with factor loadings less than 0.60 were revised. This was done by removing the item with the lowest factor loading one at a time, and at each step, an item analysis was conducted. Research shows that a loading of more than 0.60 is a desired minimum criterion. The factor loading helps one to understand the contribution of an item to the variable; its value must be more than 0.60. After the item with the lowest factor loading was removed, the item analysis was conducted again to ascertain its effect. This rule guarantees that every object significantly contributes to its fundamental construction. Using 0.60 guarantees that preserved scale items have great theoretical importance, contribute considerably to construct representation, and support good reliability/validity metrics (Jordan & Spiess, 2019; Hair et al., 2010).

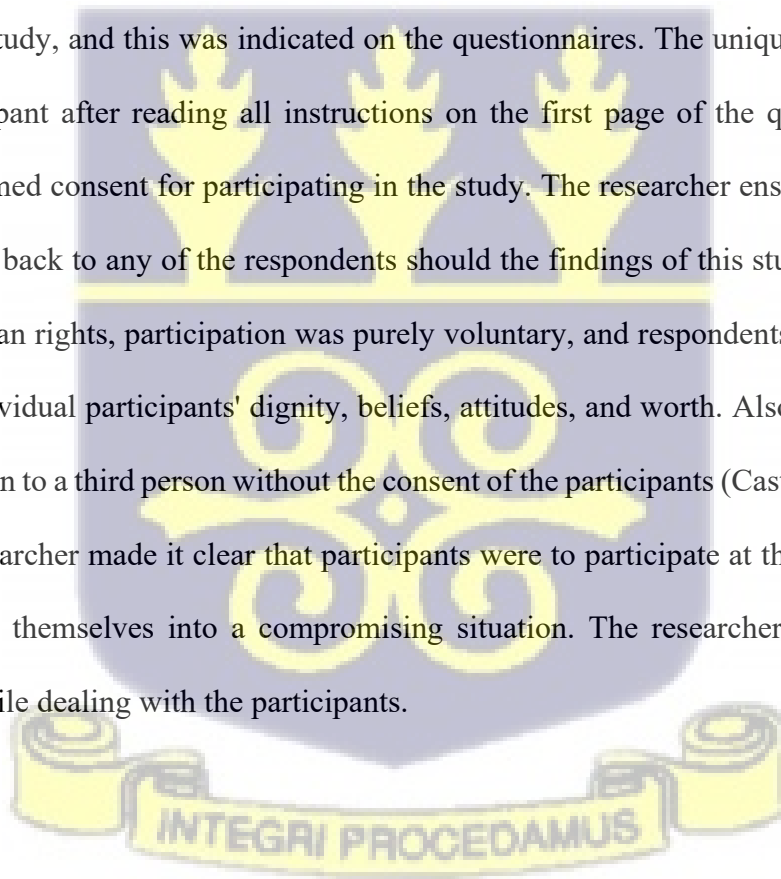
3.9.2 Main Data Collection

Following ethical clearance from the Ethics Committee for Humanities (ECH) at the University of Ghana, Legon, in May 2023, and a certificate numbered ECH 175 22 -23 was issued. Organizational clearance was sought from the human resource departments of the various service-based organizations using an introductory letter from the psychology department of the University of Ghana and the ECH certificate. The purposively selected organizations granted organizational clearance and permission for data collection at varying times. Data collection spanned the period beginning July 2023 to the ending of December 2023. One research assistant received a day's orientation on the research topic, inclusion criteria, and directions on how to administer the tools for data collection. A pilot study to validate the tools was conducted.

The questionnaires being used were in three waves, both soft and hard copies. The option of whether a participant used the soft or hard copies of the questionnaires depended on their preference. Those who opted for the hard copies had the printed copies given to them in person, while those who opted for the soft copy were sent a link to the questionnaire designed using Google Forms. Depending on the schedules agreed with the HR departments of the organizations, the three waves of data were collected at two-week intervals for each wave. Each wave was collected within a day of its distribution (whether soft or hard copies). For wave 1, which examined the independent variables, three hundred and fifty (350) questionnaires were administered to participants. Three hundred and thirty-six (336) were retrieved, thus giving a ninety-six percent (96%) response rate. In wave 2, questionnaires examining the moderating variables were administered. Three hundred and fifty (350) questionnaires were administered to participants, of which three hundred and ten (310) questionnaires were retrieved. Wave 2, therefore, had a response rate of 88.6%. The attrition rate between waves one and two was 7.4%. Three hundred and fifty (350) questionnaires were administered to participants in wave 3. Questionnaires in wave 3 examined the dependent variables in this study. Two hundred and sixty-two (262) questionnaires were retrieved, giving a response rate of 74.9%. These 3 waves were matched for each participant using the unique code generated by the participants by indicating the first three letters of their name and the last three digits of their telephone numbers. For example, a participant with the name Funny Grace and a telephone number of 0244668923 would generate a unique code of “Fun923”. This code is used on all three waves to enable the matching of the three waves. Two hundred and fifty (250) matched samples across the three waves were obtained for the study. Questionnaires that were not matched across the three waves were not included in the study.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

The ethical aspects of the research were handled and cleared by the Ethics Committee for Humanities (ECH) at the University of Ghana, Legon. Ethical considerations in research are critical. Ethics are the standards for conduct that distinguish between right and wrong. They help to determine the difference between acceptable and unacceptable behaviors. The necessary research authorities in the various organizations that were included in the study were consulted, and permission was granted before data collection commenced. Participants who were unwilling to participate in the survey were free to do so. Respondents' names were not indicated anywhere in the data collection tools for confidentiality; hence, a unique code was generated by the participants themselves, and the information gathered was only used for this academic study, and this was indicated on the questionnaires. The unique code generated by each participant after reading all instructions on the first page of the questionnaire also served as informed consent for participating in the study. The researcher ensured that nothing could be traced back to any of the respondents should the findings of this study be published. Regarding human rights, participation was purely voluntary, and respondents were not forced but respect individual participants' dignity, beliefs, attitudes, and worth. Also, no information was made known to a third person without the consent of the participants (Castleberry & Nolen, 2018). The researcher made it clear that participants were to participate at their own free will without putting themselves into a compromising situation. The researcher was honest and accountable while dealing with the participants.



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

The study examined the differential impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on employee-related outcomes, including work engagement and various aspects of work role performance (i.e., task proficiency, task adaptivity, and task proactivity). Additionally, it investigated the extent to which power distance, collectivism, proactive personality, and work engagement influence the relationship among employees in diverse organisations within the Ghanaian service-based environment. The study specifically investigated the role of power distance, collectivist culture, and proactive personality as boundary conditions in the relationship between work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and employee-related outcomes. This chapter presents the results of the hypothesized relationships in the study. It begins with preliminary analyses, including confirmatory factor analysis, bivariate correlation, and descriptive statistics (i.e., means and standard deviation), validity assessment, and reliability analysis.

4.1 Preliminary Analyses

The preliminary analyses comprised confirmatory factor analysis, validity analysis, and bivariate correlation and descriptive statistics. The analyses enabled the researcher to substantiate the psychometric suitability of the data for quantitative analysis.

4.1.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The researcher conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on all the standardized scales employed to measure the primary variables, namely work-family conflict, work-family

enrichment, proactive personality, work engagement, power distance, collectivism and work role performance (which was measured as task proficiency, adaptivity and proactivity). The Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 29 for IBM was employed to facilitate the factor analytic process. The CFA is a statistical approach that enables researchers to evaluate the extent to which factors or items provide a meaningful measurement of a latent construct. Additionally, the CFA yields a probability value for each factor, which serves as the foundation for determining whether the factor is an effective indicator of the latent construct. The CFA test was employed to evaluate the measurement model encompassing all latent constructs. Accordingly, a 11-factor measurement model was developed and tested, comprising work-family conflict (2 dimensions), work-family enrichment (2 dimensions), proactive personality, work engagement, power distance, collectivist culture, task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity. Each latent construct was composed of items that were loaded onto it. Validity statistics were generated using the standardized factor loadings and the correlation between the latent constructs. In particular, the standardized factor loadings and correlations were transferred to the Gaskins validity master Excel sheet to generate the average variance extracted (AVE) and MSV values for discriminant and convergent validity estimates. The items retained for each constructed construct exhibited a significant loading (factor loadings, $p < .001$). The items that were retained following the assessment of validity can be found in Table 4.1.

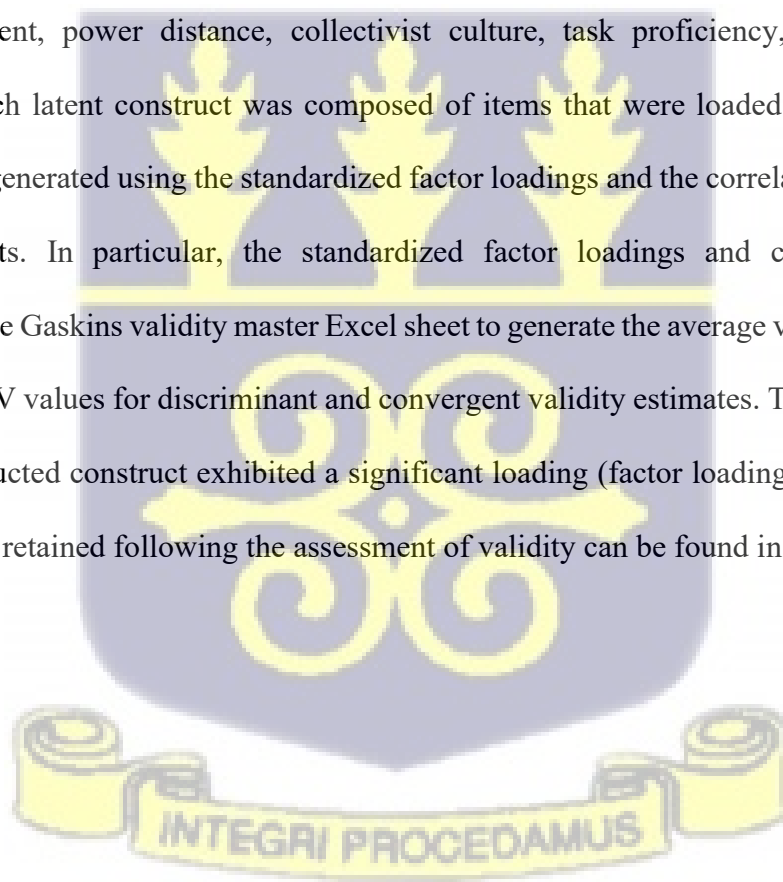
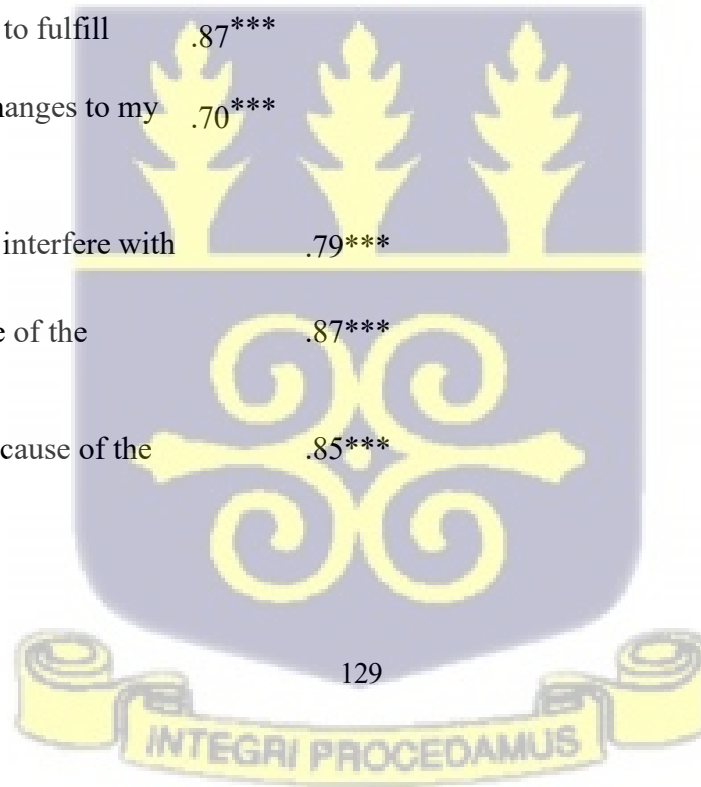


Table 4.1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of Factor Loadings of Study Variables

#	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Work-family conflict													
1	The demands of my work interfere with family life	.79***											
2	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities	.92***											
3	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	.88***											
4	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties	.87***											
5	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	.70***											
Family-Work Conflict													
1	The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work- related activities		.79***										
2	I have to put off doing things at work because of the demands on my time at home.		.87***										
3	Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner		.85***										



- | | | |
|---|---|--------|
| 4 | My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working Overtime | .79*** |
| 5 | Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties. | .81*** |

Work-Family Enrichment

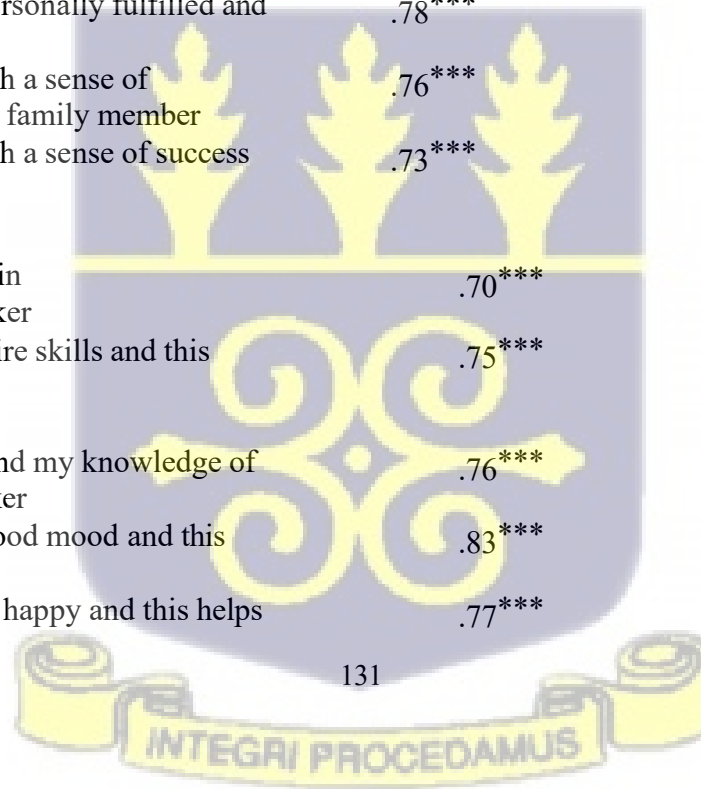
- | | | |
|---|---|--------|
| 1 | My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member | .68*** |
|---|---|--------|



- | | | |
|---|--|--------|
| 2 | My involvement in my work helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member | .73*** |
| 3 | My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member | .72*** |
| 4 | My involvement in my work puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member | .72*** |
| 5 | My involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member | .73*** |
| 6 | My involvement in my work makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member | .73*** |
| 7 | My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member | .78*** |
| 8 | My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member | .76*** |
| 9 | My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member | .73*** |

Family-Work Enrichment

- | | | |
|---|---|--------|
| 1 | My involvement in my family helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker | .70*** |
| 2 | My involvement in my family helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker | .75*** |
| 3 | My involvement in my family helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker | .76*** |
| 4 | My involvement in my family puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker | .83*** |
| 5 | My involvement in my family makes me feel happy and this helps | .77*** |



me be a better worker

- 6 My involvement in my family makes me cheerful and this helps .81***
me
be a better worker



- | | | |
|---|--|--------|
| 7 | My involvement in my family requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker | .71*** |
| 8 | My involvement in my family encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker | .77*** |
| 9 | My involvement in my family causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker | .77*** |

Proactive Personality

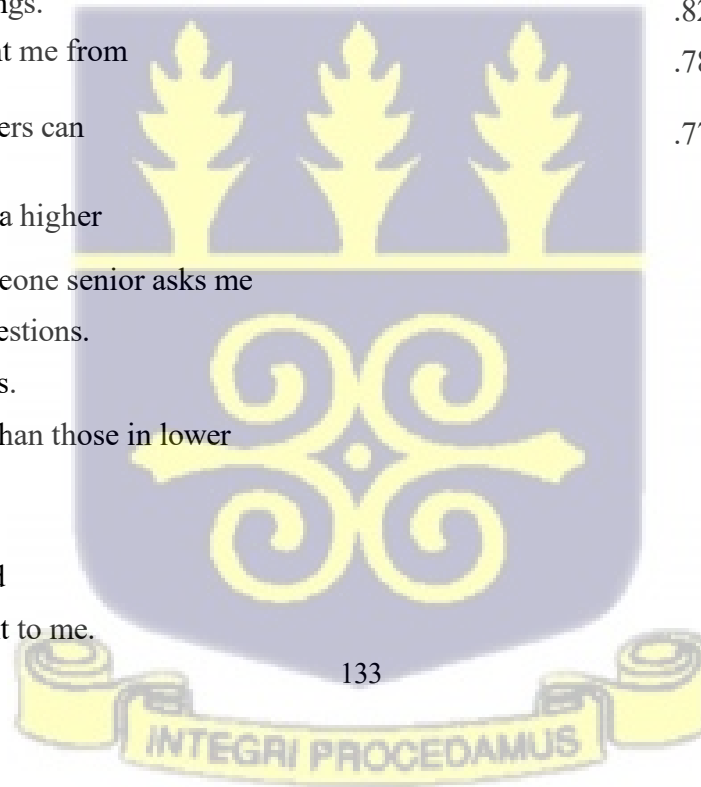
- | | | |
|---|---|--------|
| 1 | No matter what the odds are, if I believe in something I will make it happen. | .70*** |
| 2 | I excel at identifying opportunities | .76*** |
| 3 | I am always looking for better ways to do things. | .82*** |
| 4 | If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen | .78*** |
| 5 | I can spot a good opportunity long before others can | .77*** |

Power Distance

- | | | |
|---|--|--------|
| 1 | I easily conform to the wishes of someone in a higher position than mine | .73*** |
| 2 | It is difficult for me to refuse a request if someone senior asks me | .84*** |
| 3 | I tend to follow orders without asking any questions. | .85*** |
| 4 | I find it hard to disagree with authority figures. | .82*** |
| 5 | People in higher positions have more power than those in lower Positions | .52*** |

Collectivism

- | | | |
|---|---|--------|
| 1 | If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud | .61*** |
| 2 | The well-being of my co-workers is important to me. | .63*** |



3 I feel good when I cooperate with others.

.82***



- | | | |
|---|--|--------|
| 4 | Parents and children must stay together as much as possible. | .76*** |
| 5 | It is my duty to take care of my family, even when one has to sacrifice what I want. | .91*** |
| 6 | Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required | .90*** |
| 7 | It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups. | .85*** |

Work Engagement

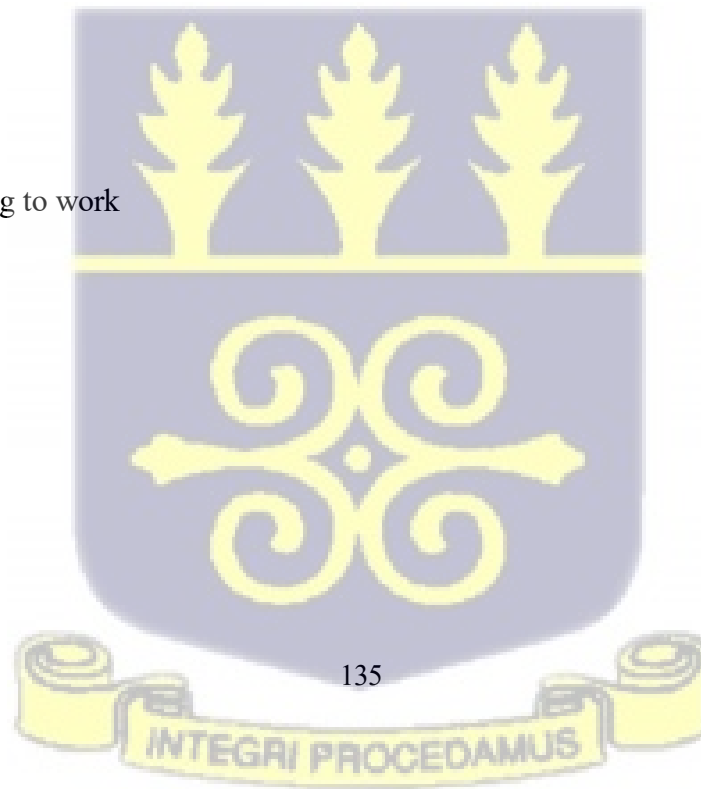
- | | | |
|---|---|--------|
| 1 | At my work, I feel overflowing with energy | .52*** |
| 2 | At my job, I feel strong and vigorous | .74*** |
| 3 | I am enthusiastic about my job | .82*** |
| 4 | My job inspires me | .77*** |
| 5 | When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work | .75*** |
| 6 | I feel happy when I am working intensely | .73*** |
| 7 | I am proud of the work that I do | .81*** |
| 8 | I am immersed in my work | .74*** |

Task Proficiency

- | | | |
|---|---|--------|
| 1 | I carried out the core parts of my job well | .82*** |
| 2 | I ensured my tasks were completed properly | .74*** |

Task Adaptivity

- | | | |
|---|---|--------|
| 3 | I adapted well to changes in core tasks | .86*** |
|---|---|--------|



4 I coped with changes to the way I have to do my core tasks

.80***

Task Proactivity



5	I initiated better ways of doing my core tasks	.92***
6	I made changes to the way my core tasks are done	.74***

*** $p < .001$



4.1.2 Bivariate Correlation

The Pearson Product-Moment correlation test was used to assess the bivariate relationship between the main variables and the link between the demographic factors and the main variables. The results in Table 4.2 indicate that work-family conflict was positively and significantly associated with family-work conflict, $r = .60, p < .001$. This implies that employees who experience higher levels of work-family conflict tend to experience higher levels of family-work conflict. Collectivist culture was significantly and negatively associated with work-family conflict, $r = -.20, p = .001$. Similarly, work-family conflict was negatively associated with task proactivity, $r = -.19, p = .003$. This implies that employees who experience higher levels of work-family conflict tend to demonstrate lower levels of proactive work behavior. However, work-family conflict related insignificantly with work-family enrichment, $r = .04, p = .572$; family-work enrichment, $r = .11, p = .081$; proactive personality, $r = -.03, p = .677$; power distance, $r = .05, p = .412$; work engagement, $r = -.08, p = .219$; task proficiency, $r = -.07, p = .301$; and task adaptivity, $r = -.04, p = .554$.

Family-work conflict was negatively and significantly associated with collectivism, $r = -.22, p < .001$, work engagement, $r = -.20, p = .001$, task proficiency, $r = -.16, p < .013$, and task proactivity, $r = -.14, p = .030$ but positively related to power distance, $r = .19, p = .001$. However, family-work conflict related insignificantly with work-family enrichment, power distance, $r = -.03, p = .653$, family-work enrichment, power distance, $r = -.03, p = .603$, proactive personality, power distance, $r = -.07, p = .298$, and task adaptivity, power distance, $r = -.03, p = .664$.

Work-family enrichment related significantly and positively with family-work enrichment, $r = .62, p < .001$; proactive personality, $r = .39, p < .001$; power distance, $r = .39, p < .001$; collectivism, $r = .36, p < .001$; and work engagement, $r = .18, p = .005$. This indicates that employees who experience higher levels of work-family conflict tend to demonstrate higher levels of proactive tendencies, respect for authority, commitment to working with others, and work engagement. However, work-family enrichment related insignificantly with task proficiency, $r = -.01, p = .911$, adaptivity, $r = -.01, p = .934$, and task proactivity, $r = .09, p = .153$.

Family-work enrichment was positively and significantly associated with proactive personality, $r = .29, p < .001$, power distance, $r = .20, p = .002$, and collectivism, $r = .23, p < .001$. However, family-work enrichment correlated insignificantly with work engagement, $r = .10, p = .105$, task proficiency, $r = -.08, p = .204$, task adaptivity, $r = -.08, p = .224$, and task proactivity, $r = -.03, p = .682$.

Proactive personality correlated significantly with power distance, $r = .45, p < .001$, collectivist culture, $r = .67, p < .001$, work engagement, $r = .22, p < .001$, task proficiency, $r = .19, p = .003$, task adaptivity, $r = .28, p < .001$, and proactive behavior, $r = .31, p < .001$. This indicates that employees with proactive tendencies tend to flourish in high power distance societies, collectivist societies; and demonstrate higher levels of work engagement, work proficiency, adaptivity, and proactive behavior. Also, it was observed that power distance correlated significantly with collectivist culture, $r = .30, p < .001$ but insignificantly with work engagement, $r = .01, p = .840$, proficiency, $r = .05, p = .422$, adaptivity, $r = .08, p = .193$, and proactive behavior, $r = .02, p = .725$.

Collectivist culture was significantly associated with work engagement, $r = .32, p < .001$, task proficiency, $r = .24, p < .001$, task adaptivity, $r = .27, p < .001$, and task proactivity, $r = .35, p < .001$. Moreover, work engagement correlated significantly and positively with task proficiency, $r = .50, p < .001$, task adaptivity, $r = .38, p < .001$, and task proactivity, $r = .35, p < .001$. In addition, it was found that task proficiency correlated positively with task adaptivity, $r = .69, p < .001$ and proactivity, $r = .64, p < .001$; and task adaptivity correlated significantly and positively with proactivity, $r = .64, p < .001$. The bivariate correlations between the main variables are not susceptible to multicollinearity, the correlation coefficient for each bivariate correlation is below the threshold of ≥ 0.90 (Tabacknick & Fidell, 2003). Therefore, multicollinearity is not an issue in this study.



Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlation between Study Variables (N = 250)

#	Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	Gender	-																		
2	Age	-0.11	-																	
3	Marital status	-0.01	-.21**	-																
4	Family size	0.06	.33**	-.13*																
5	Spouse working status	-0.10	-.32**	.52**	-.19**															
6	Job position	-0.07	-.46**	0.03	-.25**	.28**	-													
7	Education	0.04	.33**	-0.10	0.09	-.17**	-.19**	-												
8	Work Tenure	-0.06	.63**	-.17*	.22**	-.17*	-.25**	.16*	-											
9	Work-Family Conflict	.23**	-0.11	0.02	0.02	0.02	-0.04	-0.08	0.05											
10	Family Work-Family Conflict	0.05	-.17**	0.00	-0.05	0.04	0.02	-.13*	-0.08	.60**										
11	Work-Family Enrichment	0.10	-0.03	-0.07	-.19**	-.16**	.16*	0.05	-0.03	0.04	-0.03									
12	Family Work-Family Enrichment	0.11	-0.07	-0.08	-.17**	-0.01	.20**	-0.03	-0.06	0.11	-0.03	.62**								
13	Proactive personality	0.01	0.04	0.06	-.14*	-0.08	0.08	0.08	-0.06	-0.03	-0.07	.39**	.29**							
14	Power Distance	-0.03	-.31**	.15*	-.21**	0.04	.21**	-0.08	-.32**	0.05	.19**	.39**	.20**	.45**						
15	Collectivist culture	0.01	.13*	0.07	-.17**	-0.11	-0.00	0.12	0.03	-.20**	-.22**	.36**	.23**	.67**	.30**					
16	Work engagement	0.04	.21**	0.03	0.00	-.17**	0.01	0.12	.19**	-0.08	-.20**	.18**	0.10	.22**	0.01	.32**				
17	Task proficiency	-0.03	0.11	-0.03	0.00	-0.08	-0.04	0.12	0.11	-0.07	-.16*	-0.01	-0.08	.19**	0.05	.24**	.50**			
18	Task adaptivity	-0.07	0.12	0.07	-0.07	-0.04	-0.02	0.09	0.10	-0.04	-0.03	-0.01	-0.08	.28**	0.08	.27**	.38**	.69**		
19	Task proactivity	-0.00	0.08	.13*	-0.06	-0.05	-0.09	0.03	0.02	-.19**	-.14*	0.09	-0.03	.31**	0.02	.35**	.35**	.53**	.64**	

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

4.1.3. Assessment of Validity and Reliability of Constructs

Table 4.3 shows the results of validity assessment (i.e., convergent and discriminant), Cronbach's Alpha (α), and Composite Reliability (CR) for all the main constructs in the study. Aside from task proficiency and adaptivity, all the main constructs met the quality criteria of reliability, convergent, and discriminant validity. The Cronbach's Alpha value for all the main constructs ranged from 0.76 to 0.93; and the Composite Reliability values too ranged from 0.76 to 0.93, which are all above the required threshold of 0.7 (Henseler et al., 2009). Similarly, there were no convergent validity issues with all the constructs, as the average variance extracted (AVE) values were above the required threshold of 0.5 (Henseler et al., 2009). Discriminant validity was assessed using the Fornell-Larcker criteria, which suggests that the constructs are distinct when the square root of the AVE values (i.e., values in bold) for all the main constructs are considerably greater than the corresponding inter-construct correlations (i.e., all values below the bold values) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As can be seen in Table 4.3, only task proficiency and adaptivity had discriminant validity issues.

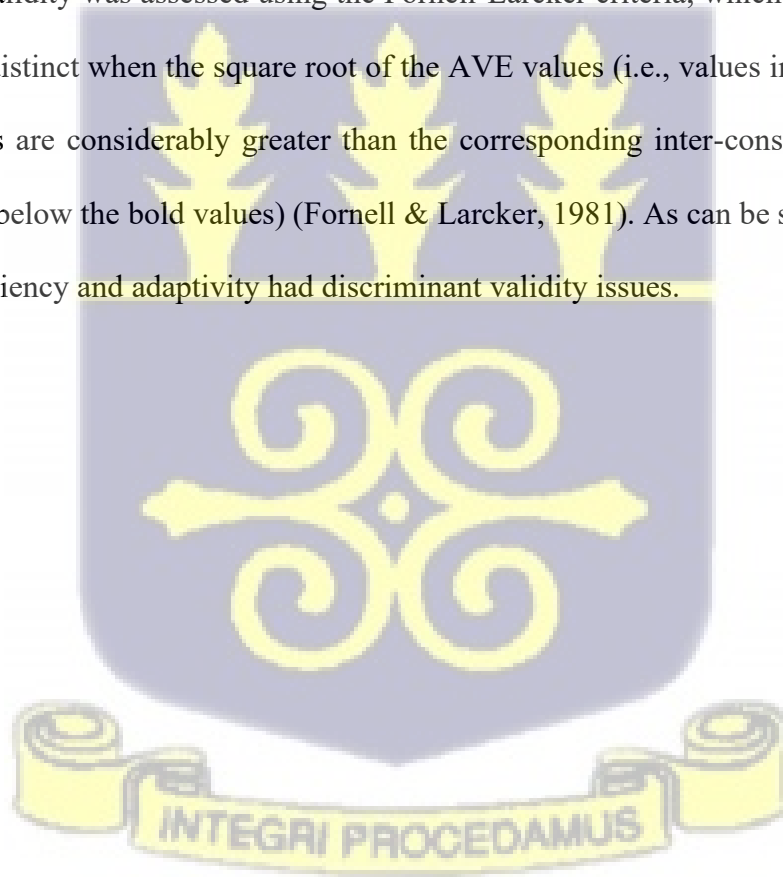


Table 4.3: Validity and Reliability of Constructs

#	Constructs	CR	α	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Task Proactivity	0.82	.81	0.69	0.61	0.87	0.83										
2	Work Engagement	0.90	.90	0.54	0.34	0.91	0.42	0.74									
3	Proactive personality	0.88	.88	0.59	0.57	0.88	0.34	0.25	0.77								
4	FWC	0.92	.92	0.69	0.42	0.92	-0.13	-0.22	-0.08	0.83							
5	WFC	0.92	.92	0.70	0.42	0.94	-0.20	-0.12	-0.02	0.65	0.84						
6	WFE	0.91	.91	0.54	0.44	0.91	0.07	0.19	0.45	-0.03	0.03	0.73					
7	FEW	0.93	.93	0.58	0.44	0.93	-0.04	0.12	0.32	-0.04	0.11	0.66	0.76				
8	Collect Culture	0.92	.92	0.63	0.57	0.94	0.38	0.31	0.75	-0.24	-0.23	0.39	0.25	0.79			
9	Power distance	0.87	.87	0.58	0.20	0.89	-0.03	-0.05	0.45	0.25	0.11	0.41	0.19	0.28	0.76		
10	Task Adaptivity	0.81	.81	0.69	0.78	0.82	0.78	0.45	0.33	-0.03	-0.05	0.01	-0.09	0.30	0.08	0.83	
11	Task Proficiency	0.76	.76	0.61	0.78	0.77	0.67	0.59	0.23	-0.18	-0.09	0.00	-0.09	0.26	0.02	0.88	0.782

Note: FWC = Family-Work Conflict; WFC = Work-Family Conflict; WFE = Work-Family Enrichment; FEW = Family-Work Enrichment

4.2 Tests of Hypotheses

In this study, a conceptual model was tested, separately. Specifically, a moderation model was tested. The moderation model consisted of a proactive personality as moderator of the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement, power distance and collectivism as moderators of the relationship between work-family enrichment, family work enrichment, and different aspects of work role performance (i.e., task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity). The Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) and Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) version 29 for IBM were employed to facilitate the analysis.

4.2.1 Moderation Analysis

The path analysis test, a form of structural equation modelling that utilizes observed variables, was employed to test the hypothesized moderation model. A hierarchical regression approach was adopted in performing the moderation analyses. In this approach, different models were tested, namely, null, direct, and interactive effects. The control variable (i.e., gender) was entered in the first model (i.e., null model); the independent and moderator variables (i.e., work-family enrichment, family work enrichment, power distance, and collectivist culture) were entered into the second model (i.e., direct effect model), and the interactive effect (i.e., the product of the IVs and Moderators) were entered into the final model. This process was similarly undertaken for the independent, work-family conflict, and family-work conflict and the moderator variable, proactive personality.

The mean-centering approach was employed to create the interactive terms. The interactive term is used to determine the significance of the moderation hypothesis. Thus, proactive personality moderates the relationship between WFC/FWC and WE, collectivism and power distance moderating the relationship between WFE/FEW and WRP. A significant interactive

term is subjected to slope analysis to determine the level of the moderator (i.e., high vs. low) at which the independent variable makes an impact on the dependent variable. The following hypotheses were tested in the study:

H1a: Work-family conflict will relate negatively and significantly to work engagement.

H1b: Family-work conflict will relate negatively and significantly to work engagement.

H2a: Proactive personality will relate positively and significantly to work engagement.

H2b: Proactive personality will significantly moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement such that the relationship will be significant and negative for less proactive employees.

H2c: Proactive personality will significantly moderate the relationship between family-work conflict and work engagement such that the relationship will be significant and negative for less proactive employees.

H3a: Power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3b: Power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3c: Power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3d: Power distance moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3e: Power distance moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3f: Power distance moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3g: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3h: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3i: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3j: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3k: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.

H3l: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.



Table 4.4: Path Analysis Results of the Moderating Effect of Proactive Personality on the Relationship between Work-Family Conflict/Family-Work Conflict and Engagement

	Work Engagement					
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	SE	β	SE	B	SE
Gender	.04	.13	.04	.13	.05	.13
Work-family conflict	-	-	.05	.05	.04	.05
Family-work conflict	-	-	-.22**	.05	-.23**	.05
Proactive personality	-	-	.21***	.08	.31***	.10
Work-family conflict * Proactive personality	-	-	-	-	-.08	.08
Family-work conflict * Proactive personality	-	-	-	-	-.10	.07

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$

The results in Table 4.4. yielded a fitting model, $\chi^2 = 7.12$, $df = 5$, $p = .212$, CFI = .99, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .04. Similarly, the results as shown in Table 4.5 produced a fitting model, $\chi^2 = 16.77$, $df = 8$, $p = .033$, CFI = .99, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .07. Specifically, the results in Table 4.4 indicate that work-family conflict did not significantly predict work engagement, $\beta = .05$, $SE = .05$, $p = .518$. Thus, hypothesis H1a was not supported in this study. This implies that higher level of work-family conflict was not associated with lower levels of work engagement in the study. However, higher level of family-work conflict was associated with lower level of work engagement, $\beta = -.22$, $SE = .05$, $p = .004$. Thus, hypothesis 1b, which stated that family-work conflict will relate significantly and negatively to work engagement was supported. Also,

it was found that proactive personality was significantly and positively associated with work engagement, $\beta = .21$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$. This suggests that employees with higher level of proactive tendency tend to demonstrate higher levels of work engagement. Consequently, H2a was supported in the study. Finally, the results showed that proactive personality did not significantly moderate the relationship between work-family conflict, family-work conflict, and work engagement. Specifically, proactive personality did not significantly moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement, $\beta = -.08$, $SE = .08$, $p = .433$. Thus, H2b was not supported. Similarly, proactive personality did not significantly moderate the relationship between family-work conflict and work engagement, $\beta = -.10$, $SE = .07$, $p = .366$. Thus, H2c was not supported.



Table 4.5: Path Analysis Test Results of the Moderation Effect of Power Distance and Collectivist Culture on the Relationship between Work-Family Enrichment/Family-Work Enrichment and Work Role Performance

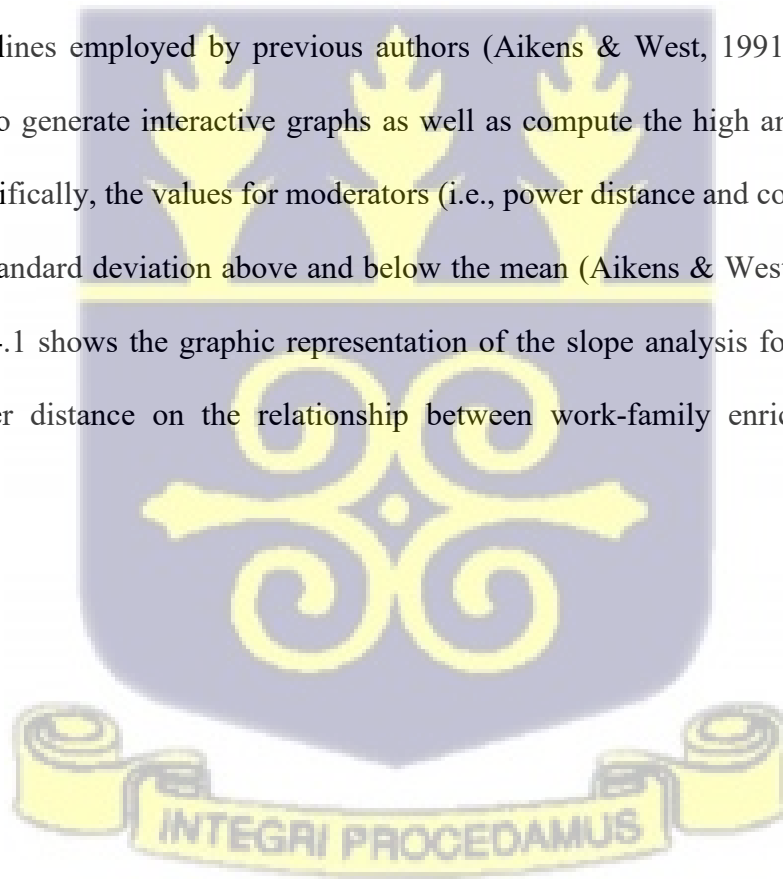
	Task Proficiency						Task Adaptivity						Task Proactivity					
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>B</i>	SE	β	SE	β	SE	β	SE	<i>B</i>	SE	β	SE	β	SE
Gender	-.03	.10	-.02	.09	-.02	.09	-.07	.09	-.06	.09	-.09	.09	-.00	.11	-.00	.10	-.03	.10
Work-Family Enrichment (WFE)	-	-	-.03	.10	.06	.10	-	-	-.05	.10	.04	.10	-	-	.08	.11	.20*	.11
Family-Work Enrichment (FWE)	-	-	-.13	.08	-.10	.08	-	-	-.12	.08	-.10	.08	-	-	-.15	.09	-.12	.09
Power Distance (PD)	-	-	.00	.06	-.06	.06	-	-	.03	.05	-.03	.06	-	-	-.10	.06	-.17**	.06
Collectivist Culture (CC)	-	-	.28***	.04	.33***	.04	-	-	.31***	.03	.37***	.03	-	-	.38***	.04	.45***	.04
WFE * PD	-	-	-	-	.31**	.11	-	-	-	-	.29**	.10	-	-	-	-	.34**	.12
FWE * PD	-	-	-	-	-.11	.09	-	-	-	-	-.08	.09	-	-	-	-	-.04	.10
WFE * CC	-	-	-	-	-.04	.06	-	-	-	-	.23	.05	-	-	-	-	.10	.06
FWE * CC	-	-	-	-	-.05	.05	-	-	-	-	.23*	.05	-	-	-	-	.10	.06

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

4.2.1.1 Power Distance Moderates Work-Family Enrichment and Work Role

Performance Relationship

The results in Table 4.5 revealed some significant interactive effects. It was found that power distance significantly moderated the relationship between work-family enrichment and the different aspects of work role performance in the study. Specifically, it was observed that power distance significantly moderated the relationship between work-family enrichment and task performance, $\beta = .31$, $SE = .11$, $p = .004$. This means that power distance influences the nature and strength of the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency. Slope analysis was performed to determine the level of the moderator (i.e., power distance) at which work-family enrichment influences the task proficiency levels of employees. This study followed guidelines employed by previous authors (Aikens & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014, Neneh, 2018) to generate interactive graphs as well as compute the high and low slopes for each path. Specifically, the values for moderators (i.e., power distance and collectivist culture) were set at 1 standard deviation above and below the mean (Aikens & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014). Figure 4.1 shows the graphic representation of the slope analysis for the moderation effect of power distance on the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency.



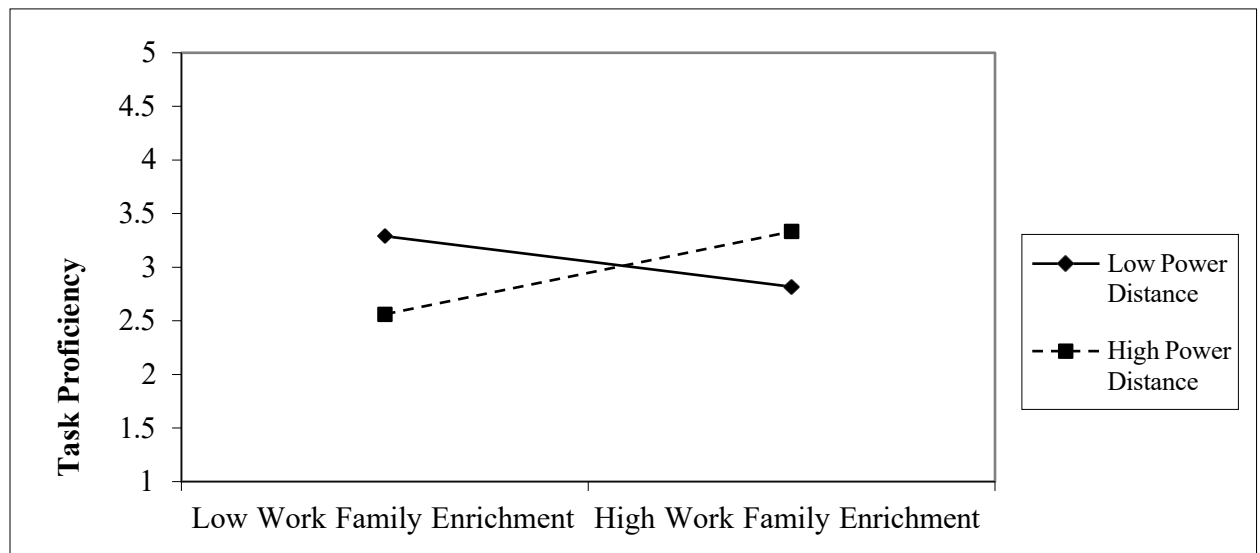


Figure 4.1: Power Distance Moderates Work Family Enrichment-Task Proficiency Relationship

The results in Figure 2 indicate that work-family enrichment related more positively to task proficiency at a higher level of power distance $\beta = .33$, $SE = .16$, $p = .016$ while at a lower level of power distance, work-family enrichment did not significantly impact task proficiency, $\beta = -.20$, $SE = .14$, $p = .092$. Therefore, the hypothesis that power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency (H3a), such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance was supported.

Also, the hypothesis that power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance was supported, $\beta = .29$, $SE = .10$, $p = .007$. This outcome reveals the complex nature of the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, highlighting the circumstances under which work-family enrichment may foster work adaptivity. Figure 4.2 provides information on the graphical representation of the results.

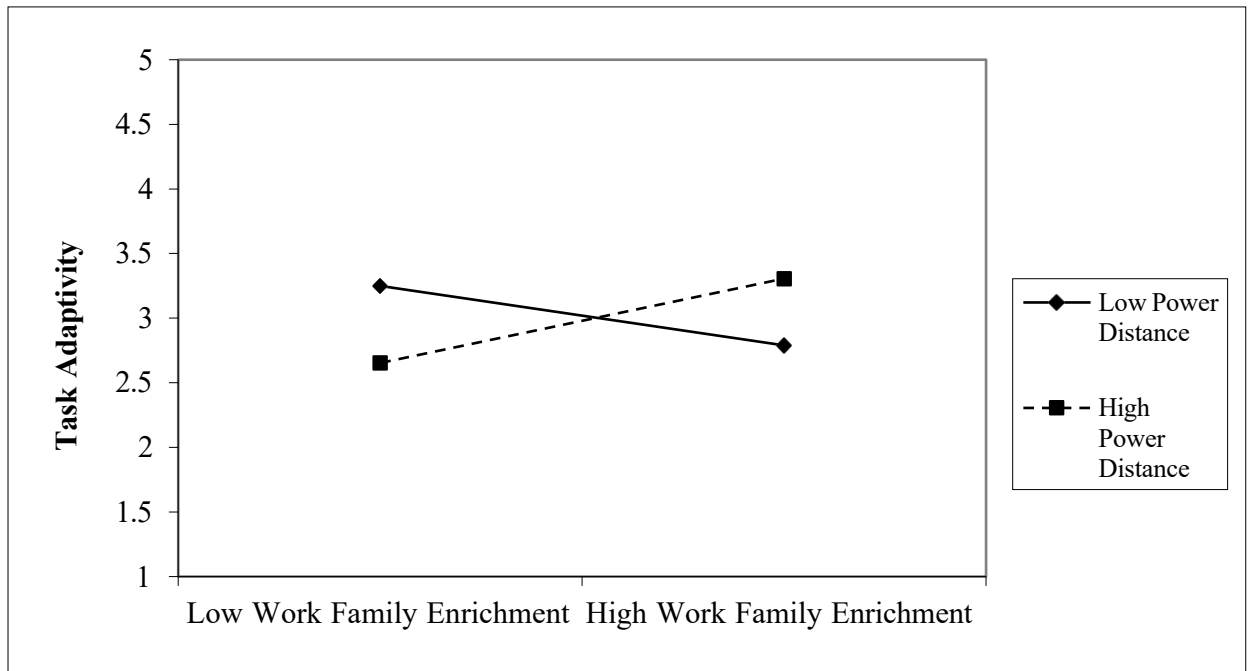


Figure 4.2: Power Distance Moderates Work Family Enrichment-Task Adaptivity Relationship

Figure 4.2 depicts that work-family enrichment related more strongly and positively to task adaptivity at a higher level of power distance, $\beta = .29$, $SE = .15$, $p = .031$. However, at a lower level of power distance, work-family enrichment had a null effect on task adaptivity, $\beta = -.20$, $SE = .13$, $p = .080$. Consequently, hypothesis H3b was supported by the results of the study.

Furthermore, the results indicate that power distance significantly moderated the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proactivity, $\beta = .34$, $SE = .12$, $p = .001$. This outcome highlights the impact of power distance in the link between work-family enrichment and task proactivity. Further analysis revealed that work family enrichment was associated with more proactive work behaviors at a higher level of power distance, $\beta = .49$, $SE = .17$, $p < .001$. However, at a lower level of power distance work-family enrichment had an insignificant effect on task proactivity, $\beta = -.08$, $SE = .15$, $p = .459$. Figure 4.3 provides a graphical explanation

of the findings. Thus, the hypothesis that power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive at a higher level of power distance.



Figure 4.3: Power Distance Moderates the Relationship Between Work-Family Enrichment and Task Proactivity

4.2.1.2 Power Distance Moderates Family-Work Enrichment and Work Role

Performance Relationship

Analysis of the moderation effect of power distance on the relationship between family-work enrichment and different aspects of performance revealed insignificant results. For example, it was found that power distance culture did not significantly moderate the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proficiency, $\beta = -.11$, $SE = .09$, $p = .284$, task adaptivity, $\beta = -.08$, $SE = .09$, $p = .090$, and task proactivity, $\beta = -.04$, $SE = .10$, $p = .654$. These null results indicate that power distance did not influence the relationship between family-work enrichment, task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity in the present study. Consequently,

hypotheses 3d, 3e, and 3f were not supported in the study.

4.2.1.3 Collectivist Culture Moderates Work-Family Enrichment and Work Role

Performance Relationship

The results in Table 4.4 show that collectivist culture did not significantly moderate the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency, $\beta = -.05$, $SE = .06$, $p = .686$. This outcome does not support the hypothesize prediction that collectivist culture will moderate the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive at a higher level of collectivist culture (H3g). Similarly, it was observed that collectivist culture did not significantly moderate the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, $\beta = .23$, $SE = .05$, $p = .132$. Therefore, the prediction that collectivist culture moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive at a higher level of collectivist culture was not supported (H3h). Additionally, it was observed that collectivist culture did not significantly moderate the relationship between work family enrichment and task proactivity, $\beta = .10$, $SE = .06$, $p = .451$. Therefore, hypotheses H3g, H3h, and H3i were not supported in this study.

4.2.1.4 Collectivist Culture Moderates Family-Work Enrichment and Work Role

Performance Relationship

The study also examined the extent to which collectivist culture moderated the relationship between family-work enrichment and employee performance. The results indicate that collectivist culture did not significantly moderate the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proficiency in this study, $\beta = -.05$, $SE = .05$, $p = .650$. Thus, hypothesis H3j was not supported, suggesting that collectivist culture did not impact the relationship

between family-work enrichment and task proficiency in this study. However, the study found that collectivist culture significantly moderated the family-work enrichment and task adaptivity, $\beta = .23$, $SE = .05$, $p = .047$. Results of the slope analysis indicate that family-work enrichment related insignificantly to task adaptivity at a higher level of collectivist culture, $\beta = .003$, $SE = .09$, $p = .976$. Conversely, at a lower level of collectivist culture, family-work enrichment related significantly and negatively to task adaptivity, $\beta = -.20$, $SE = .09$, $p = .031$. Thus, the hypothesis that collectivist culture moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive at a higher level of collectivist culture (H3k) was not supported. See Figure 4.4 depicting the graphical representation of the slope analysis of the moderating effect of collectivist culture on the relationship between family-work enrichment and task adaptivity

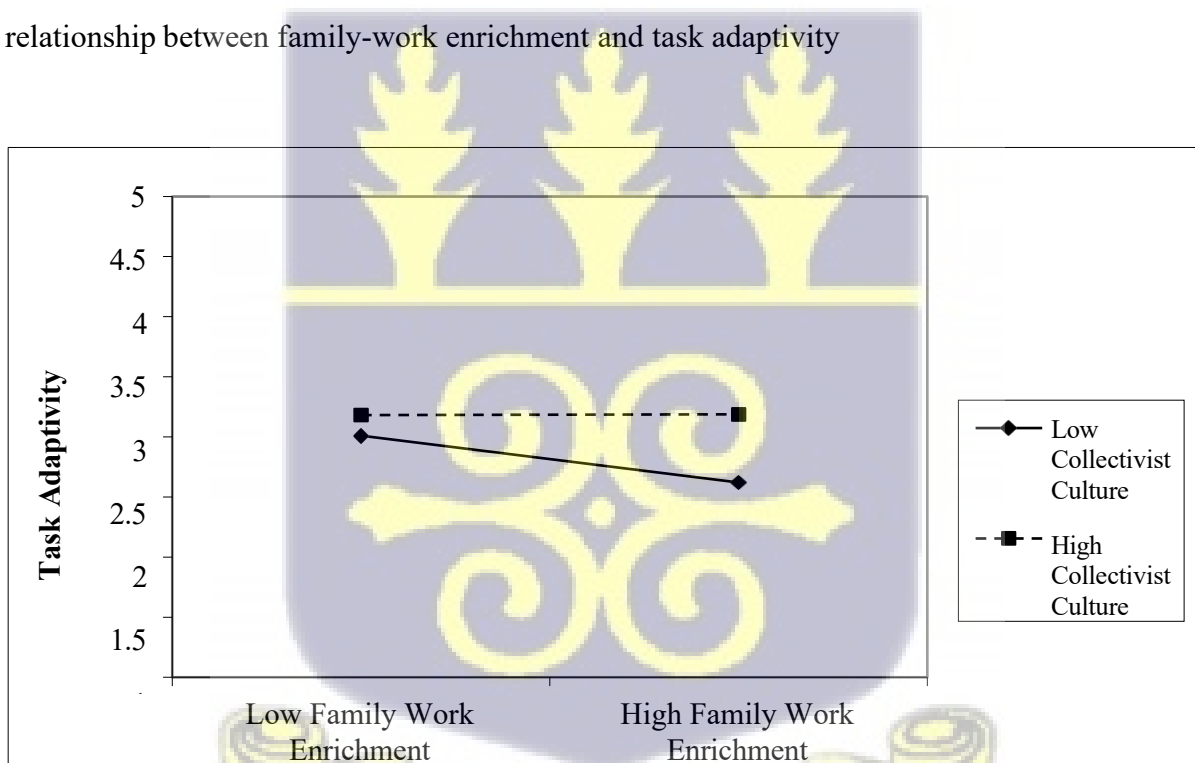


Figure 4.4: Collectivist culture Moderates Family-Work Enrichment and Task Adaptivity Relationship

Finally, the hypothesis that collectivist culture moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proactivity was not supported by the results of the study, $\beta = .10$, $SE = .06$, $p = .386$. Thus, the hypothesis that collectivist culture moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive at a higher level of collectivist culture (H31), was not supported.

The study's observed hypotheses are represented in Figure 4.5

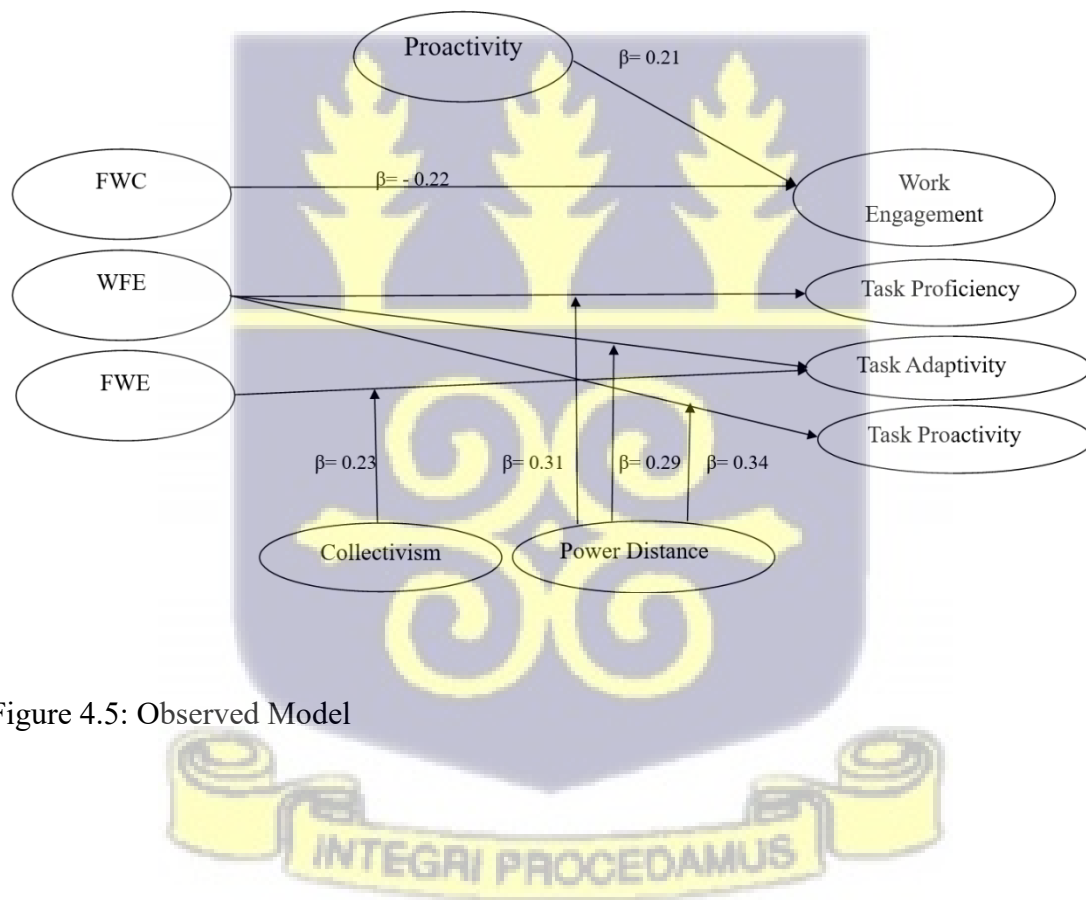
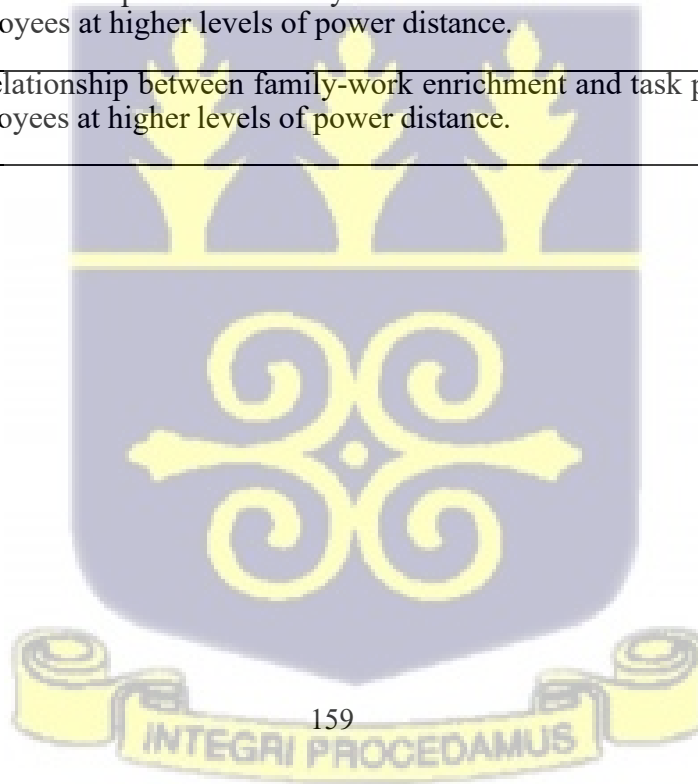


Figure 4.5: Observed Model

Table 4.6: Summary of Hypothesized Results

#	Statement of Hypotheses	Decision
1	H1a: There is a significant relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement	Not Supported
2	H1b: There is a significant relationship between family-work conflict and work engagement	Supported
3	H2a: Proactivity will relate positively and significantly to work engagement	Supported
4	H2b: Proactivity moderates the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement such that the negative relationship is weaker for individuals with high proactivity compared to those with low proactivity	Not Supported
5	H2c: Proactivity moderates the relationship between family-work conflict and work engagement such that the negative impact of family-work conflict on work engagement is weaker at high levels of proactivity	Not Supported
6	H3a: Power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance	Supported
7	H3b: Power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance	Supported
8	H3c: Power distance moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance	Supported
9	H3d: Power distance moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.	Not supported
10	H3e: Power distance moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.	Not supported

11	H3f: Power distance moderates the relationship between family work enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance	Not supported
12	H3g: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.	Not supported
13	H3h: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.	Supported
14	H3i: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.	Not supported
15	H3j: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proficiency, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.	Not supported
16	H3k: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task adaptivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.	Not supported
17	H3l: Collectivist culture moderates the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proactivity, such that the relationship is more positive for employees at higher levels of power distance.	Not supported



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

Balancing the demands of work and family is a persistent challenge for many employees in the service sector, often leading to significant stress and potential conflict. The complex dynamics of work-family conflict have been extensively studied, yet understanding the mechanisms that moderate these conflicts at both individual and organizational levels remains underexplored. Existing research predominantly highlights the negative consequences of work-family conflict, including diminished work engagement and adverse effects on personal well-being. However, the role of factors such as proactive personality, power distance, and collectivism, and outcomes requires further exploration.

This study addresses these gaps by examining, first, the impact of work-family conflict on work engagement. Secondly, exploring the moderating role of proactive personality in the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement. Thirdly, exploring the moderating role of power distance and collectivism in the relationship between work-family enrichment and work-role performance. By focusing on these less studied areas seek to contribute to a better understanding of how both personal and cultural factors can either exacerbate or mitigate the effects of work-family conflict in the service sector. In this chapter, the findings from the previous chapter are discussed in relation to the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model and the Challenge-Hindrance Model, as well as extant studies. Also, the limitations of the study are discussed. The chapter further offers recommendations for future research and concludes with the broader implications of the study to policy, practice and research.

5.1 Work-Family Conflict and Work Engagement

The first research objective sought to examine the impact of work-family conflict on work engagement. Work-family conflict, a form of inter-role conflict where demands from work and family domains are mutually incompatible, can lead to significant strain on employees (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985b). This study explored how the bi-directionality of work-family conflict influences work engagement, which is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Work-family conflict, typically categorized into time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based conflict, has been shown to reduce an individual's energy and resources, thereby decreasing engagement at work (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985b). Nevertheless, in this study, the expected negative relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement was not observed.

This finding diverges from prior research that suggested a negative relationship between WFC and work engagement (Balogun & Afolabi, 2019; Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2016; Listau et al., 2017). Thus, in extant literature, the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement is generally viewed as negative because WFC drain employees' resources and energy, ultimately reducing their capacity to stay engaged with their work. In line with the JD-R model, work engagement is sustained when job resources are available to meet demands; however, when family demands interfere with work obligations, they place additional strain on employees' limited energy reserves. Further, April Yue (2022) explains that WFC leads to stress, which weakens employees' overall resilience and depletes the psychological resources necessary for maintaining high levels of engagement at work. As a result, employees facing elevated WFC may struggle to fulfil their job roles effectively due to this diminished energy, ultimately impacting their capacity for engagement. This depletion of energy and resources has broader implications for job performance and customer evaluations. When employees

experience high levels of WFC, their ability to engage meaningfully with their tasks is compromised, often leading to reduced productivity and effectiveness.

One possible explanation for the unexpected positive relationship between WFC and work engagement could be that while engaged employees are more invested in their work, this investment might lead to increased work demands, thereby exacerbating work-family conflict. This aligns with the idea that high work engagement can sometimes blur the boundaries between work and home life, making it harder to separate the two domains and potentially leading to more conflict rather than less. This study's finding which observed a positive relationship between WFC and work engagement supports the findings of Van Engen et al. (2023) which also found that there was a positive relationship between WFC and work engagement. According to JD-R model, work engagement is typically a result of having sufficient job resources to meet job demands. However, when the demands are high and resources are insufficient or when engagement leads to increased demands (e.g., longer hours, higher expectations), the protective effect of engagement on work-family conflict may diminish. This could explain why the negative relationship between work engagement and work-family conflict was not supported in this study.

Additionally, in Ghana's service sector, job demands are often intensified by a high level of social interaction, extended hours, and performance expectations. This environment has the tendency to create high demands that, while challenging, may also encourage employees to invest more deeply in their work to meet expectations, thus sustaining engagement despite experiencing WFC. The JD-R model explains that, in such high-demand contexts, if employees perceive these demands as meaningful and worth investing effort into, they are likely to engage fully in their work, even if it strains their personal lives. Moreover, the Challenge-Hindrance Stress Model further clarifies how WFC might be perceived as a positive stressor or challenge

rather than an overwhelming obstacle within the Ghanaian service sector. For many employees, especially those in dynamic, fast-paced roles, WFC might be framed as a challenge that, when managed effectively, can lead to professional growth, resilience, and improved interpersonal skills. This challenge-oriented mindset aligns with the Ghanaian cultural emphasis on hard work, community support, and adaptability, which may encourage employees to see high demands as opportunities for personal and professional development. Thus, even when family demands conflict with work obligations, these employees may view the experience as enhancing their capacity for multitasking, resilience, and adaptability, rather than detracting from their engagement.

Moreover, the non-significant relationship found in this study reflects a broader shift in how employees perceive and manage work-family boundaries within the service sector. With the increasing prevalence of flexible work arrangements and remote work, the traditional boundaries between work and family life are less rigid, potentially reducing the conflict between these domains (Allen et al., 2013). As a result, employees may experience less strain and be able to remain engaged at work despite the presence of work-family conflict. This shift in work-family boundary management suggests that employees in the service sector may be adapting to more fluid work environments, where flexibility has become a core feature of their professional lives. With the increased adoption of flexible work arrangements, employees have more control over their schedules and are often able to adjust their work hours to accommodate family needs. This newfound flexibility has the potential to allow employees to better balance work and family responsibilities, thereby reducing the traditional strain associated with work-family conflict. The ability to work from home or adjust hours based on personal demands, thus, blurs the lines between work and family time, which, in some cases, reduces the potential for role conflict.

Consequently, this increased control, and autonomy may alleviate some of the adverse effects typically associated with WFC, allowing employees to engage with their work more fully without the constant interference of family obligations. Additionally, these changes align with a broader societal shift toward valuing work-life balance and employee well-being, particularly within sectors that rely heavily on personal interactions and service delivery. Organizations in the service sector have increasingly recognized the importance of maintaining employee engagement by providing supportive resources and promoting policies that accommodate the complexities of modern family life. By creating a more flexible environment, they foster an atmosphere in which employees feel their personal lives are valued, which can enhance job satisfaction and, in turn, work engagement. As employees perceive that they can manage both domains without sacrificing one for the other, the conflict between work and family demands may lessen, even if both sets of demands remain high. This evolving dynamic reflects an adaptive shift in the workplace that could mitigate the traditional negative impact of WFC on engagement, as employees are empowered to integrate work and family responsibilities in ways that sustain their overall well-being.

However, in this study, it was also found that Family-Work Conflict had a negative significant relationship with work engagement. This shows that higher work engagement is associated with fewer conflicts where family responsibilities interfere with work. In other words, employees who are highly engaged in their work tend to experience less conflict originating from family demands interfering with work. Thus, engaged employees may be better at managing family responsibilities or might have support systems in place that allow them to focus more effectively on their work when needed. Additionally, their investment in their work role might buffer them from the spillover of family demands, as they may perceive work as a

source of satisfaction and personal accomplishment, thus reducing the negative impact of family demands on their work.

This finding aligns with the JD-R model, which posits that work engagement emerges from a balance between job demands and job resources. In this case, employees with high engagement likely have access to resources such as social support, autonomy, and skill variety that help them effectively manage family responsibilities, minimizing the intrusion of family demands on their work life. The resources gained from work engagement may provide the resilience and energy needed to handle family responsibilities, preventing them from spilling over into work. In other words, employees who feel supported by their supervisors or colleagues for instance, may be better equipped to handle unexpected family obligations without allowing these to disrupt their work focus. This supportive work environment contributes to their ability to remain engaged and present, allowing them to navigate family demands without letting them interfere with their professional commitments.

Furthermore, the JD-R model suggests that engaged employees perceive work as a source of energy and motivation, which could help explain why they experience less Family-Work Conflict. Since engaged individuals view their work roles positively, they are more likely to feel empowered to seek solutions and manage external family stressors without letting them impact their work role performance. They may see their work engagement as a personal resource that bolsters their ability to manage external pressures, particularly family demands, more effectively. Additionally, employees who have invested in their work are likely to set clearer boundaries between family and work, which reduces the likelihood of family demands encroaching on their professional lives. Therefore, engagement serves as a psychological resource, reinforcing their ability to manage both domains efficiently and reducing family-to-work interference.

From the perspective of the CHM Model, Family-Work Conflict can be understood as a hindrance stressor that typically impedes work role performance. However, for highly engaged employees, family demands might be perceived less as hindrances and more as manageable aspects of their personal lives. These employees may see work engagement as a way to psychologically buffer against family demands, perceiving challenges from family obligations as less burdensome. Since the CHM model posits that individuals who experience high levels of engagement can view stressors as challenges rather than threats, engaged employees might feel less overwhelmed by family demands that could otherwise disrupt their work. They are more likely to deploy proactive coping strategies that help them address family responsibilities in a way that minimizes their impact on work, such as enlisting additional family support or adjusting their routines to accommodate both domains effectively.

In addition, the protective role of work engagement against Family-Work Conflict may be particularly relevant in the service sector, where employees often engage in customer-facing roles that require sustained emotional and social resources. Engaged employees are more likely to derive positive energy from their interactions with colleagues and clients, which can serve as a buffer against stressors from home. In this sector, customer service roles typically provide employees with regular feedback and opportunities for personal growth, which enhance their engagement levels and help maintain a positive outlook toward both their work and personal responsibilities. These resources can mitigate the effect of family demands, as employees who find satisfaction in their work may be less affected by family challenges, reinforcing their commitment to their roles. Thus, in a service-oriented setting, engagement acts as a resource that enables employees to manage Family-Work Conflict more effectively, maintaining high performance levels while balancing external demands.

5.2 Proactive Personality as a Moderator in the relationship between Work-family

Conflict and Work Engagement

The second research objective aimed to explore the moderating role of proactive personality in the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement. Proactive personality, characterized by a tendency to take initiative and effect change, is hypothesized to influence how individuals manage work-family conflict and maintain work engagement (Park et al., 2018). In this study, the hypothesis was that a proactive personality would moderate the relationship between work-family conflict, family-work conflict, and work engagement. However, the results showed that proactive personality did not significantly moderate these relationships. This suggests that, within the JD-R framework, proactive personality might not act as a resource that buffers the negative effects of WFC and FWC on work engagement. It indicates that other factors, such as organizational support or job control, might be more influential in mitigating these conflicts.

The finding that a proactive personality did not significantly moderate the relationships between work-family conflict family-work conflict, and work engagement presents an intriguing deviation from existing assumptions within work-family interface theories and the broader JD-R model. Proactive personality, generally associated with the capacity to anticipate and mitigate challenges in the work environment, has often been proposed as a buffer against stressors, potentially enhancing an individual's resilience in managing conflicting work and family demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). This lack of significant moderation, however, aligns with emerging research suggesting that while proactive traits are beneficial in promoting general adaptability, they may not always be sufficient in alleviating the strain and complexities brought about by deep-rooted, recurring role conflicts, such as those found in WFC and FWC

(Crant, 2000; Young et al., 2018). These conflicts often require more immediate resources or organizational support than individual proactive traits alone can provide.

In the context of the JD-R model, this finding indicates that while proactive individuals may possess high personal resources, the demands created by simultaneous and opposing role responsibilities, like family and work, can still lead to resource depletion without adequate external resources. Specifically, the JD-R model posits that work engagement stems from a balance between job demands and resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). In this case, even highly proactive individuals might lack the necessary organizational or family resources to manage high levels of conflict originating from dual roles. Thus, while a proactive personality is useful in mobilizing resources, it might not directly offset the demands of WFC or FWC, highlighting a gap where external support mechanisms are critical.

Also, the CHM model also provides a valuable perspective on this finding. The CHM model distinguishes between stressors that serve as challenges, which can promote growth and engagement, and hindrances, which are obstructive and lead to strain (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Under this model, WFC and FWC are more accurately characterized as hindrance stressors, as they are generally perceived as obstacles to achieving work or family goals. Consequently, even a proactive personality might struggle to reframe WFC or FWC as opportunities rather than constraints. This suggests that the proactive trait alone may be insufficient to recharacterize WFC and FWC as less burdensome, limiting its moderating influence on the relationship between these conflicts and work engagement.

The absence of a moderating effect from proactive personality in managing WFC might reflect cultural or contextual variations in how proactivity is perceived and enacted. Research by Oyserman and Markus (1993) suggests that in collectivist cultures, such as Ghana, proactive

behaviours may not serve the same role in stress reduction as they do in individualistic cultures. Cultural norms in collectivist societies often emphasize family and communal support, rather than individualistic problem-solving approaches. In contexts where family commitments are prioritized, as in the Ghanaian service sector, and where professional environments may lack flexibility, individuals may find fewer opportunities to exert proactive behaviours to address family-related conflicts. This cultural framing can limit the efficacy of proactive personality in mitigating WFC, as individuals may not have the same autonomy or support systems to take initiative in balancing these roles.

Furthermore, while personal traits like proactive personality are important, their effects may be limited in managing entrenched work-family conflicts without adequate structural or relational support. Matthews et al. (2014) highlight that proactive behaviours are significantly more effective when paired with supportive supervisors and family-friendly organizational policies. The lack of moderation by proactive personality may also be better understood through the lens of the CHM model, which differentiates between stressors perceived as growth opportunities (challenges) and those perceived as impediments (hindrances) (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Work-family conflict is generally classified as a hindrance stressor, as it obstructs individuals from achieving their work or family goals without clear developmental value. In line with this model, proactive individuals may find it particularly challenging to turn WFC and FWC into opportunities for growth or engagement, as these conflicts typically lack positive or developmental elements. Consequently, proactive personality may lack the leverage necessary to buffer WFC's negative effects on work engagement since the stressor in question does not offer inherent motivational or challenge-oriented qualities. This insight aligns with studies that have found proactive personality to be more effective when applied to challenge-

oriented contexts, where it enhances employees' capacity to capitalize on developmental opportunities (Li et al., 2014).

Moreover, extant literature on personality traits and work engagement reinforces this interpretation, showing that while proactive personality is positively associated with engagement, its efficacy in moderating stressor-strain relationships is mixed. For instance, research by Parker et al. (2010) and Sonnentag (2003) found that proactive individuals generally experience higher work engagement but noted that this engagement level is not always sustained in high-stress or conflict-heavy environments. When proactive individuals face continuous and intense demands, their initial engagement may give way to disengagement as resources are depleted, potentially explaining the lack of a moderating effect in this study. The nature of WFC and FWC as pervasive stressors may thus undermine proactive individuals' capacity to remain engaged, suggesting that this personality trait's benefits are perhaps more context-dependent than previously assumed.

Thus, from the perspective of the CH-Model, work-family conflict and family-work conflict are generally considered hindrance stressors because they create obstacles that interfere with work and family roles. The expectation was that a proactive personality might help individuals perceive these conflicts as less hindering and more manageable, thus maintaining their work engagement. However, the findings indicate that proactive personality did not significantly change the impact of these conflicts on work engagement. This could mean that the nature of WFC and FWC as hindrance stressors is strong enough that even proactive individuals struggle to reframe or mitigate their negative effects. This finding aligns with the findings of (Cui & Li, 2021) which indicated that proactive behaviour is positively related to work-family conflict, suggesting that proactive individuals may experience more conflict as a result of their proactive actions. In other words, proactive personality might not always serve as a protective factor;

instead, it could exacerbate the demands of both work and family roles, potentially increasing the likelihood of conflict. Thus, this finding contradicts the notion that proactive individuals are more adept at managing challenges and actively seeking solutions to mitigate the negative impacts of work-family conflict (Parker & Collins, 2010).

5.3 Moderating role of Power Distance and Collectivism in the relationship between Work-family Enrichment and Work-role Performance

The third research objective aimed to explore the moderating roles of power distance and collectivist culture in the relationship between work-family enrichment and work-role performance. Consequently, the discussion for this research objective is divided into two subsections reflecting the two distinct moderators' roles in the relationships between work-family enrichment and work-role performance.

5.3.1 Power Distance as a Moderator in the Relationship Between Work-Family Enrichment and Work-Role Performance

The first part of the third research objective sought to explore the moderating role of power distance in the relationship between work-family enrichment and work-role performance. The results provided compelling evidence that power distance significantly influences this relationship. Specifically, work-family enrichment was found to relate more positively to task proficiency, task adaptivity, and task proactivity at higher levels of power distance. The study found that higher levels of power distance amplified the positive effects of WFE on task proficiency, task adaptivity, and task proactivity. In particular, the positive moderation effect of power distance on the relationship between work-family enrichment and task proficiency suggests that employees in high power distance cultures are more likely to utilize the resources gained from family life to improve their job performance. This could be attributed to the hierarchical nature of such environments, where employees might feel a greater obligation to

meet the expectations set by their superiors, thereby leveraging the enrichment from their family life to enhance their task proficiency. Similarly, the moderation effect on task adaptivity and task proactivity highlights that in high power distance settings, employees might be more inclined to adapt and take initiative in their roles when they experience enrichment from their family life. This could be due to the perceived stability and support provided by a clear hierarchical structure, which might encourage employees to take calculated risks and adapt to changing work conditions, knowing that their proactive efforts are valued and rewarded within the organization. These findings suggest that in cultures or organizations with high power distance, the hierarchical structure and clear authority lines may enhance the perceived value and utilization of resources gained from WFE.

In accordance with the Challenge-Hindrance Stress model, this finding suggests that employees in high power distance environments may view work-family enrichment as a challenge stressor, which can enhance their growth and development, rather than a hindrance to their performance. The clear and stable structure of hierarchical systems in such cultures could create an environment where employees are motivated to use the enrichment from their family lives to excel in their professional roles. Employees may perceive the family-derived resources as enhancing their capacity to meet the demands and expectations set by their superiors. This, in turn, could contribute to improved task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity, as they embrace these stressors as opportunities for development. This aligns with previous studies that have shown how employees in hierarchical environments view work-family enrichment as a resource that can enhance their professional capabilities (Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2013).

The findings also align with the Job-Demand Resources model, which posits that job resources, including personal and external resources like those gained from family life, can significantly

enhance work performance when they are effectively utilized. In high power distance cultures, employees may feel a heightened sense of obligation to meet organizational expectations, particularly from superiors, and may therefore be more likely to leverage family-derived resources to improve task proficiency, adapt to changing work conditions, and take proactive steps in their roles. The structured and supportive nature of hierarchical organizations may facilitate this process by providing employees with a clear understanding of their role and the resources available to them. This perspective is consistent with findings by Xanthopoulou et al. (2009) and Bakker et al., (2014), who found that job resources, such as social support and autonomy, have a positive effect on job performance and work engagement, especially in environments that provide clear structures and support.

These findings are consistent with previous research that suggests cultural factors, such as power distance, play a crucial role in shaping work-related behaviours and outcomes (Gu et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2018). However, these findings contrast with studies that suggest that power distance can dampen the positive effects of work-family enrichment in certain contexts. For instance, Aryee, Srinivas, and Tan (2005) found that the impact of work-family conflict and enrichment may be weaker in cultures with higher power distance, where there is a greater tendency to suppress individual needs in favour of organizational or family obligations. This contrasts with the present study's findings, where higher power distance appears to enhance the positive relationship between WFE and task performance. One possible explanation for this discrepancy could be the difference in cultural settings or sector-specific factors. For example, the service sector, particularly in high power distance cultures, might place a greater emphasis on the utility of personal resources, such as family support, in enhancing performance outcomes. In this sector, employees may be more inclined to utilize family enrichment to align with organizational goals and demonstrate their capabilities, especially when hierarchical

structures emphasize support and stability. The service industry, often characterized by interpersonal interactions, demands high levels of task adaptivity and proactivity. In high power distance cultures, employees may rely on the stability and support provided by their families to build resilience and take proactive steps in their roles. In contrast, other sectors where the organizational structure may be less supportive or where individual initiative is less valued, the positive effects of WFE might not be as pronounced. This aligns with findings from Sonnentag et al. (2010), who suggested that organizational culture and sector-specific demands can play a significant role in shaping the way personal resources, like work-family enrichment, are utilized.

However, it is noteworthy that power distance did not significantly moderate the relationship between family-work enrichment and any aspects of work-role performance. This suggests that the direction of enrichment (i.e., from work to family or family to work) plays a crucial role in how cultural factors like power distance influence work outcomes. It may be that in high power distance cultures, the enrichment that originates from the family domain is less likely to be perceived as relevant or beneficial to work performance, as the cultural emphasis is more on the work domain itself. It could also be due to the nature of family-work enrichment, which may be less directly influenced by organizational norms and structures, and more by individual and family dynamics. In high power distance settings, the benefits of work on family life might not translate as effectively into improved work performance, potentially because these environments emphasize the primacy of work roles over family roles.

5.3.2 Collectivism as a Moderator in the Relationship Between Work-Family

Enrichment and Work-Role Performance

The second part of the third research objective sought to explore the moderating role of collectivist culture in the relationship between work-family enrichment, family-work

enrichment, and work-role performance (task proficiency, task adaptivity, and task proactivity). Contrary to expectations, the findings revealed that collectivist culture did not significantly moderate most of these relationships. Specifically, the findings of this study indicated that collectivist culture did not significantly moderate the relationship between work-family enrichment and the various aspects of work-role performance (task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity). This finding is rather surprising given that the JD-R model posits that the availability of job resources, such as work-family enrichment, typically enhances work engagement and performance, as it allows employees to transfer positive resources from one life domain to another, thereby increasing their ability to perform well in their roles. However, the lack of significant moderation by collectivist culture suggests that, within the Ghanaian service sector, cultural values emphasizing group harmony and loyalty might not enhance the beneficial effects of work-family enrichment on work role performance. One possible reason for this is that employees in collectivist cultures may prioritize social and relational obligations, which could inadvertently reduce the level of personal autonomy and resources they can channel directly into their job roles, as these energies may also be required to fulfil family and social responsibilities.

Again, the Challenge-Hindrance model provides further perspective on this finding. In collectivist cultures, the boundaries between work and family are often more fluid, with individuals possibly feeling obligated to meet the needs of both domains equally. Under the Challenge-Hindrance model, while enrichment is generally a positive resource, its impact on work role performance may be limited if employees perceive work-family dynamics as adding to their hindrance rather than as a challenge. In collectivist cultures, work-family enrichment may bring added relational and family expectations that do not necessarily translate into better task performance. For instance, service sector employees in Ghana might view family

obligations as a central aspect of their lives that they must integrate alongside work demands. However, if work-family enrichment only adds to their responsibilities, rather than inspiring personal fulfilment or efficiency at work, it may not significantly influence their job performance or ability to adapt and proactively address tasks.

Extant literature suggests that collectivist values do not always positively moderate the relationship between work resources and job outcomes. For example, studies like those by Matthews et al. (2014) have shown that while cultural and organizational support structures can bolster job engagement, they are highly dependent on the type of resources and the individual's personal experience of them. In the Ghanaian service sector, where collectivism is prominent, the lack of a significant moderating effect may indicate that collectivist values could, at times, limit the autonomy and self-driven motivation necessary to optimize role performance. In practical terms, employees may receive family and social support for work-life balance, but the expected reciprocation of such support may prevent them from fully engaging in self-directed work behaviours like adaptivity or proactivity. Thus, while work-family enrichment can contribute positively to employee satisfaction, its benefits on work-role performance in a collectivist context like Ghana might not be as pronounced, particularly if the enrichment reinforces cultural obligations rather than enhancing individual job efficacy and flexibility.

Furthermore, the study also found no significant moderation by collectivist culture in the relationship between family-work enrichment and task proficiency, as well as task proactivity. Theoretically, the Job Demands-Resources model suggests that resources from family, such as emotional support or shared responsibilities, generally contribute positively to work-related outcomes. However, the non-significant findings in this study imply that in collectivist cultures, where family and social obligations are highly valued, the positive spillover from

family into work may not necessarily translate into enhanced task proficiency or proactive behaviours at work. This could be because employees in collectivist settings may view family support as a means to maintain work-life balance rather than a resource to directly fuel work productivity, particularly in highly interdependent roles within the service sector.

In addition, in a collectivist culture, family support might be perceived less as a challenge that motivates employees to perform proactively and more as a form of assistance that simply alleviates stress. Under the CHM, resources are most effective in driving proactive behaviours when they are experienced as challenges rather than neutral or routine support. In Ghana's collectivist society, family support might be deeply integrated into daily life, which can reduce its perceived novelty or motivational force, as employees may see it as a standard part of their lives rather than an enabling resource that pushes them toward greater proficiency or innovation. This integration, while stabilizing, might not trigger the type of proactive energy necessary for higher levels of task proficiency or proactive engagement within service roles.

Existing literature aligns with this interpretation, as studies have shown that in collectivist cultures, family-work enrichment may not always predict positive work outcomes if employees prioritize relational harmony over individual performance metrics. In particular, a study by Brougham et al. (2015) found that collectivist values can enhance the positive effects of work-family enrichment on employee outcomes. However, the current study's findings contradict this, suggesting that collectivist culture did not significantly moderate the relationship between WFE/FWE and work-role performance. This finding further contradicts the findings from a meta-analysis study of Zhang et al. (2018) which indicated that cultural factors, such as collectivism, can moderate the effects of work-family enrichment on various outcomes. Also, the findings of Young et al. (2018) have suggested that in highly collectivist environments, the drive for personal accomplishment or task-oriented proactivity may be tempered by cultural

values that prioritize collective well-being. This is particularly relevant in Ghana, where family and community obligations are strongly embedded in the culture. Thus, while family-work enrichment might foster satisfaction or stability, it may not drive the sort of task-focused engagement or innovative behaviours that are critical for high levels of task proficiency or proactivity. Employees in these settings might see work as a separate responsibility where proactivity and proficiency arise more from work-specific resources and motivations rather than family-derived support.

Among the moderating role of collectivist culture in the relationship between work-family enrichment, family-work enrichment, and work-role performance (task proficiency, task adaptivity, and task proactivity) results, the only exception, thus, significant, was a moderation effect found in the relationship between FWE and task adaptivity, which showed that at lower levels of collectivist culture, FWE was negatively related to task adaptivity. This finding aligns with the tenets of the JD-R model. The JD-R model posits that job resources and job demands influence employee well-being and performance. In this regard, work-family enrichment can be seen as a job resource that enhances work performance by providing additional skills, perspectives, and psychological benefits. However, the current study's findings suggest that collectivist culture did not significantly enhance the positive effects of WFE/FWE on work-role performance. This could imply that the job resources provided by WFE/FWE are not sufficiently leveraged in collectivist cultures, possibly due to other overriding cultural or organizational factors. Again, this could be that in collectivist cultures, the collective responsibilities and expectations may already place high demands on individuals, potentially diluting the positive effects of the enrichment processes. The cultural norm of prioritizing group goals over individual well-being might overshadow the individual benefits that typically arise from work-family enrichment. Therefore, the moderating effect of collectivist culture

might be minimal or even counterproductive when it comes to translating enrichment into enhanced work performance.

Furthermore, the Challenge-Hindrance Stress model differentiates between stressors that are perceived as challenges, which can foster growth and performance, and those that are perceived as hindrances, which can impede progress and lead to negative outcomes. In this context, work-family and family-work enrichment are generally viewed as challenge-related resources that should enhance work performance. The unexpected finding that collectivist culture did not moderate the relationship between WFE/FWE and work performance may indicate that in highly collectivist settings, the enrichment processes might be perceived more as hindrances than as challenges. In a collectivist culture, the additional responsibilities that come with work-family enrichment might be seen as burdensome, especially if they conflict with collective expectations. This could lead to a situation where the enrichment is not fully capitalized upon as a resource, and instead, the associated demands are viewed as hindrances, thus not enhancing work performance as hypothesized. The one significant finding regarding task adaptivity and FWE at lower levels of collectivist culture further supports this interpretation. At lower levels of collectivist culture, the demands associated with balancing family and work roles might be perceived as less of a hindrance and more of a challenge, thereby having a more pronounced effect on adaptivity. This suggests that in less collectivist cultures, individuals might be more likely to experience enrichment as a resource that encourages adaptability, whereas in more collectivist settings, the same enrichment may not translate into adaptive behaviour due to the overriding collective demands. This further aligns with the assertions of Ollo-López and Goñi-Legaz (2017) that national culture affects how people perceive work-family relationships.

5.4 Implications of the Study

The findings from this study have significant implications for researchers, individuals and organizations, particularly in the context of work-family conflict, work engagement, and cultural dimensions such as power distance and collectivism. This research contributes to the existing literature by providing insights into how these factors interact and influence workplace outcomes, with potential applications in organizational practices, policy development, and employee well-being initiatives.

5.4.1 Implications for Research

This study makes several unique contributions to the literature and theory in the field of work-family conflict, particularly in the context of cultural dimensions and individual differences. These contributions are significant for advancing the understanding of the complex interactions between work-family dynamics, personality traits, cultural factors, and workplace outcomes. Firstly, this research uniquely contributes to the literature by exploring the moderating effects of power distance and collectivism on the relationship between work-family enrichment and various facets of work-role performance (task proficiency, task adaptivity, and task proactivity). While previous studies have examined work-family conflict and enrichment (Zhang et al., 2018), this study is perhaps among the first to empirically test the extent power distance and collectivism provide boundary conditions for the influence of work-family enrichment on job performance. The findings from this study provide insight into how cultural context can shape the impact of work-family dynamics on organizational outcomes, offering a new perspective for researchers and practitioners interested in cross-cultural management.

Secondly, this study employed a personal resource, proactive personality as a moderating variable in the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement. Most extant

studies considered gender and other demographic variables as moderating variables in the relationship between WFE and its outcomes (Bansal & Agarwal, 2020; Jain & Nair, 2020; Mishra et al., 2019; Wu & Chang, 2020; Zhang et al., 2018). Again, while proactive personality has been studied in various organizational contexts, its role in moderating the impact of work-family conflict on engagement is relatively underexplored. This study fills this gap by demonstrating that individuals with higher levels of proactive personality are better able to maintain their engagement at work despite experiencing work-family conflict. This finding extends the literature on personality traits in the workplace, highlighting the importance of individual differences in managing work-family boundaries.

In addition, the study's findings have significant implications for cross-cultural management and organizational theory. By demonstrating the differential effects of cultural dimensions on work-family enrichment and performance, the research challenges the universality of existing work-family theories and suggests the need for culturally adaptive frameworks. This contribution is particularly relevant for multinational organizations and researchers focused on developing management practices that account for cultural diversity in the workforce. Theoretically, extant work-family research has mainly also been understood from the theoretical perspectives of the JD-R and the Conservation of Resource theories. Consideration, integration and extension of JD-R to include other stressors and challenges, arguably has not yet been done. As such, this study is among the first to combine the JD-R theory and the Challenge-Hindrance Stress theory for a better interpretation of the kinds of stressors in the work-family interaction literature and this study sought to have a better understanding of the theoretical mechanism (O'Brien & Beehr, 2019). Furthermore, this study is among the few that employed the three-wave time-lagged designs in studying the complex dynamics between work-family conflict, work engagement, proactive personality and cultural dimensions guided

by the theoretical lenses of Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model and the Challenge-Hindrance Stress model. By this, the study addressed a methodological gap in the work-family literature and its outcomes, by using the three-wave time-lagged design and objective measures can establish causality and validity of the measures used.

5.4.2 Implications to Policy and Practice

The findings of this study have significant implications for both organizational policy and workplace practices, particularly in the areas of employee well-being, cultural sensitivity, and performance management. The insights derived from this research can inform the development of strategies that enhance work-life balance, improve employee engagement, and optimize performance in diverse cultural contexts. Firstly, the study underscores the importance of considering cultural dimensions, such as power distance and collectivism, when developing work-life balance policies. Organizations operating in high power distance cultures may need to create policies that acknowledge and leverage the hierarchical nature of these environments. For instance, from this study's finding, it can be recommended that providing structured support systems, such as formal mentoring programs, can help employees in high power distance cultures to better utilize work-family enrichment opportunities, thereby enhancing their task proficiency and adaptivity. Also, the findings have highlighted that in collectivist cultures, policies that encourage team-based support for managing work-family responsibilities could be more effective. As such, organizations might implement flexible work arrangements that allow for collective decision-making and support among employees. These culturally tailored approaches can help organizations better meet the needs of their diverse workforce, ultimately leading to improved job satisfaction and retention.

In addition, the finding that proactive personality moderates the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement has practical implications for employee management and

development. Organizations can benefit from identifying and nurturing proactive individuals who are better equipped to manage work-family conflicts. This could involve incorporating assessments of proactive personality into recruitment and selection processes, as well as offering development programs that foster proactive behaviours among employees. Training programs that enhance proactive problem-solving and initiative-taking skills can empower employees to take charge of their work-life balance, reducing the negative impact of work-family conflict on their engagement and performance.

More so, the study's exploration of the relationship between work-family enrichment and various aspects of work-role performance (task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity) has implications for performance management systems. Organizations should consider incorporating measures of work-family enrichment and cultural factors into their performance evaluations. Recognizing and rewarding employees who effectively balance work and family roles can motivate others to pursue similar enrichment opportunities, leading to higher overall performance. Furthermore, organizations can use the study's findings to tailor performance management practices to different cultural contexts. For example, in cultures with high power distance, performance appraisals could place greater emphasis on hierarchical achievements and the ability to navigate organizational structures effectively. In contrast, in collectivist cultures, team-based performance metrics that reflect collaborative efforts to manage work-family roles may be more appropriate. The study's findings also have implications for broader policy design, particularly in sectors where work-family conflict is prevalent. Policymakers could use these insights to advocate for the adoption of family-friendly workplace policies, such as flexible working hours, parental leave, and childcare support, that are sensitive to cultural differences.

Workplace counselling can be instrumental in helping employees manage the negative impacts

of work-family and family-work conflict. Furthermore, counselling can support employees in cultivating more positive ways that are tailored to their specific work-family dynamics, ultimately fostering better well-being and enhanced work engagement. In this way, workplace counselling programs can contribute to a healthier, more balanced work-life experience, improving overall employee performance and job satisfaction.

Furthermore, given the findings of this study, counselling services can support employees in managing work-family conflict and navigating cultural dynamics such as power distance and collectivism. Service sector organisations should provide tailored counselling services to help employees in high power distance cultures understand how to leverage hierarchical structures and family enrichment to enhance their work performance, adaptivity, and proactivity. Additionally, through workplace counselling, employees in collectivist cultures should be assisted by promoting team-based support systems and collective decision-making in managing work-family responsibilities. Moreover, counselling can be a key resource for nurturing proactive personalities, helping individuals develop strategies to manage stressors and improve engagement through practical problem-solving skills. It is, thus, recommended that service sector organisations integrate workplace counselling into performance management and policy development. This will offer employees the guidance needed to improve their task proficiency and engagement, while ensuring that culturally sensitive approaches are implemented to address diverse needs. In doing so, workplace counselling can foster a supportive environment that promotes both employee well-being and organizational effectiveness in the service sector. In this regard, as policies that reduce work-family conflict and enhance work-family enrichment are promoted, governments and organizations can contribute to the well-being of employees and their families, while also improving productivity and economic outcomes.

5.5 Limitations of the Study and Future Research Directions

Although this research offers valuable theoretical insights and practical applications, it does have certain limitations. First, the study employed a three-wave time-lagged design, which reduces the likelihood of common method variance influencing the results. Additionally, the variance inflation factor was calculated to assess the presence of common method variance, with findings indicating that it was not a significant issue in this study. It is worth noting that although a three-wave time-lagged design with two-week intervals as employed in this study offers valuable insights into temporal relationships between variables, it also presents limitations. To start with, while the design introduces temporal separation, it does not fully establish causation, as the lack of randomization leaves room for unobserved confounding factors that may influence the results. Additionally, participant attrition over multiple waves led to a smaller sample. The choice of a two-week interval between waves also presented certain challenges. While two weeks could be considered a short interval leading to inability to fully capture the natural progression of changes in the studies variables, when increased to two months or more could also have led to intervening factors having the propensity to impact the observed relationships.

Consequently, in the context of this study, the results may be specific to the Ghanaian service sector and to the time-lagged design with two-week intervals. The cultural, economic, and organizational characteristics of Ghana's service sector could influence the way work-family dynamics, personality traits, and engagement are experienced, potentially making the findings less applicable to different sectors or geographic contexts. Additionally, the two-week intervals between data collection waves might capture short-term fluctuations in work-family conflict and engagement but may not reflect longer-term patterns that could emerge over months or years. Consequently, while the study provides insights relevant to the Ghanaian service sector,

its specific timeframes and participant sample may limit the applicability of these findings to other sectors or regions where work demands, family expectations, and cultural norms differ significantly. Hence, future studies should replicate this study using the three-wave time lag design with extended time intervals of three months or more.

Second, the scope of this study was limited to workers in private and public organizations within the service-based sector of Ghana, specifically in the Greater Accra Metropolis, who had been employed for at least six months. While this focus provided valuable insights into work-family interactions and outcomes within a specific cultural and economic context, it may limit the generalizability of the findings. The results may not fully apply to other sectors, regions, or countries with different cultural norms, economic conditions, or organizational structures. Future research should consider expanding the scope to include diverse sectors and geographic locations to enhance the external validity of the findings and explore whether the observed relationships hold across different contexts. Future research should consider exploring alternative moderators, such as emotional regulation, coping strategies, or even organizational factors, to gain a more nuanced understanding of how they impact work-family conflict.

5.6 Conclusions

This study aimed to explore the complex dynamics between work-family conflict, work engagement, proactive personality, and cultural dimensions within the framework of work-family interface theories, namely the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model and the Challenge-Hindrance Stress model. The findings provide nuanced insights into these relationships, challenging some established assumptions while affirming others. Firstly, the anticipated negative relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement was not supported, suggesting that high engagement in work does not necessarily mitigate the strain

caused by work-family conflict. However, a significant negative relationship between family-work conflict and work engagement was found, indicating that engagement might protect against conflicts originating from family demands interfering with work.

Secondly, proactive personality did not moderate the relationship between work-family conflict and work engagement, implying that proactive traits alone may not be sufficient to buffer the negative effects of work-family conflict on engagement. This finding underscores the potential need for additional organizational resources and support to better manage these conflicts. Thirdly, the study revealed that power distance significantly moderates the relationship between work-family enrichment and various aspects of work-role performance, such as task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity. High power distance environments appear to amplify the positive effects of enrichment, suggesting that cultural factors play a crucial role in how work-family dynamics translate into work outcomes. Conversely, collectivism did not significantly moderate these relationships, except for a negative moderation between family-work enrichment and task adaptivity at lower levels of collectivism. This indicates that collectivist values may not always enhance the positive effects of work-family enrichment on performance, possibly due to competing collective demands.



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Sample Informed Consent Form

Work-Family Interactions and Outcomes among Ghanaians

Participant Information and Consent Form

WAVE 1

I invite you to complete our confidential survey on work-family interactions and outcome experiences of Ghanaians at work using a time lag design in which variables are measured on different occasions with an equal time interval separating each measurement point.

This study is part of my PhD. programme with the Department of Psychology of the University of Ghana, Legon.

My supervisors are Dr. Inusah Abdul-Nasiru (Lead supervisor) of the University of Ghana, Dr. Francis Annor (University of Cape Coast), and Dr. Eric Delle (University of Ghana)

Participation in this anonymous survey is completely voluntary, and you may choose to withdraw at any time without reason.

The survey should take approximately 10 minutes to complete, with straightforward questions which mostly involve ticking (✓) numbers to indicate what you think or how you feel.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential, except as required by law.

For any further clarifications, you may contact the researcher, Annie Owusua Nkulenu, through Email: anitub2@gmail.com or Telephone: 0243384923.

The researcher will be asking you to complete two more surveys after this one, after a period of two weeks.

To link your responses across the three surveys, while also keeping your responses anonymous, we would like you to generate a code that you can use in each of our surveys. Each time, we will prompt you with the same instruction to generate this code:

Use the *first three (3) letters* of your **FIRST NAME** and the *last three (3) numbers* of your **most frequently used mobile phone number**.

Example:

*If your first name is **Annie**, and your most frequently used mobile number is 0243384923, then your unique would be **Ann923**.*

Using the instructions provided, please write your code here:

--	--	--	--	--	--

Three letters

Three numbers

INTEGRI PROCEDAMUS

QUESTIONNAIRES WAVE 1

The following statements measure how you feel or think about work and family interaction experiences. For each statement, indicate the extent to which you felt this way within the PAST FEW MONTHS.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	The demands of my work interfere with family life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work- related activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I have to put off doing things at work because of the demands on my time at home.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working Overtime	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job- related duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Please indicate the extent to which you feel or think about the following statements regarding your work and family enriched interactions over the PAST FEW MONTHS					

1	My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
2	My involvement in my work helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
3	My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
4	My involvement in my work puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
5	My involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
6	My involvement in my work makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
7	My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5

8	My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
9	My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
10	My involvement in my family helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
11	My involvement in my family helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
12	My involvement in my family helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
13	My involvement in my family puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
14	My involvement in my family makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5

15	My involvement in my family makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
16	My involvement in my family requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
17	My involvement in my family encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
18	My involvement in my family causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5

Please provide the information that represents your current circumstance.

1. What is your gender? Male () Female ()
2. What is your age?.....
3. Marital status? Married () Single () Divorced () Separated ()
4. Number of Children if any?
5. Family size?
6. Spouse working status? Employed () Unemployed () Not Applicable ()
7. Do you have elderly dependents? Yes () No ()
8. Do you have domestic staff? Yes () No ()
9. Estimated annual income? Less than 10,000 cedis () 10,001 cedis – 50,000 cedis () Above 50, 000 cedis ()
10. Religion?
11. What is your current job position? Manager () Non-manager ()

12. What is your department at work (e.g.,HR)?.....
13. Estimated time spent on household duties a day? Less than an hour () one – five hours () More than five hours ()
14. Estimated time spent at work? Less than eight hours () Eight hours () More than eight hours ()
15. What is the highest level of education? HND () First degree () Master's degree () others (please specify).....
16. How many years have you are worked in your current organization?.....
17. What is your Estimated Number of hours spent going to work?
18. What is your Estimated Number of hours spent coming back home from work



WAVE 2

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your work for the PAST FEW MONTHS

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I easily conform to the wishes of someone in a higher position than mine	1	2	3	4	5
2	It is difficult for me to refuse a request if someone senior asks me	1	2	3	4	5
3	I tend to follow orders without asking any questions.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I find it hard to disagree with authority figures.	1	2	3	4	5
5	People in higher positions have more power than those in lower positions	1	2	3	4	5

The following statements measures how you have been proactive at work within the PAST FEW MONTHS. Kindly indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	No matter what the odds are, if I believe in something I will make it happen.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I excel at identifying opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am always looking for better ways to do things.	1	2	3	4	5
4	If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen	1	2	3	4	5
5	I can spot a good opportunity long before others can	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding how collective you have been over the PAST FEW MONTHS.

		Definitely No	No	Moderately No	Not Sure No	Undecided	Not Sure Yes	Moderately Yes	Yes	Definitely
1	If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	The well-being of my co-workers is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4	I feel good when I cooperate with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5	Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6	It is my duty to take care of my family, even when one has to sacrifice what I want.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7	Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8	It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

WAVE 3

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your engagement over the PAST FEW MONTHS.

		Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1	At my work, I feel overflowing with energy	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I am enthusiastic about my job	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	My job inspires me	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I feel happy when I am working intensely	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I am proud of the work that I do	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I am immersed in my work	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your Work Role Performance over the PAST FEW MONTHS.

		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	I carried out the core parts of my job well	1	2	3	4	5
2	I ensured my tasks were completed properly	1	2	3	4	5
3	I adapted well to changes in core tasks	1	2	3	4	5
4	I coped with changes to the way I have to do my core tasks	1	2	3	4	5
5	I Initiated better ways of doing my core tasks	1	2	3	4	5
6	I made changes to the way my core tasks are done	1	2	3	4	5



ECH ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER



UNIVERSITY OF GHANA
ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR THE HUMANITIES (ECH)

P. O. Box LG 74, Legon, Accra, Ghana

My Ref. No: ECH 175/ 22-23

May 24, 2023

Annie Owusu Nkulenu
Department of Psychology
University of Ghana
Legon

ETHICAL CLEARANCE
(ECH 175/ 22-23)

The Ethics Committee for the Humanities (ECH) conducted a full board review and approved your protocol titled:

WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND OUTCOMES: A TEST OF MODERATING AND MEDIATING PROCESSES AT THE INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATION LEVEL

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: ANNIE OWUSU NKULENU

Please note that the final review report must be submitted to the Committee at the completion of the study. Your research records may be audited at any time during or after the implementation. Any modification of this research project must be submitted to ECH for review and approval prior to implementation.

Please report all serious adverse events related to this study to ECH within seven (7) days verbally and in writing within fourteen (14) days.

This certificate is valid until May 23, 2024. You are required to submit annual reports for continuing review.

Please accept my congratulations.

Yours Sincerely,

Professor C. Charles Mate-Kole
ECH Chair

Cc: Dr. Inusah Abdul-Nasiru, Department of Psychology, UG
Dr. Eric Delle, Department of Psychology, UG
Dr. Francis Annor, Directorate of Research, Innovation and Consultancy, UCC

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