

Coping With Employee, Family, and Student Roles: Evidence of Dispositional Conflict and Facilitation Tendencies

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Balancing multiple roles is a challenge for individuals in many sectors of the population. The purpose of this study was to test the hypothesis that individuals have dispositional tendencies to experience interrole conflict and facilitation. We also aimed to show that coping styles and life satisfaction are correlates of dispositional conflict and facilitation tendencies. Two survey studies were conducted with individuals involved in 3 life roles (i.e., employee, student, and family member; Study 1: $N = 193$; Study 2: $N = 284$). The hierarchical structure of conflict and facilitation was examined in both studies. Support for the dispositional model was found in both cases through the use of hierarchical confirmatory factor analyses. In Study 2, a longitudinal assessment of the nomological network surrounding conflict and facilitation tendencies was conducted with structural equation modeling analyses; we found that coping styles had synchronous relations with dispositional conflict and facilitation; dispositional conflict had a lagged and negative relation with life satisfaction.

Keywords: conflict, facilitation, roles, coping, life satisfaction

Balancing multiple roles is a challenge felt by individuals in many sectors of the population at many stages of the life span. There are employees who are parents, volunteers who are spouses, and students who hold paid jobs—to name a few. Although the roles in question may differ, the experience of holding multiple roles may share common themes. It may lead to interrole conflict (e.g., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980) and facilitation (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1992). Interrole conflict occurs when participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participating in another (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985); interrole facilitation occurs when participation in one role is made easier by virtue of participating in the second (Frone, 2003). Past research has focused on narrow facets of conflict and facilitation, as well as their antecedents and consequences, primarily within the context of two life domains (i.e., work and family; e.g., for reviews, see Byron, 2005; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran,

2005). Our research extends existing theories and knowledge by taking a complementary perspective.

We argue that interrole conflict and facilitation may also be considered at a dispositional level of analysis. At this level, we believe that general propensities to experience conflict and facilitation are affected by dispositional antecedents and that these propensities have consequences that span the boundaries of numerous roles. Our hypotheses fit within the general framework of top-down approaches to well-being, which hold that individuals' characters and temperaments cause them to react to life in either a positive or a negative way (Brief, Butcher, George, & Link, 1993; Diener, 1984). On the basis of this, we believe that dispositional factors affect the experience of interrole conflict and facilitation when individuals occupy multiple roles.

Our goal is to provide evidence of these dispositions by testing a higher order model of conflict and facilitation that incorporates both facets and higher order dispositions. We then investigate coping styles and life satisfaction as correlates of dispositional conflict and facilitation tendencies. Our focus on coping is based on the belief that balancing multiple roles is a stressor by nature (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964) and is thus linked to the stress process. We looked at life satisfaction because it seems to be the most parsimonious way to assess overall wellness. We modeled conflict and facilitation in the context of three important life roles (i.e., employee, student, and family member).

This research contributes to the literature in three important ways. First, this is the first study to test the hypothesis that conflict and facilitation exist at a higher order than their component parts. This is important because of its implications for theory development. If conflict and facilitation are hierarchical, then researchers should be careful to delineate relations between variables at the same level within a single model, rather than crossing levels. Demonstrating that higher order, in this case dispositional, con-

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structs exist also facilitates theorizing about the overall experience of participating in many life roles.

A second contribution of this research is that it examines coping as a correlate of interrole conflict and facilitation. Although the study of multirole balance often adopts a stress-based perspective, investigations of coping have been few in number and have looked primarily at interrole conflict (e.g., Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Rotundo, Carlson, & Kincaid, 2003; see Kirchmeyer, 1993, for a unique study of facilitation). By investigating facilitation, our study fills theoretical and empirical gaps and responds to calls for research on the positive outcomes of coping (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). Our study also contributes to knowledge on relations among coping, conflict, facilitation, and life satisfaction by examining these relations longitudinally. Few studies have examined temporal processes involved in conflict and facilitation; our study makes its third contribution by being one of the first to delineate how these relations unfold over time.

The Structure of Interrole Conflict and Facilitation

Interrole Conflict

Interrole conflict is defined as a situation “in which role pressures from [two] domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). This notion is based on the resource drain model (see Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, for a review), which posits that individuals have limited resources (e.g., time and energy). Accordingly, once resources are expended on one role, they are no longer available for other roles.

The largest literature on interrole conflict examines conflicts between work and family. In such studies, researchers have theorized that the extent to which one role conflicts with the second (i.e., work conflicting with family) is distinct from the extent to which the second role conflicts with the first (i.e., family conflicting with work; e.g., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Researchers have also posited that interrole conflicts can be strain, behavior, time, and/or psychologically based (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; van Steenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijaart, 2007). There is ample evidence that these directions and dimensions of (work–family) conflict exist (see Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005, for a review). With respect to other roles (e.g., volunteer, student, athlete, etc.), there has been less research, but some evidence has shown that conflicts between work and nonwork domains other than family are also directional in nature (i.e., work–school; Butler, 2007; Markel & Frone, 1998).

Consistent with the notion that conflict occurs between specific role pairs, much research has focused on antecedents and consequences of specific conflict experiences (e.g., factors that affect strain-based work-to-family conflict). In that research, it has been found that work-to-family conflict is more often associated with work characteristics and outcomes (e.g., Byron, 2005; Dierdorff & Ellington, 2008; Ford et al., 2007), whereas family-to-work conflict is more often associated with family characteristics and outcomes (e.g., Byron, 2005; Ford et al., 2007). At the same time, meta-analyses have also found that facets of interrole conflict are significantly correlated with each other and exhibit similar relations with some outcomes, including work and nonwork stressors, withdrawal behaviors, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Meta-analytic evidence

also suggests that conflict facets share some antecedents (e.g., positive coping styles; Byron, 2005).

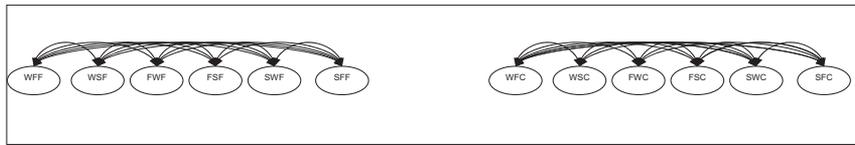
We agree with the idea that conflicts occur between specific role pairs and that each specific conflict may have antecedents and consequences that pertain to the role pair in question. For example, conflicts between family and community activities should be (partially) determined by family characteristics and community resources. We believe, however, that there is also a dispositional factor that affects the extent to which individuals experience conflict between roles, regardless of the roles they happen to occupy at any moment in time. Our position is that this general propensity is (partially) responsible for specific instances of interrole conflict. It may explain (at least in part) why facets of conflict are related to one another and share some common relations with other variables.

The idea that each individual has a certain propensity to experience conflict is based on the notion that all facets of conflict hinge on the same set of psychological resources (e.g., time, energy, cognitive capacity; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Given that some individuals have more of these resources than others and/or are better at allocating them, some people will be predisposed to experience more interrole conflict than others. There may also be individual differences in the way that individuals react to role demands. Drawing on Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) stress appraisal theory, it could be that some individuals tend to perceive role demands as threatening, whereas others tend to perceive demands as challenging. Those who tend toward threat appraisals may be more likely to experience conflicts than are those who do not perceive such threats. Consistent with other dispositional variables, such as intelligence (Sternberg, 1985) and personality (McCrae & Costa, 1987), we believe that propensities to experience conflict are relatively stable within individuals over time.

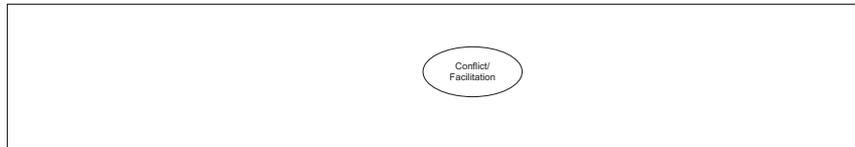
Our conceptualization of dispositional conflict is consistent with the top-down approach to well-being (Brief et al., 1993; Costa, McCrae, & Norris, 1981; Diener, 1984). This approach posits that individuals have a global tendency to experience life events and circumstances in a particular way and this influences the way they perceive and react to the world (Diener, 1984). Applied to dispositional conflict, this theory would predict that individuals with high levels of dispositional conflict are more likely to react to life events in a negative manner, which increases the amount of conflict that they experience between specific role pairs (e.g., family-to-work, school-to-family). The theory also makes room for objective circumstances within particular roles to influence the experience of specific interrole conflicts. For example, the type of job that an individual occupies should influence conflict involving the work domain. Overall, we believe that the experience of interrole conflict is affected by the individual’s personal disposition to experience conflict, as well as by specific factors within particular roles.

Operationally, we propose that dispositional conflict meets the four criteria to be a superordinate construct (Edwards, 2001; Johnson, Rosen, & Levy, 2008; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005). First, causality flows from the higher order construct of dispositional conflict to the lower order facets (see Figure 1, dispositional model). Moreover, the higher order construct should explain a meaningful amount of variation in the lower order facets. Second, all lower order conflict facets share a common theme. In this case, they all have the underpinning of conflict in common.

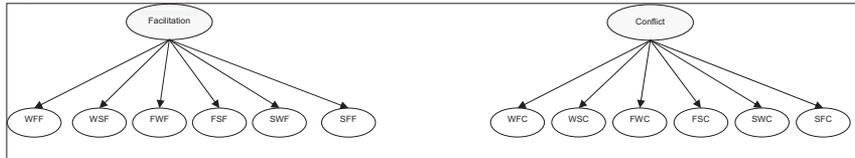
Multidimensional Model



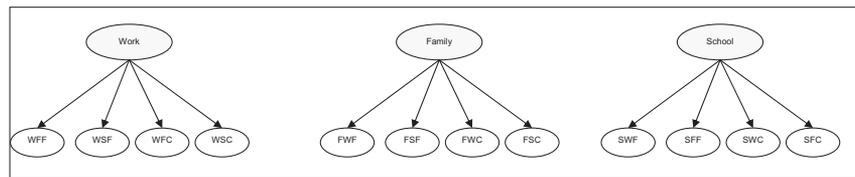
Unidimensional Model



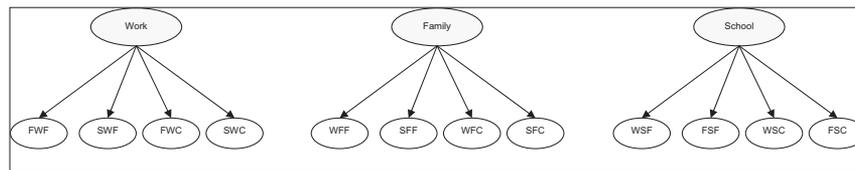
Dispositional Model



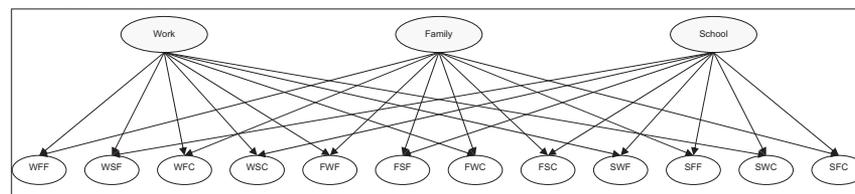
Influence Model



Influenced Model



General Domain Model



Disposition/Domain Model

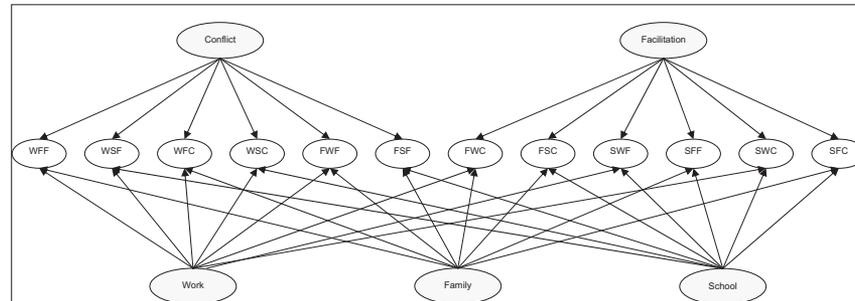


Figure 1. Models of the structure of interrole conflict and facilitation. WFF = work-to-family facilitation; WSF = work-to-school facilitation; FWF = family-to-work facilitation; FSF = family-to-school facilitation; SWF = school-to-work facilitation; SFF = school-to-family facilitation; WFC = work-to-family conflict; WSC = work-to-school conflict; FWC = family-to-work conflict; FSC = family-to-school conflict; SWC = school-to-work conflict; SFC = school-to-family conflict.

We believe that this is one likely reason for the observed relations between conflict facets. Third, different facets of conflict are somewhat interchangeable in the sense that dropping one or two would not alter the meaning of the higher order construct. This makes sense given that individuals may occupy different roles at different times; thus, different facets could be relevant at different times. Still, the propensity to experience conflict would remain relatively unchanged. Fourth, all facets of conflict should have the same general antecedents and consequences. This is consistent with past research, as noted earlier.

In summary, we argue that individuals have a dispositional tendency to experience interrole conflict, and this gives rise to a superordinate hierarchical structure in which specific interrole conflicts are, at least in part, reflections of the higher order tendency.

Hypothesis 1: Interrole conflict is hierarchically structured and can be represented as a higher order dispositional construct that influences several distinct yet related facets.

Interrole Facilitation

Interrole facilitation is defined as a situation in which participation in one role makes it easier to participate in a second role (Frone, 2003). This notion is based on the expansionist model (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Kirchmeyer, 1992), which posits that participating in one role increases the resources (e.g., self-esteem and social support) that a person has to participate in other roles. Accordingly, expending resources on one role may amplify the resources available for other roles.

Although comparatively less research has explored facilitation, the bulk of what has been done harmonizes with research on interrole conflict. First, it focuses on work and family domains (see Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, for a review), with some notable exceptions (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1992; Tompson & Werner, 1997). Second, it theorizes and empirically demonstrates that interrole facilitation is bidirectional (e.g., family-to-work facilitation and work-to-family facilitation; e.g., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007) and multidimensional (e.g., energy, time, behavior, and psychologically based; van Steenbergen et al., 2007). Third, it finds that there are significant correlations between different facets of facilitation (e.g., Innstrand, Langballe, Espnes, Falkum, & Aasland, 2008; van Steenbergen et al., 2007; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004).

Consistent with interrole conflict, narrow facets of facilitation are related to domain-specific antecedents and outcomes (e.g., Byron, 2005; Ford et al., 2007; Wayne et al., 2007). At the same time, there is evidence that the facets of facilitation exhibit similar relations with some antecedents, including personality traits (Boyar & Mosley, 2006; Wayne et al., 2004) and coping (Byron, 2005). The facets also have similar relations with some outcomes, including life satisfaction (van Steenbergen et al., 2007) and commitment (Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006).

As with conflict, we propose that the experience of facilitation is affected by specific factors within particular roles (e.g., work and family) as well as by the individual's personal disposition to experience facilitation. We argue that the general propensity to experience facilitation is (partially) responsible for specific facilitation experiences and may explain, at least in part, why facets of

facilitation are related to one another and share some common relations with other variables. Our rationale remains based on the top-down view of well-being and on the notion that all facets of facilitation hinge on individuals' desires to acquire and maximize psychological resources. This notion is consistent with the resource-gain-development model proposed by Wayne et al. (2007), which posits that individuals have a natural tendency to seek out resources from role participation and apply those resources to other roles to satisfy their growth needs. Going beyond the notion that all humans strive to grow, Wayne et al. (2007) argued that the overall phenomenon of interrole facilitation is affected by personal and environmental characteristics and that individuals with more enabling characteristics should experience more facilitation than those with less favorable characteristics.

On the basis of this discussion and consistent with dispositional conflict, we propose that dispositional facilitation meets the criteria to be a superordinate hierarchical construct (see Figure 1, dispositional model).

Hypothesis 2: Interrole facilitation is hierarchically structured and can be represented as a higher order dispositional construct that influences several distinct, yet related, facets.

The Nomological Network of Dispositional Conflict and Facilitation

Assuming that the propositions just discussed are correct, we believe there is value in examining dispositional tendencies to experience conflict and facilitation and their nomological networks. This may provide a more holistic view of the process of managing multiple roles that can complement the largely situational view that has been adopted to date.

We adopt the top-down view of well-being as a theoretical guide, and we add it to the lens of stress research. We take this approach because we agree with the argument that holding multiple roles is stressful (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964) and affects people's overall psychological functioning. For these reasons, our theoretical model posits coping styles as an antecedent of conflict and facilitation and posits life satisfaction as a general consequence. Our choice to focus on these general correlates rather than on domain specific ones is also consistent with the work of Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) and with tests of their compatibility notion in the context of work attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006).

Coping Styles and Dispositional Interrole Conflict and Facilitation

Coping Defined

Coping has been conceptualized as both a stable individual difference (i.e., dispositional coping) and a dynamic set of situation-specific responses (i.e., situational coping; Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Zeidner, 1993). This study focuses on dispositional coping styles. We propose that individual differences in coping styles are related to propensities to experience conflict and facilitation. This hypothesis is consistent with Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) stress-appraisal model, which suggests that adaptive coping styles can increase feelings of balance, whereas

maladaptive styles may have the opposite effect. It is also consistent with research that has found support for coping as an antecedent of facet-level interrole conflict and facilitation (e.g., Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Ganster, Fusilier, & Mayes, 1986).¹

Types of Coping

It is generally agreed that coping strategies can be classified into three types: problem, emotion, and avoidance oriented (Tamres, Janicki, & Helgeson, 2002). Problem coping involves engaging in active efforts to alleviate the stressor. This task-based approach typically makes the person feel better because it directly reduces the stressful properties of a situation (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). Emotion coping is an affect-based approach, which involves regulating one's emotional reaction to the event (e.g., turning to others to vent one's emotions). Avoidance coping involves engaging in activities or mental states that allow one to withdraw from the stressful event (e.g., sleeping; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Tamres et al., 2002). This type of coping can make the person feel better temporarily, but it generally does not resolve the stressor and often is not a good long-term solution (Suls & Fletcher, 1985).

Problem Coping and Interrole Interactions

We propose that problem coping is negatively related to dispositional conflict and positively related to dispositional facilitation. Problem coping aims to reduce the stressor at hand by engaging in active strategies to solve the problem. This coping style should increase the resources available for fulfilling role demands or decrease the resources that are required, thus decreasing the extent to which different roles compete for finite resources. Individuals who tend to cope by taking a problem-solving approach should be less likely to experience conflicts between roles. Available evidence supports this hypothesis (e.g., Burke, 1998; Lapiere & Allen, 2006; Rotundo et al., 2003), with some exceptions (e.g., Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999).

Hypothesis 3A: Problem coping is negatively related to dispositional conflict.

We expect a positive relation between problem coping and facilitation based on the notion that problem coping amplifies resources. Individuals who try to solve problems directly are more likely to see stressors as challenges, as opposed to threats, and to see the positive side of stressful encounters (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). This should facilitate their growth and development, which should enable facilitative transfer of gained resources from one role to another. On the basis of this, we believe that individuals who tend to use problem coping should be disposed to experience facilitation between roles. The only study to examine coping in the context of positive role interactions found that managers who engage in problem coping are more likely to experience positive spillover (Kirchmeyer, 1993).

Hypothesis 3B: Problem coping is positively related to dispositional facilitation.

Emotion Coping and Interrole Interactions

We posit that emotion coping is positively related to both dispositional conflict and facilitation. For conflict, we believe that

focusing on emotion regulation may deplete resources that are already feeling crunched. For example, seeking social support may reduce the time available for engaging in problem-focused strategies or fulfilling role demands. Thus, individuals who typically seek social support as a way to cope with stress may have a tendency to experience more rather than fewer conflicts. In support of this, evidence has shown that receiving social support can increase the relation between stressors and strain (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986). Studies have also found that social support is positively related to work-to-family conflict (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Hypothesis 4A: Emotion coping is positively related to dispositional conflict.

Despite these arguments, emotion coping may also serve to amplify the resources that individuals have to participate in multiple roles. For example, social support can provide individuals with new ideas, can take one's mind off a stressful situation, and can help individuals reframe stressors from threats to challenges—all of which may facilitate the extent to which resources from one role can be transferred to another. This hypothesis is consistent with the resource-gain-development theory, which proposes that social support is a resource that can ease performance across roles. It is also consistent with research on social support at work, which has found that it is related to many positive work and nonwork outcomes (e.g., satisfaction with family, general well-being; Baker, Israel, & Schurman, 1996; Carlson & Perrewé, 1999). Managing one's emotions can also help individuals focus on the positive aspects of different roles. It is associated with having a more positive state of mind (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Nezlek & Kuppens, 2008), and it has been argued that reappraising events in less emotional terms can optimize resources that are available to pursue goals (Richards, 2002). Thus, individuals who tend to use emotion coping may also have higher propensities to experience facilitation.

Hypothesis 4B: Emotion coping is positively related to dispositional facilitation.

Avoidance Coping and Interrole Relations

We propose that avoidance coping is positively related to dispositional conflict and negatively related to dispositional facilitation. Avoidance coping involves withdrawing from situational demands and engaging in activities that do not promote role engagement (e.g., excessive sleeping, problem drinking). These activities may drain resources, such as time and energy, that could otherwise be devoted to fulfilling role demands. This tendency to cope in a way that creates resource drain may increase the propensity to experience conflict. In support of this idea, there is

¹ It is noteworthy that coping has also been explored as a moderator of the relation between work-family conflict and well-being in a small number of studies. Although there are exceptions (e.g., Behson, 2002; Bhagat, Allie, & Ford, 1991), the majority of evidence does not support this hypothesis; rather, most evidence is consistent with the dispositional model presented here, which suggests that coping is better conceptualized as an antecedent of interrole conflict (Byron, 2005).

evidence that avoidance coping leads to negative responses in general, such as poor stress adaptation (Zeidner, 1993), anxiety (Zeidner, 1995), and negative affect (Rovira, Fernandez-Casatro, & Edo, 2005), and to higher interrole conflict in particular (Burke, 1998; Rotundo et al., 2003).

Hypothesis 5A: Avoidance coping is positively related to dispositional conflict.

We posit that avoidance coping is negatively related to dispositional facilitation because withdrawal is likely to inhibit growth and resource gain and may even promote resource loss because of a lack of role engagement. With little resource gain or maintenance occurring, resources cannot be transferred from one role to another, leading to a decreased tendency for facilitation between roles. An exception to this could be the potential for resource recovery (e.g., Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008). If tending to adopt avoidant tactics helps an individual to restore energy, then short-term or periodic avoidance may enhance resources available to tackle the demands of multiple roles in the long-term. No research to date has investigated this possibility.

Hypothesis 5B: Avoidance coping is negatively related to dispositional facilitation.

Overall Well-Being and Dispositional Conflict and Facilitation

Whether individuals are disposed to experience much conflict and facilitation or little conflict and facilitation, it seems to us that this should be related to their general well-being. This proposition is drawn from theories of stress and growth discussed earlier (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Wayne et al., 2007). Conflict is traditionally seen as a threatening stressor (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964), which can bear the associated negative effects of stress, such as psychological strain, somatic complaints, and burnout (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000). Facilitation, on the other hand, is seen as an opportunity for growth (Grzywacz, Carlson, Kacmar, & Wayne, 2007), with the benefits that personal growth entails, such as increased self-motivation and mental health (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

An examination of past research at the facet level reveals a consistent pattern of relations with various aspects of well-being. For example, meta-analytic estimates indicate that work-to-family and family-to-work conflicts are negatively related to job, marital, and family satisfaction (Ford et al., 2007; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005), whereas work-to-family and family-to-work facilitations are positively related to job, marital, and family satisfaction (e.g., Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Hill, 2005; Sumer & Knight, 2001; van Steenbergen et al., 2007; Wayne et al., 2004). Work-to-family and family-to-work facilitation are also related to individual stress (Hill, 2005) and global psychological well-being (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006).

The dominant theoretical model regarding the combined effects of conflict and facilitation is that they are independent and additive (e.g., Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Frone (2003), for example, argued that work-life balance is a lack of conflict in conjunction with the presence of facilitation. According to this additive model, conflict and facilitation are orthogonal constructs,

rather than opposite ends of a continuum, and they make separate contributions to feelings of well-being. The contribution of conflict is negative, and the contribution of facilitation is positive. Available evidence supports this model (e.g., Butler, 2007; van Steenbergen et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005; Wayne et al., 2004).²

On the basis of this consistent pattern of results at the facet level, we propose that propensities to experience conflict and facilitation should also be related to well-being. We believe that dispositional conflict and facilitation are particularly strongly related to aspects of well-being that cross domain boundaries, rather than to those that are domain specific. This is consistent with the top-down view of well-being, which holds that individuals have a general propensity to react to events and circumstances in positive or negative ways, thus affecting their overall well-being. Congruent with this top-down approach, we focus on life satisfaction as a general outcome of the tendencies to experience interrole conflict and facilitation. This seems to be the most parsimonious way to measure overall life functioning, consistent with Diener's (2000) assertion that satisfaction is a central aspect of well-being.

We propose that dispositional conflict is negatively related to life satisfaction and that dispositional facilitation is positively related to life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6A: Dispositional conflict is negatively related to life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6B: Dispositional facilitation is positively related to life satisfaction.

Method

We conducted two studies, each of which measured interrole conflict and facilitation among individuals who were engaged in three roles. Hypotheses related to coping and life satisfaction were tested only in Study 2. Participants and procedures for each study are described next. The same measures of interrole conflict and facilitation were used in both studies.

Participants and Procedures

Study 1. Participants were 193 individuals (56% female, 44% male) engaged in three roles: work, family, and school. They ranged from 18 to 30 years of age ($M = 20.40$, $SD = 1.82$) and worked in a variety of companies (e.g., banks, restaurants, and retail outlets). We classified their jobs according to the National Occupational Classification categories from Human Resources and Skills Development Canada: sales and service (46%), business, finance, and administration (34%), social sciences, education, government services, and religion (7%), art, culture, recreation, and sport (4%), management (3%), and others (7%). Participants worked an average of 19.05 hours per week ($SD = 13.78$). Of participants, 79% were pursuing a university degree full-time; 21%

² Another model, which has been explored in only one case, posits that conflict and facilitation are interactively related to well-being. Grzywacz and Bass (2003) argued on the basis of a stress-buffering hypothesis that facilitation might reduce the negative effects of conflict. They found support for this hypothesis for only one out of three outcomes that were examined.

were part-time university students. Of participants, 10% were responsible for at least one dependent. Participants self-identified as Asian (59%), South Asian (24%), Caucasian (13%), Middle Eastern (3%), and Latin American (1%); on the basis of the population of the institution where the data were collected, the majority were Canadian citizens.

Participants were recruited from a subject pool in the Department of Management of a Canadian university. Participation was voluntary and involved completing one paper-and-pencil questionnaire. Participants signed a consent form and received a 1% course bonus mark.

Study 2. Participants were 284 individuals (60% female, 39% male, 1% unreported) again engaged in the roles of work, family, and school. They ranged from 17 to 31 years of age ($M = 20.41$, $SD = 1.79$) and worked in a variety of different organizations (e.g., ScotiaBank, Toyota Canada, Deloitte, Kraft Canada, etc.). We classified their jobs according to the same classification used in Study 1: business, finance, and administration (47%), sales and service (26%), social sciences, education, government services, and religion (16%), management (3%), art, culture, recreation, and sport (3%), and others (5%). Participants worked an average of 27.68 hours per week ($SD = 13.95$). Of participants, 74% were pursuing a university degree full-time; 17% were involved in their studies part-time (8% did not respond). Of participants, 8% were responsible for at least one dependent. Participants self-identified as Chinese (61%), South Asian (19%), Southeast Asian (8%), Caucasian (5%), and others (7%), although the majority were likely Canadian citizens.

Participants for Study 2 were recruited from the same university as those for Study 1. An email invitation was sent to all students completing the undergraduate management degree (~1,300). The email explained that (a) participation was voluntary, (b) participants had to be working and going to school at the same time, (c) the study involved two surveys 1 month apart, and (d) compensation would be in the form of a gift certificate to a local retailer. A total of 540 individuals responded to the first survey (a response rate of 42%). One month later, we sent a second email to those who completed Survey 1 and invited them to complete Survey 2. A response rate of 61% was obtained (331 respondents). Of those who responded to both surveys, 284 remained in the same jobs, and they were retained for data analyses. Conditions of participation for Study 2 were explained on the survey website, and participants indicated their consent to participate by clicking a consent button.

Measures

The response scale for all variables was a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Internal consistencies for the conflict and facilitation facets ranged from .78 to .93 across the three surveys. Internal consistencies for coping styles and life satisfaction appear on the diagonal of Table 1.

Work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Conflicts between work and family were assessed with scales developed by Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996). Both scales contain five items (work-to-family conflict, e.g., “Being involved in my job makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities,” and

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistency Reliabilities, and Correlations (Study 2)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Dispositional conflict at T1 ^a	3.05	0.61	[.94]											
2. Dispositional conflict at T2 ^a	2.99	0.65	.71***	[.96]										
3. Dispositional facilitation at T1 ^b	3.25	0.67	-.09	-.05	[.95]									
4. Dispositional facilitation at T2 ^b	3.28	0.63	-.07	-.01	.63***	[.95]								
5. Problem coping at T1	3.80	0.46	-.02	.01	.25***	.11	[.69]							
6. Problem coping at T2	3.75	0.47	-.11	-.06	.24***	.27***	.64***	[.76]						
7. Emotion coping at T1	3.60	0.57	-.02	-.08	.14*	.12*	.23***	.13*	[.69]					
8. Emotion coping at T2	3.50	0.52	-.02	-.08	.20**	.17**	.21***	.30***	.63***	[.69]				
9. Avoidance coping at T1	2.60	0.69	.29***	.23***	-.00	-.06	-.29***	-.30***	-.06	.02	[.67]			
10. Avoidance coping at T2	2.71	0.69	.26***	.28***	-.07	-.03	-.24***	-.27***	.00	.00	.72***	[.76]		
11. Life satisfaction at T1	3.07	0.85	-.19**	-.23***	.25***	.12*	-.13*	.19**	.11	.21***	-.19***	-.20**	[.85]	
12. Life satisfaction at T2	3.19	0.80	-.17**	-.17**	.10	.16*	.10	.23***	.04	.11	-.21***	-.20**	.76***	[.85]

Note. $N = 284$. Response scales ranged from 1 to 5 for all variables. Internal consistency reliabilities are reported along the diagonal. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2. ^a Reflects the unit-weighted average of the six conflict facets. ^b Reflects the unit-weighted average of the six facilitation facets. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

family-to-work conflict, e.g., "Being involved in my family life makes it difficult to fulfill my responsibilities on the job").

Work-to-family facilitation and family-to-work facilitation. Facilitations of work and family were assessed with three items developed by Kirchmeyer (1992; work-to-family facilitation, e.g., "Being involved in my job develops skills in me that are useful at home," and family-to-work facilitation, e.g., "Being involved in my family develops skills in me that are useful at work").

School-to-family conflict and family-to-school conflict. Conflicts between school and family were assessed with modified versions of the five-item scales measuring work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict (e.g., "Being involved in my family life interferes with my student-related activities").

School-to-family facilitation and family-to-school facilitation. Facilitations of school and family were assessed with modified versions of the three-item scales measuring work-to-family facilitation and family-to-work facilitation (e.g., "Being involved in my family life develops skills that are useful at school").

School-to-work conflict and work-to-school conflict. Conflicts between school and work were assessed with modified versions of the five-item work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict scales (e.g., "Being involved in my studies at school interferes with my job-related activities").

School-to-work facilitation and work-to-school facilitation. Facilitations of school and work were assessed with modified versions of the three-item scales measuring work-to-family facilitation and family-to-work facilitation (e.g., "Being involved in my job develops skills that are useful at school").

Life satisfaction. Satisfaction with life was assessed in Study 2 with the five-item Satisfaction With Life Scale (Pavot & Diener, 1993; e.g., "I am satisfied with my life").

Coping. Items from the Ways of Coping Scale (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980, 1985) were used in Study 2 to measure coping styles. Three coping styles were assessed: problem oriented (seven items; e.g., "I make a plan of action and follow it"), emotion oriented (seven items; e.g., "I talk to someone about how I am feeling"), and avoidance oriented (seven items; e.g., "I avoid being with people in general"). Consistent with the dispositional coping perspective, respondents were asked about the strategies they typically use when facing stressors. As shown in Table 1, the internal consistency reliabilities for the coping scales ranged from .67 to .76.

Results

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Study 1. Means for the conflict and facilitation facets in Study 1 ranged from 2.38 to 3.48 (*SDs* from .81 to .94). Consistent with our higher order model, facets of conflict (i.e., work-to-family, family-to-work, school-to-work, work-to-school, family-to-school, and school-to-family conflict) were positively correlated with one another ($r = .34$ to $.61$, $p < .001$ in all cases), as were facets of facilitation (i.e., work-to-family, family-to-work, school-to-work, work-to-school, family-to-school, and school-to-family facilitation; $r = .27$ to $.67$, $p < .001$ in all cases). Conflict facets were not related to facilitation facets, and a dispositional conflict variable (computed by averaging all of the conflict facets; $\alpha = .94$, $M = 2.83$, $SD = 0.65$) was not related ($r = .05$, *ns*) to a dispositional

facilitation variable (also computed by averaging all relevant facets; $\alpha = .90$, $M = 3.32$, $SD = 0.59$).

Study 2. Descriptives and correlations appear in Table 1. Means for conflict and facilitation facets in Study 2 ranged from 2.46 to 3.60 (*SDs* from .70 to .92). Intercorrelations among conflict facets ranged from $r = .28$ to $.72$ ($p < .001$ in all cases); for facilitation, the range was from $r = .31$ to $.80$ ($p < .001$ in all cases). Consistent with Study 1, conflict facets were not related to facilitation facets, and the computed dispositional conflict and facilitation variables were not related to one another (Time 1: $r = -.09$, *ns*, and Time 2: $r = -.01$, *ns*). Dispositional conflict and facilitation had high internal consistency reliabilities ($\alpha = .94$ to $\alpha = .96$).

The Hierarchical Structure of Interrole Conflict and Facilitation

We used hierarchical confirmatory factor analysis with AMOS (Byrne, 2006) to test the extent to which conflict and facilitation are hierarchically structured (Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2). Hierarchical confirmatory factor analysis allows tests of a priori first-order factors and higher order models (Marsh, 1987). In this research, first-order factors are conflict and facilitation facets, and second-order factors are the hypothesized superordinate dispositional conflict and facilitation constructs.

Figure 1 depicts the models to be tested. All models included the 48-item set of conflict and facilitation scales. Each item was allowed to load only on its intended facet or factor. First, we tested the extent to which first- and second-order models fit the data for each data set separately (Study 1; Study 2, Time 1; Study 2, Time 2). Second, we performed tests of model invariance with the two data sets from Study 2. For all analyses, maximum likelihood estimation procedures were used, and four indices were used to assess model fit: the chi-square index, the comparative fit index (CFI), the nonnormed fit index (NNFI), and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA). The CFI and NNFI vary from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating better fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004). RMSEA values between .05 and .08 indicate reasonable fit, and values below .05 indicate close fit (Kline, 2004). The power of these analyses exceeded .80 (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). To compare the first and second-order models, we computed Marsh and Hocevar's (1985) target coefficient (T). T ranges from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating that the higher order model demonstrates an acceptable fit. The target coefficient is useful because the fit of higher order models generally cannot exceed that of a first-order multidimensional model in which all first-order facets are allowed to covary (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). High T values indicate that the fit of higher order models is not markedly lower than the relevant first-order model, providing support for the higher order model on the basis of greater parsimony (Marsh, 1987). To evaluate the practical implications of higher order solutions, we also computed the proportion of residual variance in the facets unaccounted for by the higher order factors and the percentage of extracted variance accounted for by the higher order factors. According to Gorsuch (1983), higher order factors are of interest if they contribute more than 40% of the extracted variance.

We first tested a first-order multidimensional model that included the six facets of facilitation, all of which were allowed to

intercorrelate, and the six facets of conflict, all of which were allowed to intercorrelate. The fit of this model was good (see Table 2). Item loadings ranged from .44 to .93 ($p < .01$ in all cases) across all data sets, suggesting that the items represented their intended constructs (Bagozzi & Yi, 1989). Intercorrelations among the latent facilitation facets were significant across all data sets (average $r = .52$) as were intercorrelations among the latent conflict facets (average $r = .53$). The second model that we tested was a unidimensional model, in which all items loaded on one factor. As indicated in Table 2, the multidimensional model was a better fit to the data than the unidimensional model. This suggests that our first-order structure was well defined, making it possible to proceed to tests of higher order models.

The purpose of testing higher order models is to determine whether covariation among the first-order facets can be explained by one or more higher order factors. We tested a series of second-order models to examine this hypothesis (see Figure 1). In all cases, correlations between the first-order factors are constrained to be zero because these relations are deemed to be explained by the higher order factors (Marsh, Ellis, & Craven, 2002).

The first higher order model that we tested was the hypothesized dispositional model. This model included a dispositional facilitation factor that influenced the six facets of facilitation and a dispositional conflict factor that influenced the six facets of conflict (see Figure 1). We also tested three alternative hierarchical models on the basis of the notion that domains (e.g., work, school, and family) may also represent higher order factors that affect conflict and facilitation facets (see Figure 1: influence, influenced, and general domain models). This seemed reasonable to us on the basis of our argument that facets of conflict and facilitation are influenced by factors within the relevant domains; thus, some of the covariance between facets may be explained by domain factors. Further, we tested a model in which both dispositional and domain-based higher order factors were included. This model was

a combination of the dispositional model and the general domain model; it most closely represents our belief that facets of conflict and facilitation are affected by dispositional and domain-based factors. Within this model, we can make some comparisons of the amount of variance in the facets that is accounted for by dispositions versus domains.

Results are presented in Table 2. Across all data sets, the dispositional model provided an acceptable fit to the data and was better than the three domain-based models. In comparison with the (first-order) multidimensional model, the dispositional model revealed little or no difference in fit across the data sets, as indicated by the fit indices and target coefficients. Factor loadings for the dispositional model are shown in Table 3. The dispositional conflict and facilitation factors explained from 45% to 58% of the total variance in the model, providing evidence that the hierarchy is strong (Gorsuch, 1983). Correspondingly, there was relatively little unexplained variance in the first-order facets once the dispositional factors were included in the model (percentage of unexplained variance = 6% to 18%). These findings provide empirical and practical support for the hypothesized dispositional model, which is very close in fit to the multidimensional model but is preferred on the basis of parsimony. The combined dispositional and general domain model also provided a good fit to the data (see Table 3). This model provides additional support for the dispositional model, however, in that the dispositional conflict and facilitation factors explained a higher proportion of variance in the facets (percentage of explained variance = 50% to 53%) than did the three domains (percentage of explained variance = 15% to 23%).

As a final step in the hierarchical analyses, we conducted an invariance test to see if the hypothesized structure was equivalent for the repeated measures of conflict and facilitation in Study 2. We did this by estimating the fit of the hypothesized model simultaneously for both data sets and comparing the fit of an

Table 2
Structure of Interrole Conflict and Facilitation

Structure	χ^2_a	<i>df</i>	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA	<i>T</i>
Study 1 data						
First-order models						
Multidimensional model	1,634.3	1038	.90	.90	.05	—
Unidimensional model	4,493.1	1068	.45	.44	.11	—
Higher order models						
Dispositional model	1,768.0	1056	.88	.89	.05	.92
Influence model	2,366.7	1056	.79	.79	.07	.69
Influenced model	2,395.4	1056	.79	.78	.07	.68
General domain model	1,828.7	1044	.88	.87	.06	.89
Dispositional/domain model	1,609.5	1033	.91	.91	.05	1.00
Study 2 data, Time 1 ^b						
First-order models						
Multidimensional model	1,793.9	1038	.93	.93	.05	—
Unidimensional model	8,012.8	1068	.34	.35	.15	—
Higher order models						
Dispositional model	1,916.9	1056	.92	.92	.05	.94
Influence model	2,637.9	1056	.85	.85	.07	.68
Influenced model	2,819.9	1056	.83	.83	.08	.64
General domain model	2,179.5	1044	.89	.89	.06	.82
Dispositional/domain model	1,790.8	1035	.93	.93	.05	1.00

Note. CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = nonnormed fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation.

^a All of the chi-square values are significant at $p < .001$. ^b Results of Study 2, Time 2, follow the same pattern; details are available on request.

Table 3
Factor Loadings for the Hypothesized Dispositional Model of Conflict and Facilitation

First-order factor	Higher order factor					
	Dispositional conflict			Dispositional facilitation		
	Study 1	Study 2, Time 1	Study 2, Time 2	Study 1	Study 2, Time 1	Study 2, Time 2
WFC	.75	.77	.84			
FWC	.81	.68	.80			
SWC	.75	.66	.80			
WSC	.66	.67	.72			
FSC	.73	.62	.71			
SFC	.72	.63	.66			
WFF				.81	.67	.87
FWF				.83	.88	.71
SWF				.75	.53	.57
WSF				.85	.61	.70
FSF				.66	.85	.54
SFF				.59	.70	.76
% FO residual variance	7	12	12	6	18	12
% HO explained variance	55	45	58	57	49	49

Note. Standardized coefficients are presented. WFC = work-to-family conflict; FWC = family-to-work conflict; SWC = school-to-work conflict; WSC = work-to-school conflict; FSC = family-to-school conflict; SFC = school-to-family conflict; WFF = work-to-family facilitation; FWF = family-to-work facilitation; SWF = school-to-work facilitation; WSF = work-to-school facilitation; FSF = family-to-school facilitation; SFF = school-to-family facilitation; % FO residual variance = the percentage of reliable variance in the first-order factors that is not explained by the dispositional factors; % HO explained variance = the percentage of variance explained by the dispositional factors.

unconstrained model to models in which (a) the measurement weights were constrained to be equal and (b) both measurement and structural weights were constrained to be equal. Both the constrained and unconstrained models fit the data well, and no significant reduction in fit was observed when the constraints were added, $\Delta\chi^2(12) = 7.2, ns$; $\Delta\chi^2(22) = 18.6, ns$. This suggests that the hypothesized dispositional model was equivalent at Times 1 and 2 in Study 2. Taken together, these results provide support for Hypotheses 1 and 2, and we conclude that the hypothesized dispositional model is acceptable.

Relations of Dispositional Conflict and Facilitation With Coping Styles and Life Satisfaction

Relations of dispositional conflict and facilitation with coping styles and life satisfaction were examined with data from Study 2. Prior to testing any causal models, we estimated a full measurement model that included all of the manifest indicators to establish the structure of the variables (cf. Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). This model was an acceptable fit, $\chi^2(980) = 1,549.9$; CFI = .91, NNFI = .92, RMSEA = .05, with item loadings ranging from .47 to .86 ($p < .001$ in all cases). We also tested a measurement model that included a common factor. This model was also an acceptable fit to the data, $\chi^2(978) = 1,549.2$; CFI = .92, NNFI = .92, RMSEA = .05, but did not improve the fit that was obtained from the measurement model alone, $\Delta\chi^2(2) = .07, ns$.

We tested Hypotheses 3 through 6 by comparing the fit of several synchronous and lagged structural models with AMOS (see Figure 2). We followed the approach recommended by Frese and colleagues (i.e., Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007; Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996). The power of these analyses exceeded .80 (MacCallum et al., 1996). A key aspect of the approach taken is that all models included stability paths for each variable across the two time

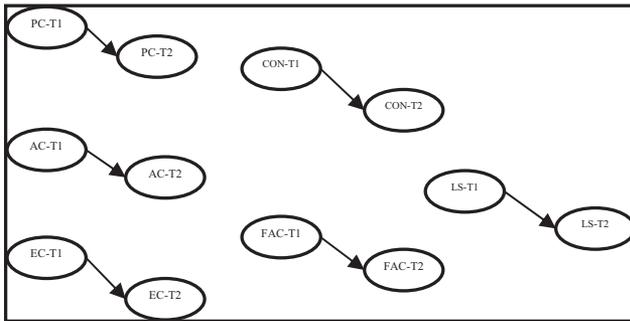
periods. Further, all models allowed correlations between the Time 1 variables. Findings are presented in Table 4. In addition to reporting the chi-square, CFI, NNFI, and RMSEA, we include the Akaike information criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1974) to facilitate comparisons of models that have the same degrees of freedom (Zapf et al., 1996). For the AIC, lower values indicate better fit.

The first model we tested was the baseline stability model (see Figure 2), to which all of the proceeding models are compared. This model assumes that the only cause of each variable at Time 2 is the variable itself at Time 1. This model was an acceptable fit to the data (see Table 4). Consistent with our theoretical approach, coping styles were relatively stable over time (stability paths = .85 to .88), as were dispositional conflict and facilitation (stability paths = .75 and .76, respectively). Life satisfaction was also stable (stability path = .87).

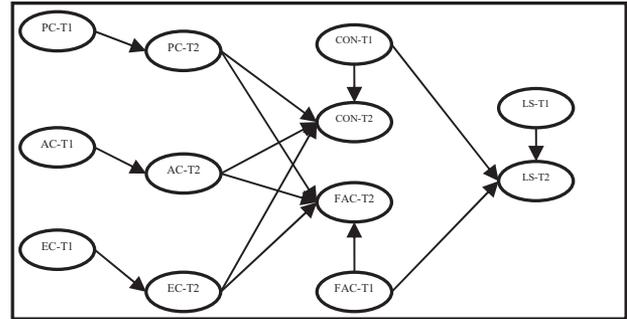
Next, we examined a series of synchronous (within time) and lagged (across time) models to test the theoretical idea that coping styles are antecedent to dispositional conflict and facilitation, which are antecedent to life satisfaction, and to get a sense of the temporal process through which these relations unfold (see Figure 2). Each of the models included all of the paths from the baseline stability model; thus, any effects of a prior variable on itself are accounted for. As shown in Table 4, Models 2 through 5 all represented an adequate fit to the data on the basis of the CFI and RMSEA and had a stronger fit than the baseline stability model. Of these four models, the model with the lowest AIC value was Model 3—the mixed synchronous lagged model.

We tested eight additional models to ascertain most accurately the nature of the relations between coping and life satisfaction (Models 6–13). Models 6 through 9 included direct effects from coping to life satisfaction, as well as the indirect effects through conflict and facilitation. Models 10 through 13 included feedback

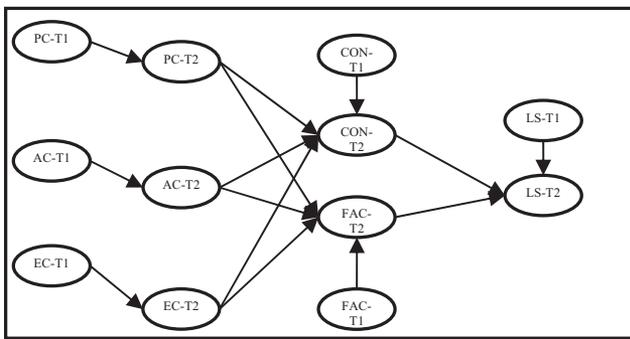
1. Baseline Stability Model



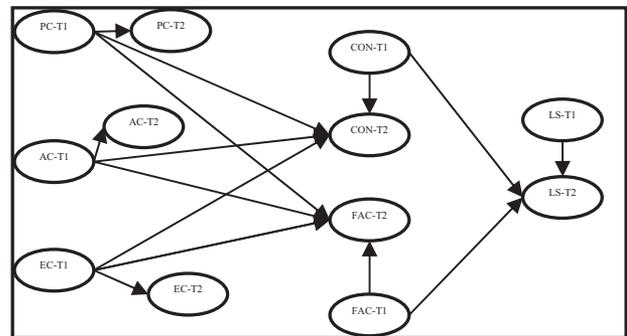
4. Mixed Synchronous Lagged



2. Fully Synchronous Model



5. Fully Lagged



3. Mixed Lagged Synchronous

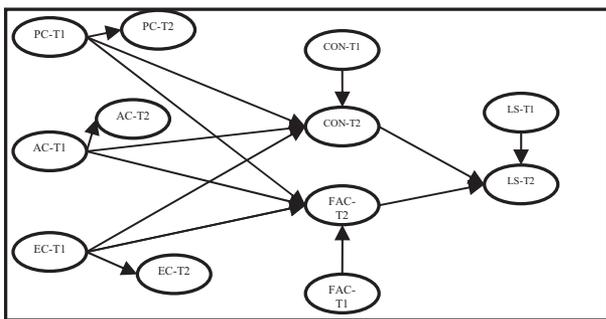


Figure 2. Synchronous and lagged longitudinal models of coping, conflict, facilitation, and life satisfaction. Also included in all models, although not drawn, are covariances between all variables at T1. One exception is that no covariance path was included between dispositional conflict and dispositional facilitation at T1 on the basis of past research showing no relations at the facet level. PC = problem coping; AC = avoidance coping; EC = emotional coping; T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; CON = dispositional conflict; FAC = dispositional facilitation; LS = life satisfaction.

loops from life satisfaction to coping (they did not include direct paths from coping to life satisfaction). These models represented an adequate fit to the data, and each model with a feedback loop or with direct paths represented a better fit to the data than the corresponding model with neither (see Table 4). A comparison of the models revealed that the model with the lowest AIC value was

the synchronous lagged model with feedback loop (Model 12). In this model, the relations of coping styles with conflict and facilitation tendencies occurred without delay, whereas the relations of conflict and facilitation tendencies and life satisfaction occurred following a 1-month delay. Further, a lagged feedback loop was also present, whereby life satisfaction and coping styles

Table 4
Longitudinal Models of Relations Among Coping, Conflict, Facilitation, and Life Satisfaction (Study 2)

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA	AIC	$\Delta\chi^2$
Comparison model							
1. Baseline stability model	1,680.7	1025	.90	.89	.05	1,982.7	—
Initial models							
2. Fully synchronous	1,654.7	1014	.91	.89	.05	1,978.7	26.0, $p < .05$
3. Mixed lagged synchronous	1,651.1	1014	.90	.89	.05	1,988.5	16.2, $p < .05$
4. Mixed synchronous lagged	1,664.5	1014	.91	.90	.05	1,975.1	29.6, $p < .05$
5. Fully lagged	1,662.5	1014	.90	.89	.05	1,986.5	18.2, $p < .05$
Models with direct effects							
6. Fully synchronous with direct	1,643.1	1011	.91	.90	.05	1,973.1	11.6, $p < .05$
7. Mixed lagged synchronous with direct	1,651.8	1011	.91	.89	.05	1,981.8	12.7, $p < .05$
8. Mixed synchronous lagged with direct	1,640.2	1011	.91	.90	.05	1,970.2	10.9, $p < .05$
9. Fully lagged with direct	1,651.7	1011	.91	.89	.05	1,981.7	10.8, $p < .05$
Models with feedback loops							
10. Fully synchronous with feedback	1,632.7	1011	.91	.90	.05	1,962.7	22.0, $p < .05$
11. Mixed lagged synchronous with feedback	1,646.4	1011	.91	.90	.05	1,976.5	18.1, $p < .05$
12. Mixed synchronous lagged with feedback	1,629.5	1011	.91	.90	.05	1,959.5	21.6, $p < .05$
13. Fully lagged with feedback	1,644.0	1011	.91	.90	.05	1,974.0	18.5, $p < .05$

Note. $\Delta\chi^2$ for Models 2–5 refers to comparisons with the baseline stability model; $\Delta\chi^2$ for Models 6–13 refers to comparisons with the relevant initial model. Model 12 was selected as the best fit to the data and is presented in boldface. CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI = nonnormed fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; AIC = Akaike information criterion.

were reciprocally related (albeit indirectly through dispositional conflict and facilitation for the coping as antecedent and life satisfaction as consequence direction). Model 12 had acceptable fit, and was selected as the best fit to the data on the basis of all of the criteria that we considered.

Following the recommendations of Frese et al. (2007), we also tested a series of 12 reverse-causation models, in which life satisfaction was set as an antecedent to dispositional conflict and facilitation, which were set as antecedents to coping styles. The 12 reverse-causation models parallel the 13 models described earlier but in the opposite direction. Each of these models was an adequate fit to the data and was significantly better than the baseline model, but none of these models provided a fit superior to that of the mixed synchronous lagged model with feedback loop (Model 12).³

On the basis of these results, we adopted Model 12 as the final model. The complete results for this model are presented in Figure 3. Consistent with our hypotheses, problem and emotion coping were positively related to facilitation tendencies (Hypotheses 3B and 4B, respectively). In contrast to our predictions, problem coping was positively related to conflict tendencies (disconfirming Hypothesis 3A), and avoidance coping was negatively related to conflict tendencies (disconfirming Hypothesis 5A). Also in contrast to the hypotheses, emotion coping was not related to conflict (disconfirming Hypothesis 4B), and avoidance coping was not related to facilitation (disconfirming Hypothesis 5B). The fact that observed relations were synchronous suggests that the relations between coping styles and conflict and facilitation tendencies occur with little delay.

With respect to life satisfaction, we observed that tendencies to experience conflict were negatively related to life satisfaction, as predicted (Hypothesis 6A). The fact that the observed relation was lagged suggests that it takes some time before dispositional conflict tendencies decrease a person's life satisfaction. In contrast to Hypothesis 6B, we did not observe any relations between dispositional facilitation and life satisfaction.

Discussion

Our research tested a dispositional model of interrole conflict and facilitation. We also examined how individuals cope with holding multiple life roles and how their propensities to experience conflict and facilitation are related to overall well-being. Our results reinforce the notion that participation in multiple life roles can be stressful because it fosters conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; van Steenbergen et al., 2007) and the notion that such participation presents an opportunity for growth by promoting interrole facilitation (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz et al., 2007). We found that coping styles are related to conflict and facilitation tendencies and that the tendency to experience conflict is negatively related to well-being. This latter finding is consistent with much past research showing the detrimental effects of conflict processes (e.g., Allen et al., 2000). This research extends past work on conflict and facilitation to the role of student, demonstrating the generalizability of these processes beyond the domains of work and family.

This study contributes to existing theories in three ways. First, consistent with our hypotheses, we demonstrated that interrole conflict and facilitation can be conceptualized as superordinate constructs. This suggests that individuals may indeed have propensities to experience conflict and facilitation when they occupy multiple roles, irrespective of the roles they occupy at any given time. These tendencies seem to affect specific instances of conflict and facilitation, providing one reason for observed correlations between conflict facets (e.g., Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; van Steenbergen et al., 2007). This is an important contribution, because it suggests that meaningful models of conflict and facilitation can be formed to address holistic questions about individuals' functioning and well-being.

³ These results are available on request.

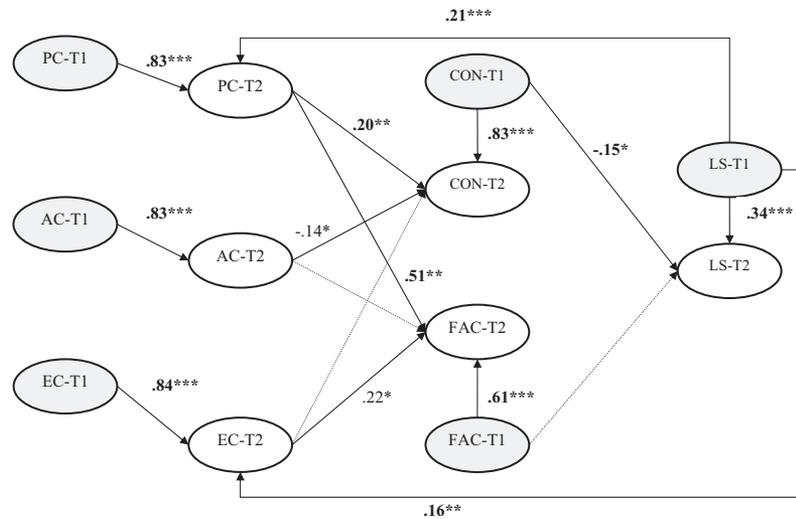


Figure 3. Final mixed synchronous lagged model with feedback loop. Also included, although not drawn, are covariances between all variables at T1. One exception is that no covariance path was included between dispositional conflict and dispositional facilitation at T1 on the basis of past research showing no relations at the facet level. PC = problem coping; AC = avoidance coping; EC = emotional coping; T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; CON = dispositional conflict; FAC = dispositional facilitation; LS = life satisfaction. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Our second contribution is that we add to the small number of studies that have examined personal characteristics in relation to conflict and facilitation (e.g., Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Wayne et al., 2007), and we show that such individual differences can play a broader and more coherent role than previously thought. Confirming our hypotheses, we found that problem and emotion coping styles were positively related to facilitation tendencies. This is consistent with research demonstrating other positive outcomes associated with problem coping (e.g., Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986; Zeidner, 1995) and with theories espousing the value of emotion coping for growth and development (e.g., Wayne et al., 2007). We also found that problem coping was positively related to conflict tendencies and that avoidance coping was negatively related to conflict tendencies. These findings are surprising given that problem coping is aimed at directly minimizing stressful encounters, whereas avoidance coping is aimed at ignoring them. Although one past study has found a similar result for problem coping (Aryee et al., 1999), these results are inconsistent with most studies of both problem coping (e.g., Burke, 1998; Rotundo et al., 2003) and avoidance coping (Burke, 1998; Rovira et al., 2005; Zeidner, 1995). Perhaps, as suggested by Higgins, Duxbury, and Lyons (2008), individuals who attempt to cope by doing more (an active problem-oriented strategy) experience diminishing returns for their efforts. Rather than experiencing reduced conflict, it may be that their extra efforts take even more time away from other roles, thus increasing their tendency to experience conflicts. It could also be that individuals who have the tendency to experience more conflict have the need to engage in more problem coping, creating a positive relation between the two. Thus, this result may reflect the reciprocal nature of the relation between coping styles and conflict tendencies. In the case of avoidance, it could be that disengaging

from stressful roles temporarily may actually help. Short-term avoidance may allow people an opportunity to recover the energy needed to engage more fully in different roles over the long term (e.g., Sonnentag et al., 2008). The robustness of these findings deserves further investigation.

Our third contribution is that we look at conflict and facilitation processes longitudinally, providing new information about how these processes unfold within individuals over time. We found that relations between coping styles and propensities to experience conflict and facilitation are concurrent; in other words, coping styles seem to have a relatively immediate relation with dispositional conflict and facilitation. This suggests that these two sets of variables are proximal to one another in the nomological network of dispositional constructs. In the case of conflict and life satisfaction, we found that the relation was lagged; in other words, it takes some time before the propensity to experience conflict translates into how a person feels about his or her life. This may be connected to the dynamic equilibrium model of well-being, which holds that individuals tend to have relatively stable equilibrium levels of life satisfaction (Heady & Wearing, 1989). Thus, it may take some time for conflict experiences to disrupt that stability.

Future Research

An unexpected finding was that facilitation was not related to life satisfaction. This is surprising given the purported benefits of facilitation. One possibility could be that facilitation acts as a buffer against the negative effects of conflict, rather than having a direct effect on well-being. One study has found support for this kind of interactive effect at the facet level (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003). We tested this possibility in our data but did not find any evidence to support it. Another possibility could be that disposi-

tional facilitation is related to other aspects of well-being (e.g., emotional health, immune system functioning, and/or life expectancy). Future research could examine such consequences, which would hopefully support the theory that facilitation has a downstream positive effect.

Another avenue for future research is to test our model in a broader population, where work and family roles may have higher centrality than was the case with our primarily young, student-focused sample. Both of our samples were drawn from the same population of working university students, and this may limit the generalizability of our results. We are cautiously optimistic that our overall structural model will cross-validate in other populations because the underlying relations among coping, conflict, facilitation, and life satisfaction, which are based on the top-down view of well-being, should not depend on the particular roles that an individual occupies at a given life stage.

Implications

It could be inferred from our research that individuals should pay special attention to the coping styles that they adopt. For example, individuals may need to be aware that problem-focused coping can play both a facilitative and a debilitating role. Perhaps overreliance on problem-focused coping, in which individuals are constantly on task trying to get things done, results in growth from role engagement but also in an inability to disengage from role stressors. Individuals may become so focused on trying to solve problems that they are unable to extricate themselves from the problems they are trying to solve. Such focused engagement in different life roles may encourage people to blur the boundaries that they have between various life domains, which may be a trigger for increased interrole conflict (Hecht & Allen, 2009; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2006). The fact that avoidance coping was negatively related to conflict supports this possibility, because it suggests that having a tendency to engage in activities that disassociate oneself from stressors can help. Benefits of specific tactics that have been labeled *avoidant*, such as getting enough sleep and participating in leisure activities, have been found in research that has focused on the work-recovery process (e.g., Trougakos, Beal, Green, & Weiss, 2008).

Another practical implication of this work is that individuals should try to minimize the level of interrole conflict that they experience. Although others have made similar recommendations, our results indicate that having a dispositional tendency to experience conflicts can disrupt and decrease individuals' life satisfaction. Our study found that taking time out to recharge can help, but this may not be enough. Individuals who want to engage in multiple roles may find that the demands of these roles can conflict with one another, and it is important to learn how to reduce such conflicts to promote optimal functioning. Past research has shown that autonomy, particularly in the work domain, can help (e.g., Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Valcour, 2007). Perceived flexibility can also help. It can reduce role overload (e.g., Higgins et al., 2008) and has other positive benefits, such as increased satisfaction and decreased withdrawal (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999). Further, research on work design has shown that job characteristics are related to the amount of conflict experienced between work and other roles (e.g., Butler, Grzywacz, Bass, & Linney, 2005; Dierdorff & Ellington, 2008). Extrapolating from

these findings, it could be that individuals should seek to participate in roles that offer positive design characteristics to decrease the negative effects of having too many role demands. Choosing roles on the basis of enjoyment, rather than external pressures, should also help (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Senécal, Vallerand, & Guay, 2001).

Limitations

It is important to acknowledge that our sample included few full-time employees with dependent care responsibilities. We agree that we did not target a population with those characteristics, but we are cautiously optimistic that our results can be applied more generally for the reasons noted earlier. Second, the internal consistency reliabilities for the coping scales were slightly lower than the traditionally accepted cutoff of .70, which may be interpreted as an indication of measurement error. The observed reliabilities are consistent with past research (e.g., Folkman et al., 1986) and may reflect the dispositional and situational nature of this construct. Although we were interested in dispositional coping, individuals' reports of coping styles may also be affected by situational factors. Reliabilities may also be attenuated by the fact that different coping tactics within a style can serve as substitutes for one another, and it is not necessary to engage in all of them at once.

A third criticism of our research could be that we do not have the methodological rigor to make strong causal conclusions. We tried to minimize concerns regarding causality by gathering longitudinal data, including autoregressive effects in our models, and by testing a series of 12 reverse-causation models (Zapf et al., 1996). Still, there may be reciprocal relations between coping, conflict, facilitation, and life satisfaction, and a stronger research design, including more than two measurement times, would be required to fully elucidate these relations. The autoregressive effects in our models may also have been due, in part, to stability in participants' situations from one survey to the next.

Conclusion

We conclude that individuals have dispositional tendencies to experience interrole conflict and facilitation and that these tendencies may affect the extent to which they experience conflict and facilitation between specific roles in which they are engaged. This finding is important because it suggests that conflict and facilitation can be modeled in a more holistic way than has been done in the past. It also suggests that facets of conflict and facilitation may share some common underlying antecedents. Our research shows that coping is one such variable. We find that coping styles are related to the extent to which individuals are disposed to experience conflict and facilitation between roles and that these relations are in close temporal proximity. Our research also reinforces the downside of having too many role demands. As in past research, we found that well-being is lower when the tendency to experience interrole conflicts is high. Extending past research, we demonstrated that there is a temporal lag attached to this effect.

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