

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

General mental ability, conscientiousness, and the work–family interface: A test of mediating pathways

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Abstract

This study proposed a model in which employee general mental ability (GMA) and conscientiousness are linked to work–family conflict and enrichment through their relationship with occupational prestige and coping styles. We evaluated this model in a sample of 709 working adults from the National Survey of Midlife Development II in the United States. Results indicate that, through occupational prestige and subsequent psychological job demands and financial well-being, GMA was related to work-to-family conflict (WFC) and family-to-work conflict (FWC). GMA was also related to work-to-family enrichment (WFE) but not family-to-work enrichment (FWE) through occupational prestige and autonomy. In contrast, conscientiousness did not influence work–family outcomes through occupational prestige. Additionally, GMA and conscientiousness were both related to WFE/FWE through problem coping, whereas conscientiousness was related to FWC through avoidance coping. Examining the relative effects of GMA and conscientiousness, we found that the indirect effects of GMA through occupational prestige were stronger than those of conscientiousness, whereas the indirect effects of conscientiousness through problem coping were stronger than those of GMA. We discuss our findings in terms of the mechanisms through which stable individual differences may exert influences on work–family outcomes.

KEYWORDS

conscientiousness, coping styles, general mental ability, occupational prestige, work–family conflict, work–family enrichment

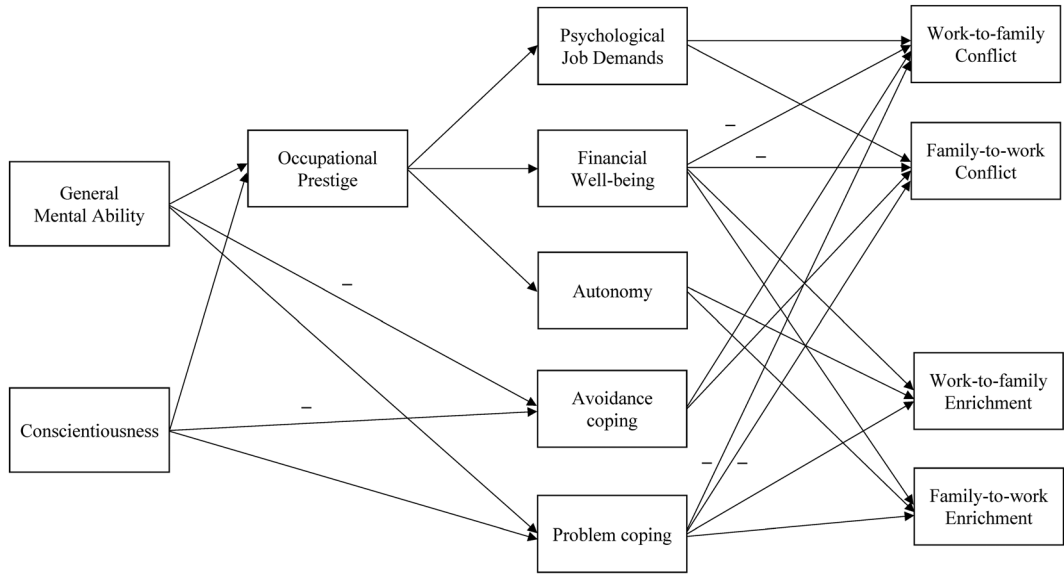
The reason you cannot have it all is not because you are ill-equipped for life or you lack talent or you don't have enough money. It is simply because one of governing principles of the universe dictates that there are an infinite number of possibilities for any day, year, or life—and every day, year, or life is finite.

— Kelly (2011)

The work and family roles of employed adults are closely intertwined, and recommendations on how to successfully fulfill these roles abound in the popular press. The ubiquitous notion of “having it all” can be traced at least as far back to Helen Gurley Brown's 1982 book *Having it All* which aimed to give career advice to working women. Brown hated the title of the book; it was chosen by her editor and she tried to have it changed (Szalai, 2015). Ironically, decades later, the title has become a dominant catchphrase in debates about navigating the work and family domains, perhaps becoming a cause of consternation for those who perceive themselves as unable, hard as they may try, to successfully manage their work–life interface. Among employed adults with families, there often exists some intuitive belief that they are lacking in some personal attribute that prevents them from “having it all.” Reflecting this sentiment, Dan Thurmon noted that people often assume that “if we work hard enough, or we're smart enough, or long enough, that we can get to this moment where it all evens out” (TEDx Talks, 2013). However, this assumption, when juxtaposed against the opening quote by Kelly, presents an interesting puzzle. On the one hand, there seems to be an intuitive belief that individual traits such as general mental ability (GMA) or work ethic can help people navigate the work–family interface. This belief may not be surprising given that GMA and conscientiousness—the broad personality trait underlying work ethic (McCrae & Costa, 1987)—have a strong positive relationship with most of the typical extrinsic measures of job and career success. Career success, in turn, may provide resources that allow individuals high on GMA and conscientiousness to effectively manage the work–family interface (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). On the other hand, anecdotal evidence suggests that even some of the most intelligent and hardworking professionals face considerable challenges when it comes to meeting both family and work needs (Ferrazzi, 2005; Hewlett, 2002; Slaughter, 2015).

Unraveling this puzzle requires an examination of whether GMA and conscientiousness are related to work–family outcomes and, more importantly, how these effects are realized. What may be surprising then is that although GMA and conscientiousness are two of the most studied constructs in organizational psychology, they are noticeably absent from work–family research even though they exert widespread influences on various work and life outcomes (e.g., Chiburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011; L.A. Clark, Kochanska, & Ready, 2000; Schmidt, Shaffer, & Oh, 2008). Instead, the work–family literature is largely dominated by a structural view that focuses on the extent to which structural antecedents such as family characteristics (e.g., family size, marital status, spousal support), job characteristics (e.g., hours spent at work, role conflict, job involvement), and organizational characteristics (e.g., organizational support, supervisor support) predict employees' work–family outcomes (Byron, 2005; Carlson et al., 2011; Frone, 2003; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Li, McCauley, & Shaffer, 2017; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011a). Although meta-analytic estimates of the associations between employee conscientiousness and their work–family outcomes are available (Allen et al., 2012), the mechanisms through which they are linked are unclear. Furthermore, our review of the literature uncovered no studies that examine whether and how GMA impacts employees' ability to manage the work–family interface.

Accordingly, our purpose in this study is to identify and test mediating mechanisms by which GMA and conscientiousness realize distal effects on employees' work–family outcomes. Efforts to simultaneously fulfill work and family roles can lead to both negative and positive outcomes (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). On the negative side, work–family conflict occurs when individuals' participation in one life domain—such as work—is made more difficult as a result of demands that must be met in the other domain—such as family (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). In contrast, work–family enrichment occurs when resources from one life domain facilitate more effective functioning in the other domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Connecting existing work–family theories (Rothbard, 2001; Voydanoff, 2004, 2005a) to research on individual differences, we test a model in which GMA and conscientiousness are associated with the work–family interface through individuals' occupational attainment (Schneider, 1987; Wilk, Desmarais, & Sackett, 1995) and their typical



Note. All hypothesized relations are positive, except where marked with a negative sign.

FIGURE 1 Proposed research model

coping tendencies (i.e., coping styles; Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010). Specifically, as shown in Figure 1, we propose that GMA and conscientiousness may simultaneously augment and diminish work–family outcomes through countervailing processes. This is because individuals high in GMA and conscientiousness are more likely to be employed in highly prestigious occupations (Judge et al., 1999) that bring with them not only more job autonomy and financial resources that can be used to reduce work–family conflict and increase work–family enrichment but also higher job demands (Gottfredson, 2002) that may increase their work–family conflict (Stawski, Almeida, Lachman, Tun, & Rosnick, 2010). Individuals higher in GMA or conscientiousness may also be more likely to engage in constructive, problem coping, and less likely to engage in ineffectual avoidance coping, thereby allowing them to experience less work–family conflict and more enrichment.

Our study contributes to the work and family literature in three major ways. First, we contribute to the understanding of the antecedents of the work–family interface beyond the predominant structural view and instead acknowledge the complicated roles GMA and conscientiousness may play in shaping the work–family interface. Wayne, Michel, and Matthews (2016) observed that researchers typically treat individual differences such as personality “as resources in and of themselves [that] act as proximal antecedents to work–family experiences” (Wayne et al., 2016, p. 70), further lamenting that “although researchers typically reference various theoretical processes by which personality...influence[s] the work–family interface, there have been few empirical efforts to test the theorized processes” (p. 75). By examining the distal roles GMA and conscientiousness play in shaping work–family conflict and enrichment, our research answers calls to identify the potential mechanisms that carry the effects of individual differences to the work–family interface (e.g., Wayne et al., 2016). Assessing the pathways through job prestige also opens the possibility that at least some of the more malleable, structural antecedents to work–family outcomes, such as autonomy and job demands, trace back to stable individual differences.

Second, by exploring the possibility that GMA and conscientiousness may simultaneously make positive contributions to career outcomes and have negative influences on the more distal work–life interface, we offer an important perspective on the unintended, negative impact these constructs may have on employee outcomes. High levels of GMA and conscientiousness have historically been assumed to share a positive relationship with desired employee outcomes in essentially all jobs in organizational research (Schmidt, 2002), but that assumption has been challenged in recent

years (Antonakis, House, & Simonton, 2017; Ferguson et al., 2014). The current study helps shed additional light on the potential dark side of presumably positive characteristics on employee outcomes.

Finally, in light of arguments suggesting that GMA may impact what a person *can* accomplish professionally given their intelligence, whereas conscientiousness may impact what a person *will* do in typical situations (Furnham & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2004), we test whether the effects of GMA on work–family outcomes will be stronger than conscientiousness through the mediating processes of occupational prestige and whether the effects of conscientiousness will be stronger than GMA through the mediating processes of coping styles. Thus, our study simultaneously considers the effects of GMA and conscientiousness on work–family outcomes, providing important insights into their *relative* effects. These insights are valuable given the recent debate about the relative effects of GMA and personality in organizational research and the relative effects of cognitive and noncognitive individual differences in general (Gonzalez-Mulé, Mount, & Oh, 2014; Schmidt & Hunter, 2004).

1 | THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

To understand how GMA and conscientiousness are related to employee work–family outcomes, we draw on the differential salience perspective (Voydanoff, 2004). The differential salience perspective is rooted in the job demands–resources model (JD-R, Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), according to which the myriad of job characteristics can be categorized as demands and resources. Within-domain work demands refer to aspects of a job that require individuals to put forth “physical and/or psychological effort” resulting in “certain physical and/or psychological cost” for these individuals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017, p. 274). Within-domain work resources refer to aspects of the job that allow individuals to meet their goals and stimulate their “personal growth, learning, and development” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017, p. 274). Demands and resources are associated with outcomes through different psychological processes. Specifically, demands are related to negative outcomes through a stress and strain framework, whereas resources are related to positive outcomes through a motivational framework (Carlson et al., 2011).

Voydanoff (2004) introduced the differential salience perspective to integrate the JD-R model with research on work–family conflict/enrichment. This perspective posits that perceived demands may cause strain and result in work–family conflict. This argument is consistent with the depletion perspective that posits that individuals experience work–family conflict when demands for resources exceed available supplies (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The differential salience perspective also suggests that the availability of resources may contribute to the experience of work–family enrichment, a position congruent with the expansion perspective that posits that engagement in one domain may generate resources that may benefit the other domain, thereby leading to work–family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Supporting the differential salience perspective, recent meta-analyses showed that demands are more strongly correlated with conflict than with enrichment, whereas resources are more strongly correlated with enrichment than with conflict (Lapierre et al., 2018; Michel et al., 2011a). The differential salience perspective also proposes a third class of predictors called boundary-spanning resources that refer to those “that directly address how work and family connect with each other” and may impact employees’ work–family interface “through interrelated processes that enhance workers’ perceived control over managing the work–family boundary” (Voydanoff, 2004, p. 401). Boundary-spanning resources impact both conflict and enrichment because they simultaneously reduce resource depletion and create enabling resources that promote positive experiences across domains (Voydanoff, 2005b, 2005a,b). Further extending the framework, Voydanoff (2005a) added another component called boundary-spanning strategies that are actions taken by individuals to address work–family needs. Individuals may utilize boundary-spanning strategies to either reduce demands (e.g., reduce work hours or limit family responsibilities) or increase resources (e.g., solicit assistance for family needs, Voydanoff, 2005a, b). Boundary-spanning strategies can be anticipatory in nature, functioning as antecedents to conflict and enrichment (Voydanoff, 2005b, p. 590). These strategies consist of behaviors that allow individuals to engage (such as creating new resources or strengthening

existing resources) or disengage (such as abandoning one's goals) their work or family goals (Hirschi, Shockley, & Zacher, 2019), which is consistent with the conceptualization of coping as a type of boundary-spanning strategy that individuals use to manage the work–family interface (Baltes, Clark, & Chakrabarti, 2010).

Thus, we propose two separate pathways that carry the effects of GMA and conscientiousness to employee work–family outcomes. In the first pathway, we propose that GMA and conscientiousness may influence employees' occupational prestige and subsequent within-work domain demands (psychological job demands), within-work domain resources (autonomy), and boundary-spanning resources (financial resources). Consistent with the differential salience perspective, these demands, resources, and boundary spanning resources may, in turn, influence work–family conflict/enrichment. In the second pathway, GMA and conscientiousness may influence employees' boundary-spanning strategies (coping styles) that, in turn, impact their work–family conflict/enrichment. Taken together, our research not only demonstrates how GMA and conscientiousness lead to desirable work–family outcomes (less conflict and more enrichment) but also uncovers paths toward unintended consequences (more conflict). Specific theoretical arguments and corresponding hypotheses are presented in the section below.

2 | HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

2.1 | The effects of GMA and conscientiousness through occupational prestige

2.1.1 | Occupational prestige

The first pathway through which GMA and conscientiousness are related to employee work–family outcomes is through employees' occupational prestige. Occupations differ from each other in terms of their informational demands. Highly prestigious occupations tend to require job incumbents to engage in complex information processing (Schmidt & Hunter, 2004). For example, they are required to gather and process a large amount of information, to anticipate potential problems, and to identify solutions to complex problems and the possible consequences of these solutions. Given that GMA encompasses “the ability to reason, plan, solve problems, think abstractly, comprehend complex ideas, learn quickly, and learn from experience” (Gottfredson, 1994, p. 13), it should be no surprise that occupational prestige is positively associated with GMA (Judge, Ilies, & Dimotakis, 2010; Murray, 1998). Conscientiousness has also been linked to occupational prestige because individuals high in conscientiousness are more achievement oriented and have higher performance on the job, which may lead to higher levels of occupational attainment (Judge et al., 1999; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007).

These findings are consistent with the person-fit logic that suggests that although most people have considerable freedom to choose the type of situations they enter, they tend to gravitate toward situations that allow them to express their personality traits and abilities (Schneider, 1987; Wilk et al., 1995). Because individuals high on GMA and conscientiousness possess attributes that are particularly valuable at work (e.g., being capable of solving complex problems and staying organized), they are more likely to secure highly prestigious occupations. In terms of the differential salience perspective, occupations that are high on prestige may generate higher psychological job demands, job autonomy, and financial well-being that may differentially impact employee work–family conflict and enrichment. These arguments suggest that GMA and conscientiousness may impact work–family conflict and enrichment through their proximal relationship with occupational prestige and their subsequent, distal relationship with psychological job demands, job autonomy, and financial well-being.

2.2 | Occupational prestige and work–family outcomes

The depletion perspective posits that people experience work–family conflict when they have competing time demands from work and family or when the strain in one role makes it difficult for them to function effectively in another. In contrast, the expansion perspective posits that people experience work–family enrichment when

involvement in one domain generates developmental opportunities, positive emotions and moods, or knowledge and skills that can benefit the functioning of other domains (Rothbard, 2001). Although it is possible to make domain-specific predictions about conflict and enrichment, such that intervening variables from the work domain predict only work-to-family conflict (WFC) but not family-to-work conflict (FWC), recent research suggests that WFC and FWC are “reciprocal” and “simultaneously determined” such that any predictors that increase WFC may also increase FWC, and vice versa (Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008, p. 491). Thus, we focus our predictions on conflict and enrichment between work and family in general without domain-specific predictions. Next, we draw on the differential salience perspective to understand how occupational prestige may have both positive and negative effects on employees’ work–family interface.

2.2.1 | Psychological job demands

Increases in occupational prestige precede increases in psychological job demands (Gottfredson, 2002). Psychological job demand refers to the extent to which a job entails higher workload, task pressures, and social pressures that are not distinctly physical in nature (R.A. Karasek, 1979). These demands may come from the increased level of task complexity, responsibility, and decision-making authority that accompany jobs high in occupational prestige. Highly prestigious jobs may also require incumbents to coordinate the work of others, communicate effectively, deal with interpersonal conflicts, and negotiate. Those with higher occupational prestige report working longer hours and having higher levels of work pressure (Crouter, Bumpus, Maguire, & McHale, 1999; Ransford, Crouter, & McHale, 2008). The differential salience perspective (Voydanoff, 2004) would posit that psychological job demands result in work–family conflict for two reasons. First, psychological job demands can deplete the pool of available time and energy that individuals need to meet time demands across the work and life domains. Second, psychological job demands can create strain that is transmitted from one domain to another and thereby hinder individuals’ ability to contribute effectively to role functioning. Empirical results support this notion: Psychological job demands are positively correlated with work–family conflict in workers from a range of cultural backgrounds (Grzywacz et al., 2007; Janssen, Peeters, de Jonge, Houkes, & Tummers, 2004).

Hypothesis 1a: Occupational prestige has a positive indirect relationship with work–family conflict that is mediated through psychological job demand.

2.2.2 | Autonomy

Autonomy refers to the extent to which individuals have considerable freedom and discretion to arrange their work activities (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Highly prestigious occupations, along with their expanded job scopes and responsibilities, may offer more flexibility and adaptability (Xie & Johns, 1995). Occupational prestige also symbolizes power and authority that is related to the amount of autonomy one has (Judge et al., 1999). For example, a marketing executive may choose to work from any location that is convenient for her, whereas her administrative assistant must be present at her desk to greet visitors and answer calls. Consistent with this argument, Naughton and Outcalt (1988) found that occupational prestige was closely associated with autonomy. From a differential salience perspective, autonomy may result in work–family enrichment for instrumental and affective reasons (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Instrumentally, Grzywacz and Butler (2005, p. 99) noted that high levels of autonomy may enhance “motivation, energy, new skills, or attitudes that can be mobilized to facilitate functioning in other life domains.” Voydanoff (2004) also suggested that having autonomy may allow employees to develop skills and energy that can be applied to other life domains. Affectively, as high levels of autonomy give employees more control in where and when to conduct work activities, they may experience more positive emotions due to their ability to more effectively engage with their family (Carlson et al., 2011; Chen, Chiang, & Huang, 2017). Consistent with these arguments, past research has shown that higher autonomy was related to more work–family enrichment (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005).

Hypothesis 1b: Occupational prestige has a positive indirect effect on work–family enrichment that is mediated through autonomy.

2.2.3 | Financial well-being

Finally, individuals who occupy highly prestigious jobs are also more likely to enjoy better financial well-being (Judge et al., 2010). This is because prestigious jobs tend to pay well, contribute to job incumbents' retirement plans, have better health coverage, and afford access to financial services. Fujishiro, Xu, and Gong (2010) conceptualized occupational status as an indicator of socioeconomic status alongside other indicators such as personal income and suggested that higher occupational prestige allows employees to gain access to and control valuable resources that contribute to better financial well-being. Following the differential salience perspective (Voydanoff, 2004), we conceptualize financial well-being as a boundary-spanning resource. Because financial resources come from work and are used in the family domain, they operate in both domains. Beham, Drobnic, and Prag (2011) noted that boundary-spanning resources can both decrease work–family conflict and increase work–family enrichment “through processes that increase the ability of employees to manage work–family boundaries” (p. 112). Therefore, they are “expected to show comparable relationships to conflict and facilitation” (Beham et al., 2011, pp. 110–111). Based on these arguments, we suggest that financial well-being can impact conflict through a strain-reducing mechanism and enrichment through a motivation-enhancing mechanism. At a basic level, individuals who have more financial resources may worry less about meeting daily needs such as food and housing, allowing them to have more emotional energy to participate fully in work and family activities. Financial resources may also allow individuals to pay for services that can reduce the stress of coordinating work and family needs. For example, a parent who is working toward a project deadline can pay a babysitter to take care of his/her children so that he/she can focus on work activities without distractions. Meanwhile, financial resources may generate psychological and affective benefits that enhance one's ability to engage in work and family domains (Kim & Gordon, 2014). The linkages between family finance and work–family conflict and enrichment have been documented in prior research (Lawrence, Halbesleben, & Paustian-Underdahl, 2013).

Hypothesis 1c: Occupational prestige has a negative indirect effect on work–family conflict and a positive indirect effect on work–family enrichment that are mediated through financial well-being.

Taken together, these arguments suggest that GMA and conscientiousness are distally related to work–family conflict and enrichment through their relationship with occupational prestige and subsequent association with psychological job demands, autonomy, and financial well-being.

Hypothesis 2: (a) GMA/(b) conscientiousness has a positive indirect effect on work–family conflict mediated consecutively through occupational prestige and psychological job demands.

Hypothesis 3: (a) GMA/(b) conscientiousness has a positive indirect effect on work–family enrichment mediated consecutively through occupational prestige and autonomy.

Hypothesis 4: (a) GMA/(b) conscientiousness has a negative indirect effect on work–family conflict and a positive indirect effect on work–family enrichment that are mediated consecutively through occupational prestige and financial well-being.

2.3 | The effects of GMA and conscientiousness through coping styles

The second pathway through which GMA and conscientiousness impact employee work–family outcomes is through coping styles, referred to as “cognitive and behavioral efforts to master, reduce, or tolerate the internal and/or external demands” (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 843). Coping may represent one class of boundary-spanning strategies that individuals employ to navigate the work–family interface (Baltes et al., 2010). This argument corresponds to the individual difference literature, showing that GMA and conscientiousness may shape the environment in a way that matches their attributes (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995), and it also aligns with the notion that conflict and enrichment may be predicted by a combination of demands, resources, and individual coping styles (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Thompson, Poelmans, Allen, & Andreassi, 2007; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007).

Past research has distinguished three categories of coping: problem, avoidance, and emotion coping (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, & Scott, 2009). Problem coping refers to directly addressing sources of stress and making purposeful efforts to eliminate the stressors, including the use of such coping strategies as active coping and planning. Avoidance coping refers to physical or mental activities that allow individuals to withdraw from stressful situations, including the use of such strategies as distancing and behavioral disengagement to cope. Emotion coping involves attempts to reduce the negative emotions that are experienced as a result of the stressor by using such strategies as venting emotions and acceptance. We choose to focus on problem and avoidance coping in the present study because we could not find compelling arguments in the current theoretical framework to link GMA and conscientiousness to emotion coping. Unlike problem and avoidance coping, emotion coping is not a clear approach that individuals take to manage their physical and social environments. Our focus on problem and avoidance coping is also consistent with past research, suggesting that individual differences may cause differential tendencies to either approach situations for rewards and pleasure or withdraw from situations to avoid punishment and pain (Depue & Collins, 1999).

We propose that individuals who are high on GMA and conscientiousness are more likely to use problem coping and eschew the use of ineffective coping styles such as avoidance coping (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). Based on the differential salience perspective, the use of problem coping may allow individuals to better manage demands and optimize resource utilization, resulting in less conflict and more enrichment (Cheng & McCarthy, 2013; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). In contrast, the use of avoidance coping may leave stressors unresolved thereby allowing them to spill over across domains and increase work–family conflict. Thus, we propose that GMA and conscientiousness may impact work–family conflict and enrichment through their relationships with problem and avoidance coping.

2.3.1 | GMA/conscientiousness and coping styles

Individuals with high GMA are likely to be equipped with the cognitive capacities to engage in problem coping and eschew avoidance coping for two primary reasons. First, individuals high in GMA possess the ability to acquire information and knowledge, recognize key issues in complex situations, and develop solutions to solve problems (Gottfredson, 2002, 2004; Schmidt, 2002, 2014). This ability enables individuals with high GMA to use problem coping styles to directly engage a problem rather than withdraw from it (Tomchin, Callahan, Sowa, & May, 1996). Further, individuals with high GMA are also likely to be confident in their capabilities to overcome challenges (Judge, Hurst, & Simon, 2009), resulting in a tendency toward problem coping styles that allow them to have control (Carver & Scheier, 1994; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2009) and an aversion to avoidance coping styles whereby they simply resign themselves to a problem (Rotondo & Kincaid, 2008). Second, due to their greater capacity to analyze the possible consequences of their actions, individuals high in GMA are also more likely to choose actions that will lead to successful stress reduction, which, in turn, makes it unlikely for them to feel overwhelmed by various challenges and to engage in avoidance coping (Bouchard, Guillemette, & Landry-Leger, 2004). Empirical research shows some initial support for these arguments, suggesting that gifted children tend to engage in problem-solving and abstract thinking to overcome stressors rather than simply ignore them, compared to their nongifted counterparts (Bland, Sowa, & Callahan, 1994; Sowa & May, 1997; Sowa, McIntire, May, & Bland, 1994).

Two lines of reasoning suggest that conscientiousness is positively related to problem coping and negatively related to avoidance coping. First, being organized, planful, and goal-driven, conscientious individuals are more likely to use planning (a facet of problem coping) to reach their goals (Paulson & Leuty, 2016). Their tendency to be persistent and hard-working can translate into persevering in problem-solving despite challenges and obstacles, as well as resisting the temptation to give up prematurely. Given their preference for control, conscientious individuals are less likely to rely on avoidance coping styles such as daydreaming or wishful thinking that would create distractions (Panayiotou, Kokkinos, & Kapsou, 2014). Second, highly conscientious individuals are thorough, careful, self-disciplined, and responsible, and as such tend to prepare for possible contingencies. This tendency makes it more likely that they use problem coping to circumvent anticipated difficulties and less likely that they would find themselves in an uncontrollable situation where avoidance coping is the only coping option (Bouchard et al., 2004). Accordingly, Connor-Smith and Flachsbart (2007) noted that conscientiousness “involves a tendency to plan ahead, reducing the number of stressors

experienced and providing opportunities to implement engagement strategies as anticipated difficulties arise" (pp. 1083–1084). Watson and Hubbard similarly argued (1996) that "those high in conscientiousness generally act in a cautious, meticulous, and highly organized manner...one would suspect that these individuals develop careful and precise plans to help them cope with stress" (p. 747).

2.3.2 | Coping styles and conflict/enrichment

We expect problem coping styles to be negatively related to work–family conflict for two reasons. First, regular use of problem coping such as planning may allow individuals to have more control over their work and family responsibilities and reduce the possibility of encountering incompatible time demands (Michel, Clark, & Jaramillo, 2011b). For example, through effective planning employees can complete assigned tasks in the time allocated, reducing the need to become preoccupied with work at home. The use of problem solving may lead to solutions and resources that can overcome stressors within a domain, thereby preventing the strain from one domain from spilling into another. Second, viewed in terms of the demand perspective (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), the regular use of problem coping may reduce demands as it allows individuals to exercise control, manage potential stressors, and minimize their negative impact (Rantanen, Mauno, Kinnunen, & Rantanen, 2011). This will allow them to reduce the threat of time conflict and strain spillover across domains. Empirical work tends to support these arguments, leading scholars to conclude that in the struggle to reduce WFC or FWC, "research suggests that active, problem-focused styles of coping tend to be more effective than emotion-focused or passive coping" (Thompson et al. 2007, p. 90). These arguments, in combination with the proposed positive relationships between GMA/conscientiousness and problem coping, lead us to predict:

Hypothesis 5: (a) GMA/(b) conscientiousness has a negative indirect effect on work–family conflict mediated through problem coping styles.

We expect a positive association between problem coping and enrichment for two reasons. First, enrichment occurs when individuals develop skills, knowledge, and insights in one domain that are successfully applied to another, resulting in enhanced domain performance (Wayne et al., 2007). When individuals regularly use problem coping at work (such as changing work procedures to increase production efficiency), they gain constructive resources (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) that can be used to enhance family experiences, resulting in higher work–family enrichment. Second, problem coping may result in "feelings of mastery and control" (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004, p. 766). Such positive feelings may create personal resources such as energy, positive mood, and higher self-esteem that can increase "motivation, effort, persistence, and goal setting" in another domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 81). Together, these arguments suggest that problem coping can create resources that, both instrumentally and affectively, result in work–family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Offering empirical support, Hecht and McCarthy (2010) found that problem coping was related to the tendency to experience interrole enrichment. These arguments, combined with the positive relationships between GMA/conscientiousness and problem coping proposed above, lead us to predict:

Hypothesis 6: (a) GMA/(b) conscientiousness has a positive indirect effect on work–family enrichment mediated through problem coping styles.

In contrast, we expect avoidance coping to positively predict conflict. First, the use of avoidance coping may increase demands as it is associated with the experience of anxiety, distress, and perceived threat (Bolger, 1990; Carver & Scheier, 1994; Litt, Tennen, Affleck, & Klock, 1992). Thus, avoidance coping may exacerbate the experience of stress and deplete resources thereby increasing the level of work–family conflict (Ingledeu, Hardy, & Cooper, 1997). Second, individuals who regularly use avoidance coping will often fail to remove the challenges and obstacles that cause them stress, making it more likely that the strain in one role may decrease their functioning in the other role (Cheng & McCarthy, 2013). Finally, the use of avoidance coping may not allow individuals to anticipate or proactively monitor possible time conflict between different life domains. As past research has suggested that this coping style is more likely to impact conflict than enrichment (Cheng & McCarthy, 2013; see also Carver & Scheier, 1994), we do not expect

a direct effect of avoidance coping on work–family enrichment. These arguments, in combination with the proposed negative relationships between GMA/conscientiousness and avoidance coping, lead us to predict:

Hypothesis 7: (a) GMA/(b) conscientiousness has a negative indirect effect on work–family conflict mediated through avoidance coping styles.

2.4 | Differential effects of GMA and conscientiousness

Although we predict similar effects for GMA and conscientiousness, these two traits are not interchangeable with each other (e.g., Furnham, 2008). While personality captures how people “naturally or typically behave,” GMA reflects “what a person is capable of” maximally (Furnham, 2008, p. 3). When predicting performance on the job, conscientiousness predicts what a person *will* do (i.e., the motivation to perform), whereas GMA predicts what a person *can* do (i.e., the ability to perform, Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). This “will-do” versus “can-do” distinction leads us to examine the relative strengths of GMA and conscientiousness through the two processes in our model.

Considering first the path through occupational prestige, we expect GMA to be more strongly related to occupational prestige than is conscientiousness. This is because job complexity increases with prestige, and two of the main components of GMA—verbal ability and numerical ability—are critical to performing highly complex jobs (Gottfredson, 1997). Though individuals high in conscientiousness may be motivated to achieve high levels of occupational prestige, their ability to perform the requisite work tasks hinges more strongly on their GMA. Put another way, being motivated to do a highly complex job does not mean that a person has, or is likely to attain, the knowledge, skills, or ability required to do it. Large-scale, longitudinal research supports this argument, suggesting that GMA is a stronger predictor of occupational attainment than is conscientiousness (Cheng & Furnham, 2012). GMA is a critical predictor of occupational prestige even when both conscientiousness and parental socioeconomic status are taken into account. Conversely, when GMA and parental socioeconomic status are held constant, the relationship between conscientiousness and occupational attainment is less pronounced (Damian, Su, Shanahan, Trautwein, & Roberts, 2015).

Hypothesis 8a: GMA has greater indirect effects on the work–family interface than does conscientiousness through occupational prestige.

Turning next to the paths through coping, we hypothesize that coping styles are influenced to a greater extent by how a person typically behaves than by how they might maximally behave. Watson and Hubbard (1996) noted that individuals display stable coping tendencies across different contexts and over time, thereby making coping styles trait-like attributes that are theoretically linked to what people are motivated to do in most situations (“will do”) as opposed to what they are capable of doing (“can do”). That is, personality impacts the choice of coping styles because it “reflects motivated preferences for the ways that individuals choose to cope with situations they encounter in the world” (Shoss, Hunter, & Penney, 2016, p. 109). As Beus and Whitman (2012, p. 361) noted, “conscientiousness should share a stronger association with typical performance because more dependable, achievement-oriented workers should have greater motivation to perform at higher levels in typical performance situations.” Although we expect GMA to predict coping styles, this relationship will be weaker than the one between conscientiousness and coping because coping style is more likely to be driven by the motivated response tendencies underlying personality than by the capacity to acquire and apply information underlying GMA.

Hypothesis 8b: Conscientiousness has greater indirect effects on the work–family interface than does GMA through coping styles.

Taken together, our model suggests that high GMA and conscientiousness may act as a double-edged sword, simultaneously increasing and decreasing work–family conflict. An anonymous reviewer asked the following question:

“Which side of the sword is sharper?” On the one hand, prospect theory (Tversky & Kahneman, 1992) may suggest that the negative effects are stronger because negatives tend to be more salient than positives. Michel et al. (2011a) reported that, in isolation, the magnitude of the relationships between stressors such as time demands and role overload and work–family conflict was considerably stronger than that of the relationships between job autonomy and schedule flexibility and work–family conflict. On the other hand, the heliotropic effect states that individuals are drawn to the positive and away from the negative, because the positive is more functional and may promote individual strengths (Wayne et al., 2007). Consistent with this argument, recent work–family research has shown that when predictors have contradictory effects on work–family outcomes, the positive often outweighs the negative (e.g., Graves, Ohlott, & Ruderman, 2007). Given recent debate about the potential downsides associated with high GMA and conscientiousness (e.g., Antonakis et al., 2017), examining whether the positive effects of GMA and conscientiousness outweigh the negative may indeed be of both theoretical and empirical importance.

Research Question: Are the net effects of GMA and conscientiousness on work–family outcomes positive or negative?

3 | METHOD

To test our model, we used data from Phase II of the National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States (MIDUS II). The MIDUS study was conducted by the National Institute on Aging and was designed to examine how individuals' mental and physical health was related to a wide range of biological, social, and psychological factors. The first phase of the study (MIDUS I) was initially conducted from 1995 to 1996 and included a sample of over 7,000 Americans between the ages of 25 and 74. Researchers sampled from four groups of participants: a main sample, siblings of the participants from the main sample, twins, and oversamples from several metropolitan locations. Roughly a decade later, from 2004 through 2006, researchers conducted a follow-up study (MIDUS II). A total of 4,963 individuals participated in MIDUS II via a phone interview and a paper-and-pencil survey that contained the vast majority of the MIDUS II items. In a follow-up phone interview, 4,268 of the MIDUS II participants (86%) completed a cognitive ability test (Lachman, Agrigoroaei, Tun, & Weaver, 2014; MIDUS, 2016).

We used the following criteria to select participants from the MIDUS II sample for hypothesis testing. First, participants needed to have completed the GMA test and responded to the survey variables of interest in our model. We retained eight cases that had missing values on a single survey variable. Second, because of the current interest in the interface between work and family, we retained only those participants that were working at least 30 hrs per week in their main job. Finally, we focused on only the main sample and the metropolitan oversample, removing the sibling and twin samples. We made this decision because inclusion of the sibling and twin samples—due to their nested nature—might lead to interpretative difficulties (Li, Shaffer, & Bagger, 2015). The adoption of these inclusion criteria resulted in a final sample of 709, of which 377 were male (53%). The participants had a mean age of 49.86 years ($SD = 8.67$), worked on average 43.57 hrs per week ($SD = 9.08$), and had an average of 2.09 children ($SD = 1.58$). Most of the participants (69%) were married at the time of the study. Among those who had a spouse, 77% of their spouses were employed.

3.1 | Measures

We describe the study measures and their validity evidence in this section and provide the items for all survey measures in the Appendix.

3.1.1 | GMA

GMA was measured with the Brief Test of Adult Cognition by Telephone (BTACT). BTACT includes six subtests that assess episodic verbal memory, working memory span, executive function, inductive reasoning, and processing speed. Episodic verbal memory was assessed with two subtests: an immediate word list recall (participants were asked to recall a list of 15 words read to them) and a delayed word list recall (participants were asked to recall the same 15 words

after completing other subtests). Working memory span was measured with a digits backward span (participants were given increasingly longer sets of digits and instructed to repeat the digits in reverse order). Executive functioning was measured with category fluency (participants were given one minute to name as many items as possible from the category of “animals”). Inductive reasoning was assessed with a number series completion task (participants were given five numbers in a series and instructed to name the next number that logically completes the sequence within 15 seconds). Finally, processing speed was assessed with a backward counting task (participants were instructed to count backward from 100 by ones as quickly as possible within 30 seconds). Following Stawski et al. (2010), we created a composite score of GMA by converting the raw scores from each of the five tests (the raw scores from the subtests of immediate and delayed word list recall were summed before the conversion) to z-scores and then averaging the five z-scores. Lachman et al. (2014) reported the coefficient of equivalence and stability (CES; Schmidt, Le, & Ilies, 2003) for composite scores on parallel forms of the BTACT administered 1 week apart (CES = 0.86) and 4 weeks apart (CES = 0.84).

3.1.2 | Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness was measured with five items ($\alpha = 0.71$): organized, responsible, hardworking, thorough, and careless (reverse scored). These adjectives were adopted from existing conscientiousness markers (Goldberg, 1992; Trapnell & Wiggins, 1990). Each item asked participants to indicate how well a single word described them on a scale of 1 (*a lot*) to 4 (*not at all*). We reverse-coded this scale so that higher values represent higher levels of conscientiousness. In a validation study (IRB#: 01-08-17; Study title: Scale validation, approved by the IRB at West Texas A&M University), we found evidence of convergent validity ($r = 0.80$, $N = 413$) between this five-item measure and a 10-item scale of conscientiousness from the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg, 1999).

3.1.3 | Occupational prestige

Participants reported their primary occupation in a phone interview that was then coded objectively. Occupational prestige was measured with the socioeconomic index (SEI) based on the 1990 census codes (Duncan, 1961). The original index ranged from 0 to 100, with higher numbers representing more prestige. In the present study, the average occupational prestige was 42.94 ($SD = 13.74$).

3.1.4 | Psychological job demands

Psychological job demands were measured with a five-item scale ($\alpha = 0.74$). A sample item is “How often do you have to work very intensively—that is, you are very busy trying to get things done?” For each item, participants were asked to indicate the frequency with which that item described their job on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (*all the time*) to 5 (*never*). We reverse coded this scale so that higher values represent higher levels of psychological job demands. In the second phase of our validation study, we found the MIDUS psychological job demands measure correlated strongly ($r = 0.77$, $N = 213$) with the psychological work demand subscale of the job content questionnaire (R. Karasek et al., 1998).

3.1.5 | Autonomy

Autonomy was measured with a six-item scale ($\alpha = 0.86$) that focused on the degree to which the participant had decision-making authority at work (see Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). A sample item is “How often do you have a choice in deciding how you do your tasks at work?” Participants indicated their responses on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (*all the time*) to 5 (*never*). We reverse-scored the scale so that higher values represent higher levels of autonomy.

3.1.6 | Financial well-being

We operationalized financial well-being with five items. Sample items include: “How would you rate your financial situation these days?” (0 = *worse*; 10 = *best*) and “How would you rate the amount of control you have over your financial situation these days?” (0 = *none*; 10 = *very much*). Because these items were rated on different response scales, we com-

puted their z-scores before creating the scale score ($\alpha = 0.82$), with higher values indicating higher levels of financial well-being. The current scale converged strongly ($r = 0.83$, $N = 213$) with the financial well-being measure from Lui, Rollock, Chang, Leong, and Zamboanga (2016) in our validation study.

3.1.7 | Problem coping and avoidance coping

We operationalized problem coping ($\alpha = 0.90$) with items for the coping styles of active coping and planning, two subscales with four items each. A sample item is "I take additional action to try to get rid of the problem." We also assessed avoidance coping ($\alpha = 0.80$) with two subscales that each contained four items. These subscales measured the coping styles of denial and behavioral disengagement (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007). A sample item is "I give up the attempt to get what I want." Participants indicated the extent to which each item described their typical experiences with stressors on a four-point scale ranging from 1 (*a lot*) to 4 (*not at all*). We reverse coded the scale so that higher values represent higher levels of standing on the respective constructs. In our validation study ($N = 413$), the MIDUS problem and avoidance coping style measures converged strongly with their respective coping style counterparts measured with the ways of coping scales (problem coping: $r = 0.72$; avoidance coping: $r = 0.66$) by Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, and Gruen (1986).

3.1.8 | Work–family conflict and enrichment

Work–family conflict and enrichment were assessed with four four-item subscales (see Grzywacz, 2000): WFC, FWC, work-to-family enrichment (WFE), and family-to-work enrichment (FWE), with α s of 0.77, 0.77, 0.66, and 0.69, respectively. Sample items include: "Job worries or problems distract you when you are at home" (WFC); "Stress at home makes you irritable at work" (FWC); "The things you do at work help you deal with personal and practical issues at home" (WFE); and "Talking with someone at home helps you deal with problems at work" (FWE). Participants rated the frequency with which they had experienced in the past year the conditions described in each item on a scale of 1 (*all the time*) to 5 (*never*). We reverse coded the scale so that higher values represent higher levels of conflict or enrichment.

3.1.9 | Control variables

Following the best practice recommendations of Bernerth and Aguinis (2016), the analyses that we report in this study contain no control variables. However, to examine the robustness of our results, we conducted a second set of analyses that included six control variables that may have an impact on participants' work and family demands: age, gender, work hours, marital status, family dual-income status, and number of children. Because adding control variables led to the same support for the study hypotheses, to "offer the most interpretable results" (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016, p. 279), all further presentation and discussion of our results focus only on the analyses that included no control variables.

4 | RESULTS

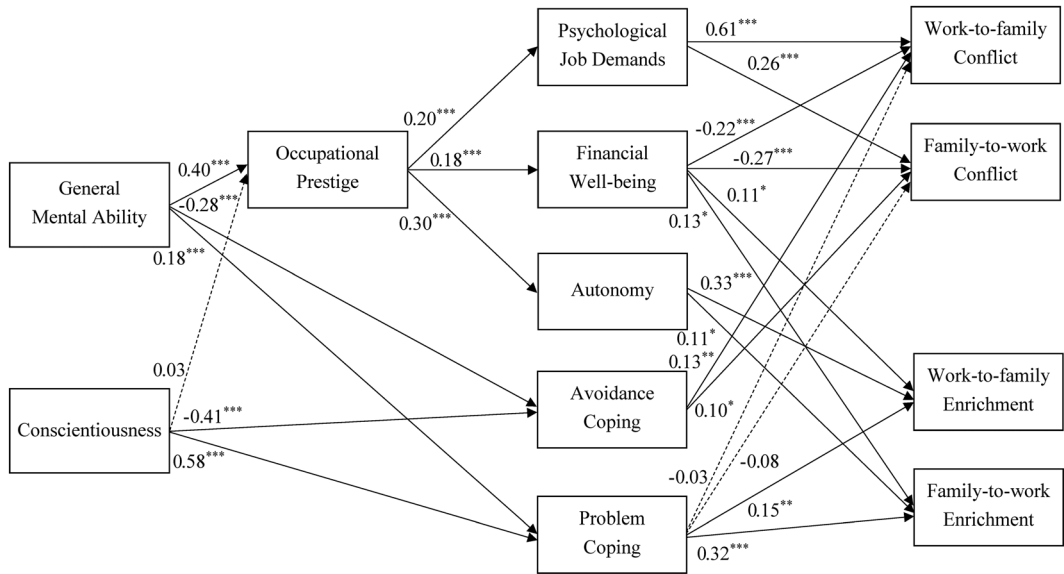
Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and intercorrelations of our study variables are presented in Table 1. We used structural equation modeling to test the hypothesized model using Mplus (Version 7.3, Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2015), with full information maximum likelihood to handle rare missingness. In our analysis, the large number of observed items necessitated the use of item parcels, which have also been found to produce more reliable latent variables than individual items (Little, Rhemtulla, Gibson, & Schoemann, 2013). We followed the item-to-construct balance approach (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002; Williams & O'Boyle, 2008) to create the item parcels for use in subsequent analyses.

We first conducted confirmatory factor analyses to assess the distinctiveness of the 10 self-report variables: conscientiousness, psychological job demands, financial well-being, autonomy, problem coping, avoidance coping, WFC, FWC, WFE, and FWE. Results of the confirmatory factor analysis show that the 10-factor model provided an excellent fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 463.40$, $df = 185$, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.05). We then tested three alternative

TABLE 1 Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and intercorrelations of study variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. GMA	0.03	0.64	0.65																
2. Conscientiousness	3.42	0.46	-0.01	0.71															
3. Occupational prestige	42.94	13.74	0.31	-0.01	-														
4. Psychological demands	3.11	0.60	0.11	0.00	0.16	0.74													
5. Autonomy	3.67	0.75	0.11	0.15	0.28	0.04	0.86												
6. Financial well-being	0.02	0.75	0.07	0.24	0.20	-0.13	0.26	0.82											
7. Problem coping	3.22	0.54	0.11	0.44	0.15	0.06	0.25	0.26	0.90										
8. Avoidance coping	1.56	0.46	-0.18	-0.27	-0.20	-0.02	-0.21	-0.23	-0.42	0.80									
9. Work-to-family conflict	2.66	0.64	0.02	-0.19	0.09	0.48	-0.13	-0.25	-0.09	0.14	0.77								
10. Family-to-work conflict	2.09	0.58	0.13	-0.22	0.06	0.20	-0.04	-0.28	-0.14	0.16	0.42	0.77							
11. Work-to-family enrichment	2.87	0.70	0.04	0.11	0.12	0.04	0.31	0.17	0.21	-0.07	-0.02	0.08	0.66						
12. Family-to-work enrichment	3.41	0.76	-0.02	0.19	0.01	0.01	0.16	0.15	0.30	-0.08	-0.01	-0.05	0.37	0.69					
13. Marital status	0.69	0.46	0.08	0.09	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.12	0.07	-0.13	-0.01	0.05	0.01	0.17	-				
14. Age	49.86	8.67	-0.29	0.04	-0.05	-0.15	-0.01	0.06	0.01	0.07	-0.06	-0.18	0.05	0.00	-0.02	-			
15. Work hours	43.57	9.08	0.09	0.06	0.12	0.21	0.18	0.06	0.12	-0.16	0.15	0.06	0.00	0.09	0.14	-0.11	-		
16. Number of children	2.09	1.58	-0.06	0.01	-0.10	-0.09	0.00	-0.10	0.05	-0.02	-0.05	0.00	0.02	0.08	0.27	0.27	0.06	-	
17. Gender	0.53	0.50	0.00	-0.11	0.07	-0.06	0.03	0.11	0.01	-0.15	-0.04	-0.06	-0.04	-0.07	0.17	-0.01	0.25	0.00	-
18. Dual-income status	0.57	0.50	0.11	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.03	-0.06	0.03	0.08	0.02	0.09	0.59	-0.12	0.01	0.09	0.05

Note. $N = 706 - 709$. When $|r| \geq 0.10$, $p < 0.01$; when $|r| \geq 0.08$, $p < 0.05$; Cronbach's α s presented along the diagonal in *italics*; GMA = general mental ability, Marital status: 1 = married, 0 = not married, Gender: 1 = male, 0 = female. Dual-income status: 1 = dual income, 0 = single income.



Note. * $P < .05$; ** $P < .01$; *** $P < .001$. Standardized coefficients are reported; dashed lines indicate nonsignificant effects.

FIGURE 2 Results for hypothesized model

models: (a) a nine-factor model that collapsed problem with avoidance coping; (b) an eight-factor model that collapsed WFC with WFE and FWC with FWE; and (c) an eight-factor model that collapsed WFC with FWC and WFE with FWE. None of these alternative models provided acceptable fit to the data: (a) $\chi^2 = 982.34$, $df = 194$, CFI = 0.88, TLI = 0.85, RMSEA = 0.08; (b) $\chi^2 = 1250.59$, $df = 202$, CFI = 0.84, TLI = 0.80, RMSEA = 0.09; and (c) $\chi^2 = 992.08$, $df = 202$, CFI = 0.88, TLI = 0.85, RMSEA = 0.07, respectively. Given the support for the measurement model of the study, we proceeded to testing the structural model.

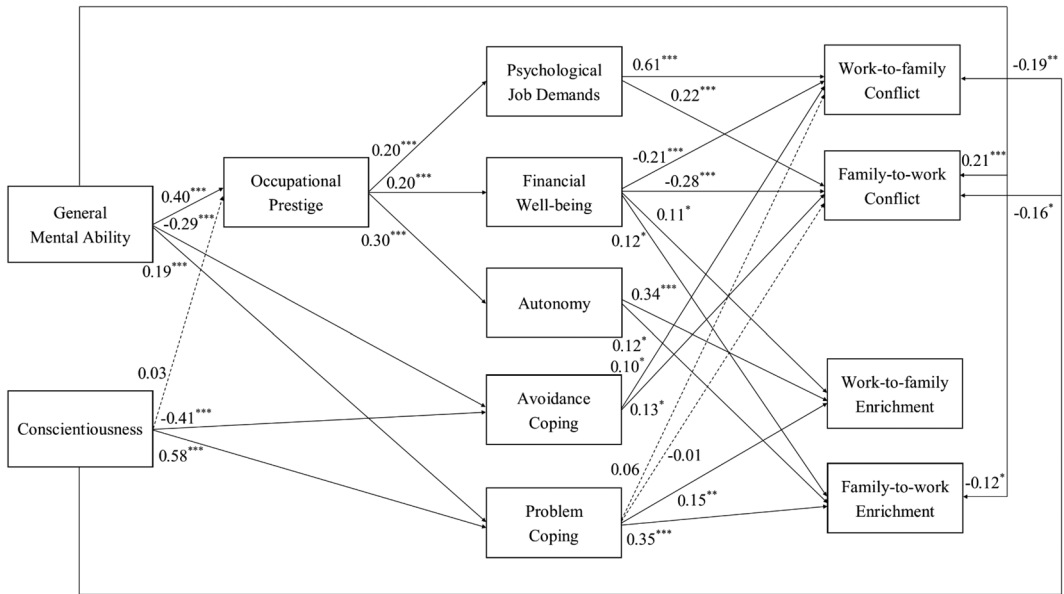
The results of the structural model suggest that our hypothesized model provided reasonable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 828.57$, $df = 270$, CFI = 0.92, TLI = 0.91, RMSEA = 0.05). Figure 2 presents the standardized coefficients for our hypothesized model. As suggested by an anonymous reviewer, we explored a model that included the direct effects from GMA and conscientiousness on the four work-family outcomes. This model yielded significant improvement in model fit, but only four of the additional eight exploratory paths were significant ($\chi^2 = 785.04$, $df = 262$, CFI = 0.93, TLI = 0.91, RMSEA = 0.05; $\Delta\chi^2 = 43.53$, $\Delta df = 8$, $p < 0.001$). We subsequently revised the model to keep the four significant direct effects from GMA/conscientiousness ($\chi^2 = 786.27$, $df = 266$, CFI = 0.93, TLI = 0.91, RMSEA = 0.05). Given that the fit statistics between the two revised models were virtually identical, in the interest of parsimony, we used the latter model for hypothesis testing (see Figure 3). The key paths in the model were largely consistent with our prediction, with two notable exceptions. First, the effect of conscientiousness on occupational prestige was not significantly different from zero ($\beta = 0.03$, ns). Second, problem coping did not predict conflict ($\beta_{WFC} = 0.06$ and $\beta_{FWC} = -0.01$, ns). We proceed to testing the study hypotheses and will discuss these nonsignificant findings in the respective hypotheses involving these paths.

As our hypotheses pertain to the indirect effects on work-family outcomes, we utilized bootstrapping (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004) with 10,000 resamples in Mplus to obtain the confidence intervals (CIs) of the unstandardized indirect effects (see Table 2). When a 95% CI did not include zero, the indirect effect would be statistically significant. Hypotheses 1a-1c pertain to occupational prestige's indirect effects through (a) psychological job demands, (b) autonomy, and (c) financial well-being. Supporting H1a, occupational prestige transmitted positive effects to both WFC ($B = 0.005$, $p < 0.01$) and FWC ($B = 0.002$, $p < 0.05$) through psychological job demands. Next, occupational prestige had a positive indirect effect through autonomy on WFE ($B = 0.004$, $p < 0.01$) but not on FWE ($B = 0.002$, ns), thus providing mixed support for H1b. For H1c, mixed support was also discovered: Financial well-being

TABLE 2 Tests of indirect effects

Hypothesis	Mediating mechanisms	Antecedent = Occupational Prestige	
		GMA	Conscientiousness
H1a	Psychological job demands => WFC		0.005 [0.000, 0.007]
H1b	Psychological job demands => FWC		0.002 [0.001, 0.003]
	Autonomy => WFE		0.004 [0.002, 0.005]
H1c	Autonomy => FWE		0.002 [0.000, 0.003]
	Financial well-being => WFC		-0.002 [-0.003, -0.001]
	Financial well-being => FWC		-0.002 [-0.004, -0.001]
	Financial well-being => WFE		0.001 [0.000, 0.002]
	Financial well-being => FWE		0.001 [0.000, 0.003]
Antecedents			
		GMA	Conscientiousness
H2a and H2b	Occupational prestige => psychological job demands => WFC	0.054 [0.027, 0.082]	0.005 [-0.011, 0.020]
	Occupational prestige => psychological job demands => FWC	0.018 [0.006, 0.030]	0.002 [-0.004, 0.007]
H3a and H3b	Occupational prestige => autonomy => WFE	0.041 [0.022, 0.060]	0.003 [-0.008, 0.015]
	Occupational prestige => autonomy => FWE	0.017 [-0.002, 0.035]	0.001 [-0.004, 0.007]
H4a and H4b	Occupational prestige => financial well-being => WFC	-0.019 [-0.032, -0.006]	-0.002 [-0.007, 0.004]
	Occupational prestige => financial well-being => FWC	-0.022 [-0.040, -0.005]	-0.002 [-0.009, 0.005]
	Occupational prestige => financial well-being => WFE	0.009 [-0.001, 0.019]	0.001 [-0.002, 0.004]
	Occupational prestige => financial well-being => FWE	0.011 [-0.005, 0.028]	0.001 [-0.003, 0.005]
H5a and H5b	Problem coping => WFC	0.012 [-0.011, 0.035]	0.045 [-0.038, 0.129]
	Problem coping => FWC	-0.001 [-0.024, 0.022]	-0.003 [-0.089, 0.082]
H6a and H6b	Problem coping => WFE	0.028 [0.005, 0.051]	0.104 [0.034, 0.175]
	Problem coping => FWE	0.077 [0.030, 0.124]	0.289 [0.185, 0.394]
H7a and H7b	Avoidance coping => WFC	-0.031 [-0.069, 0.006]	-0.053 [-0.115, 0.008]
	Avoidance coping => FWC	-0.037 [-0.076, 0.002]	-0.063 [-0.125, -0.002]
			Difference $\chi^2(1)$
			13.30***
			8.68**
			16.06***
			not tested
			8.26**
			8.06**
			not tested
			not tested
			not tested
			8.10**
			23.76***
			not tested
			2.24

Note. WFC = work-to-family conflict; FWC = family-to-work conflict; WFE = work-to-family enrichment; FWE = family-to-work enrichment; for indirect effects, unstandardized coefficients are reported, with bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals in brackets; not tested = a comparison was not meaningful because neither indirect effect was significant; entries in bold are statistically significant. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.



Note. * $P < .05$; ** $P < .01$; *** $P < .001$. Standardized coefficients are reported; dashed lines indicate nonsignificant effects.

FIGURE 3 Results for revised model with significant direct effects

mediated the negative relationships between occupational prestige and WFC ($B = -0.002, p < 0.05$)/FWC ($B = -0.002, p < 0.05$) but failed to mediate the positive relationships between occupational prestige and WFE ($B = 0.001, ns$)/FWE ($B = 0.001, ns$).

Hypotheses 2–4 pertain to the distal effects of (a) GMA/(b) conscientiousness through occupational prestige and its downstream mediators of psychological job demands (H2), autonomy (H3), and financial well-being (H4). Supporting Hypothesis 2a, GMA had positive indirect effects, sequentially through occupational prestige and psychological job demands, on WFC ($B = 0.054, p < 0.01$) and FWC ($B = 0.018, p < 0.01$). In partial support of Hypothesis 3a, GMA had a positive indirect effect, sequentially through occupational prestige and autonomy, on WFE ($B = 0.041, p < 0.01$) but not on FWE ($B = 0.017, ns$). Hypothesis 4a also received partial support: Although the indirect effects of GMA, sequentially through occupational prestige and financial well-being, were significant on WFC ($B = -0.019, p < 0.01$) and FWC ($B = -0.022, p < 0.05$), their counterparts on WFE and FWE did not reach statistical significance ($Bs = 0.009$ and $0.011, ns$). In contrast, because conscientiousness had a nonsignificant effect on occupational prestige, H2b, H3b, and H4b were thus not supported.

Next, we turn to the hypothesized indirect effects of GMA and conscientiousness through coping styles. Hypotheses 5a and 5b were not supported due to the nonsignificant effects of problem coping on WFC and FWC discovered earlier. The results provided support for Hypotheses 6a and 6b (see Table 2): Through problem coping, both GMA ($B = 0.028, p < 0.05$ and $B = 0.077, p < 0.01$, respectively) and conscientiousness ($B = 0.104$ and 0.289 , respectively, $ps < 0.01$) had positive indirect effects on WFE and FWE. Next, through avoidance coping, GMA's indirect effect on WFC ($B = -0.031, ns$) and FWC ($B = -0.037, p < 0.10$) failed to reach statistical significance, whereas conscientiousness had a significant indirect effect on FWC ($B = -0.063, p < 0.05$) but not WFC ($B = -.053, ns$). Thus, Hypothesis 7a was not supported, whereas Hypothesis 7b received partial support.

Hypotheses 8a and 8b focused on the relative strengths of GMA and conscientiousness through occupational prestige versus coping styles. We used model constraints in Mplus to compare each pair of indirect paths stemming from GMA and conscientiousness. We limited our analyses to paths where at least one indirect effect was significant to avoid comparing two nonsignificant effects. Supporting Hypothesis 8a, the five significant indirect paths (see the last column in Table 2) from GMA through occupational prestige were all significantly stronger than their counterparts from

TABLE 3 Tests of total indirect effects and total effects

Outcomes	Effects	Antecedents	
		GMA	Conscientiousness
WFC	Total indirect	0.016 [−0.027, 0.060]	−0.005 [−0.100, 0.090]
	Direct	–	−0.258 [−0.429, −0.087]
	Total (indirect + direct)	0.016 [−0.027, 0.060] ^a	−0.263 [−0.392, −0.133]
FWC	Total indirect	−0.043 [−0.090, 0.004]	−0.067 [−0.168, 0.033]
	Direct	0.212 [0.109, 0.316]	−0.196 [−0.375, −0.16]
	Total (indirect + direct)	0.170 [0.077, 0.262]	−0.263 [−0.392, −0.134]
WFE	Total indirect	0.077 [0.047, 0.108]	0.108 [0.038, 0.180]
	Direct	–	–
	Total (indirect + direct)	0.077 [0.047, 0.108] ^a	0.108 [0.038, 0.180] ^a
FWE	Total indirect	0.105 [0.050, 0.160]	0.292 [0.186, 0.397]
	Direct	−0.140 [−0.266, −0.013]	–
	Total (indirect + direct)	−0.035 [−0.161, 0.091]	0.292 [0.186, 0.397] ^a

Note. WFC = work-to-family conflict; FWC = family-to-work conflict; WFE = work-to-family enrichment; FWE = family-to-work enrichment; *unstandardized coefficients are reported, with bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals in brackets.*

^aThe estimate of the total effect was identical to the total indirect effect because the direct effect of the antecedent on the outcome was nonsignificant in the final model.

conscientiousness, $\chi^2(1)$ ranged from 8.06 to 16.06, $ps < 0.01$. As for Hypothesis 8b, conscientiousness had stronger indirect effects on WFE and FWE than GMA through problem coping, $\chi^2(1) = 8.10$ and 23.76, $ps < 0.01$, but their indirect effect through avoidance coping on FWC did not differ significantly, $\chi^2(1) = 2.24$, $p < 0.10$. Thus, Hypothesis 8b received mixed support from the data.

Finally, we proceed to answer the research question about the net effects of GMA and conscientiousness on the work–family interface. We used the same bootstrapping approach to obtain the unstandardized estimates and their 95% CIs in Table 3. A total indirect effect indicates the effect of an antecedent on an outcome through all possible mediation pathways in a model. In terms of the *total indirect* effects, GMA was not indirectly related to either WFC ($B = 0.016$, *ns*) or FWC ($B = -0.043$, *ns*). A similar pattern of results was observed on conscientiousness, which had nonsignificant total indirect effects on WFC ($B = -0.005$, *ns*) and FWC ($B = -0.067$, *ns*). In contrast, GMA had significant positive total indirect effects on both WFE ($B = 0.077$, $p < 0.01$) and FWE ($B = 0.105$, $p < 0.01$), as did conscientiousness on WFE ($B = 0.108$, $p < 0.01$) and FWE ($B = 0.292$, $p < 0.01$). For completeness, we also report in Table 3 the unstandardized *direct effects* for the four direct paths from our revised model: GMA had a positive direct effect on FWC ($B = 0.212$, $p < 0.01$) and a negative direct effect on FWE ($B = -0.140$, $p < 0.05$), whereas conscientiousness had negative direct effects on WFC ($B = -0.258$, $p < 0.01$) and FWC ($B = -0.196$, $p < 0.01$). In terms of the *total effects*, GMA and conscientiousness were mostly significantly related to work–family conflict, except for the relationship between GMA and WFC ($B = 0.016$, *ns*). GMA and conscientiousness were also mostly significantly related to work–family enrichment, except for the relationship between GMA and FWE ($B = -0.035$, *ns*).

4.1 | Additional exploratory analyses

We conducted four additional analyses to ensure the robustness of the current results. First, to address the potential concern that the current data were largely based on self-report (with the exception of GMA and occupational prestige) collected at the same time, we linked the current data to MIDUS I, which contained conscientiousness scores obtained roughly 10 years earlier. Despite the low reliability of the scale score (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.57$), its use in our analysis did not alter the conclusions from the current hypothesis testing. The only discrepant result was the direct effects of conscientiousness on WFC and FWC (see Figure 3) became nonsignificant when using MIDUS I conscientiousness.

Second, to further address the potential concern over common method bias, we followed the confirmatory factor analysis marker technique (Williams, Hartman, & Cavazotte, 2010) to rule out the influence of method variance in our model. Specifically, we identified the seven-item measure of religious identification ($\alpha = 0.91$; Rossi, 2001) and the four-item measure of perceived neighborhood quality ($\alpha = 0.66$; Keyes, 1998) from MIDUS II as ideal markers that conceptually should not relate to any of the variables included in our model (see Richardson, Simmering, & Sturman, 2009). Using either marker variable in the progression of models described in Williams et al. (2010), we found support for the unrestricted method variance model, where the latent method factor loadings on substantive indicators were unequal. However, modeling such a latent method factor in the structural model showed the same support for our hypotheses, with only one exception: The indirect effect of conscientiousness through avoidance coping on FWC (Hypothesis 7b) became nonsignificant ($p < 0.10$). These additional analyses help mitigate the concern that our results were unduly affected by common method bias.

Third, because we operationalized GMA with BTACT, which emphasized the information-processing component of intelligence (i.e., fluid intelligence; see Stawski et al., 2010), it was unclear whether our model would hold when GMA was measured with crystallized intelligence, which represents the accumulation of specific knowledge in one or more disciplines (Ackerman, 1996; Cattell, 1963). Because MIDUS II did not contain explicit measures of crystallized ability (e.g., vocabulary, verbal reasoning, numerical reasoning; Postlethwaite, 2011), we used level of education as a proxy (Moran, 2013; Stawski et al., 2010; Vista & Grantham, 2010). In the data set, education was coded as a continuous variable with 12 possible values (1 = no school/some grade school; 12 = PhD, EdD, MD, DDS, LLB, LLD, JD, or other professional degree). Given the fine-grained differentiation between scores on the education variable, this variable sufficiently represents differences in accumulated knowledge between participants for this explorative analysis. We operationalized GMA in two ways: (a) as level of education only and (b) as level of education and BTACT serving as indicators of a new latent GMA construct, and found the same level of support for our hypotheses.

Finally, we explored whether GMA and conscientiousness interacted to predict the mediators. An exploratory analysis revealed that although GMA and conscientiousness did not interact to influence occupational prestige, their interaction was significant on problem ($\Delta R^2 = 0.005$, $p < 0.05$) and avoidance coping ($\Delta R^2 = 0.006$, $p < 0.05$). Specifically, the respective positive and negative effects conscientiousness had on problem and avoidance coping became weaker when GMA was stronger, although the effect sizes were rather small. Focusing on the indirect paths in this paper, we wanted to ensure that the focal results would not be changed after modeling the GMA \times Conscientiousness interaction. Because Mplus cannot compute indirect effects when modeling latent variable interactions, we inspected the modeling results in a path analysis that included the observed GMA \times Conscientiousness interaction. The indirect paths remained significant in the path model, leading us to be relatively assured of our findings.

5 | DISCUSSION

Our study examined countervailing processes through which GMA and conscientiousness are related to employees' work-family conflict and enrichment. Through the mediated pathways in our model, we found that GMA (but not conscientiousness) was positively related to WFC and FWC through its association with occupational prestige and subsequent psychological job demands. GMA was negatively related to WFC and FWC through its association with occupational prestige and subsequent financial well-being. GMA was also positively related to WFE (but not FWE) through occupational prestige and subsequent job autonomy. GMA and conscientiousness were both positively related to WFE and FWE through problem coping, whereas conscientiousness was also negatively related to FWC through its negative association with avoidance coping. When comparing the strength of the effects of GMA and conscientiousness, we found that the indirect effects for GMA through the occupational prestige pathways were stronger than for conscientiousness. In contrast, through problem coping, conscientiousness had stronger indirect effects on WFE and FWE than GMA. Below, we discuss the implications of these findings by relating them to the broader work-family and individual difference literatures.

5.1 | Theoretical implications

5.1.1 | Integration of situational and dispositional predictors

Our investigation departed from existing studies that tend to examine situational variables as antecedents of work–family conflict and enrichment. For example, the work–family enrichment model focuses on various resources as the antecedent of enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), whereas the work–family conflict model focuses on various demands as the antecedent of conflict (Frone et al., 1997). Although people's occupations can be considered a structural or situational variable, our findings suggest that individuals with higher GMA tend to gravitate toward occupations with higher prestige. Thus, proximal structural predictors of the work–family interface attributable to occupations—such as job demands, autonomy, and financial well-being—can be traced in part to GMA, an individual difference variable. In all, our study contributes to the work–family literature by integrating situational and individual difference variables in the same model, showing that it may be beneficial for future research to examine the interplay of these two types of variables in predicting work–family conflict and enrichment. Such research may also help shed light on additional work–family outcomes. For example, work–family conflict and enrichment, as a function of situational and dispositional predictors, may diminish or enhance one's performance in and satisfaction with life roles that are highly valued, subsequently impacting their feelings of work–family balance (Casper, Vaziri, Wayne, DeHauw, & Greenhaus, 2018; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Maertz & Boyar, 2011).

Unexpectedly, we found that conscientiousness was not related to occupational prestige. One possible explanation for these findings is that conscientiousness was not related to occupational prestige due to its shared variance with GMA. However, we found no evidence for this argument in our data set as the correlation between GMA and conscientiousness was essentially zero. In addition, the correlation between conscientiousness and occupational prestige was zero in our data. These results are surprising as they appear to contradict prior research that links personality to career outcomes. It may be the case that personality predicts career outcomes such as within-person change in occupational prestige over time rather than between-person at a given point in time (Judge et al., 1999).

5.1.2 | The mediating role of coping styles

Our study elucidates how GMA and conscientiousness can exert distal influence on work–family outcomes by affecting the typical approaches individuals adopt to cope. Notably, GMA and conscientiousness were indirectly and uniquely related to WFE and FWE through problem coping. Individuals high on GMA and conscientiousness are more likely to engage in planning and problem solving, which may allow them to generate resources in one domain that instrumentally and affectively benefit another domain. Our research showing enrichment as a function of problem coping is particularly important as it “fills theoretical and empirical gaps and responds to calls for research on the positive outcomes of coping” (Hecht & McCarthy, 2010, p. 632). Interestingly, although problem coping was significantly related to work–family enrichment, it was not significantly related to conflict. In her examination of the relationship between active coping and work–family conflict, Andreassi (2011, p. 1492) noted the failure to observe a significant relationship between the two might be because “active coping is typically effective only when one has control over the stressor.” It may be the case that when the stress or time conflict that individuals experience in one domain is perceived as being uncontrollable, it may spill over to other domains despite the use of problem coping styles.

5.1.3 | Positive versus negative net effects

We also examined the net effects of GMA and conscientiousness on work–family outcomes. Several findings are noteworthy. First, although the total effect of GMA on FWC was positive and significant, the total indirect effect was not significant. Similarly, although the total effects of conscientiousness on WFC/FWC were negative and significant, its total indirect effects were nonsignificant. The nonsignificant indirect effect for GMA appears to have been driven by the hypothesized countervailing processes, whereas the nonsignificant indirect effects for conscientiousness may be attributed to the unexpected, nonsignificant relationships between conscientiousness and occupational prestige and between problem coping and work–family conflict. The significant total effects suggest the existence of other

possible mediating mechanisms unaccounted for in our study. Our model might be complemented with additional mediating processes. For example, highly conscientious individuals are more achievement-oriented (Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002), which may lead them to view competing work–family needs as a challenge rather than a source of stress, resulting in lower WFC/FWC (Friede & Ryan, 2005).

Second, although GMA and conscientiousness had generally favorable indirect and total effects on enrichment, one notable exception pertained to FWE. Specifically, the total effect of GMA on FWE was *negative* and nonsignificant because the positive indirect effect and negative direct effect, both significant, canceled each other out. These results, in combination with the *positive* total effect of GMA on FWC, could suggest that high GMA may not generate the same level of positive effects in the family domain as it does in the work domain. We speculate that although high GMA individuals thrive when working on tasks that are intellectually stimulating, they may deem household duties overly routine, which drain their energy and motivation and negatively impact their work domain. Although there exists a large amount of research on how GMA impacts personal outcomes, little is known about its effect on family dynamics. This is certainly an important area for future research.

5.1.4 | “Can do” versus “will do”

Our comparison of the relative indirect effects of GMA and conscientiousness yielded mixed results. Supporting our expectations, GMA had stronger indirect effects on conflict and enrichment than did conscientiousness through occupational prestige, due primarily to the fact that occupational prestige shared a significant relationship with GMA and a nonsignificant relationship with conscientiousness. These results are consistent with the theoretical argument that in comparison to conscientiousness, GMA is a better predictor of one's maximal professional accomplishment because in order for one to advance one's career, one must exhibit high task performance that is primarily driven by the “cognitive capacity to acquire, process, and apply information” (Gonzalez-Mulé et al., 2014, p. 1225). Therefore, occupational prestige aligns with GMA more closely than it does with conscientiousness in terms of the underlying constructs that both tap into (i.e., cognitive ability, Cronbach, 1960).

Although we predicted that conscientiousness would have stronger indirect effects through coping than would GMA, the evidence was somewhat mixed, providing support on enrichment but not conflict. The lack of support on work–family conflict mirrors the findings in Gonzalez-Mulé et al. (2014): Despite theoretical argument that organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) would be more strongly predicted by personality (a will-do predictor) than by GMA (a can-do predictor), they found that OCB had about the same magnitude of relationships with personality and GMA. Together, these results suggest that coping with one's environment depends not only on what one is motivated to do in typical situations (conscientiousness) but also on what one is capable of doing in maximal situations (GMA). These results, however, need to be considered in conjunction with the total effect of GMA and conscientiousness on work–family outcomes. As one anonymous reviewer pointed out, conscientiousness appeared to have stronger total effects relative to GMA on three out of the four work–family outcomes (all but WFE). Thus, although GMA and conscientiousness may have divergent effects through the two different pathways (see Table 2), as a whole conscientiousness might exert greater effects than GMA. These results suggest that where managing the work–family interface is concerned, what an individual is motivated to do (will-do, or conscientiousness) could be more important than what he or she is capable of doing (can-do, or GMA).

5.1.5 | Boundary theory

Finally, we found that GMA and conscientiousness were connected to work–family outcomes through the use of coping styles and (for GMA only) their occupational attainment. These findings mirror research based on boundary theory (S.C. Clark, 2000). Specifically, boundary theory suggests that individuals negotiate the work–family boundary by using proactive and enactive means that allow them to either segment or integrate these domains. Individuals may engage in proactive boundary management by self-selecting into situations that align with their work and family role identities. They may also engage in enactive boundary management to ensure that the strength of the work–family boundary is consistent with their segmentation–integration preference (Methot & LePine, 2016). Additionally, how individuals

manage the work–family border is determined in part by their ability and willingness (Matthews & Barnes-Farrell, 2010). Juxtaposing our study with boundary theory research, one may argue that fundamental individual attributes such as GMA and conscientiousness may impact individuals' ability/willingness to engage in proactive and enactive boundary management that may have important implications on their perceived conflict and enrichment between the work and family domains. Thus, our results point to promising avenues for future research that integrates boundary theory with research on individual differences.

5.2 | Practical implications

GMA and conscientiousness are often considered two of the most important individual difference variables in the employee selection process due to their strong relationship with job and training performance (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). We show that GMA and conscientiousness can be associated with increases or decreases in work–family conflict and enrichment depending on the specific mediator that carries their effects. Given that GMA and conscientiousness are relatively stable constructs that are not alterable via interventions, organizations that want to intervene in the work–family outcomes of their employees should consider job demands, job autonomy, and financial well-being as viable intervention targets. For example, a recent study shows that the deleterious effects of job demands can be reduced when employees are able to complement each other's strengths (van Woerkom, Bakker, & Nishii, 2016). Thus, managers whose strengths lie in strategic and creative thinking may find their work less demanding when they are encouraged to collaborate with fellow managers who are more execution-oriented. Interestingly, our results related to the mediating role of family financial well-being are consistent with past research suggesting that family finances may impact work–family outcomes (Bhave, Kramer, & Glomb, 2010). Organizations may act upon this finding by tracking employees' satisfaction with pay while exploring programs that may help employees reduce the cost of family needs. Organizations might consider providing benefits that help subsidize employees' childcare (Li, Butler, & Bagger, 2018) or offering personal finance workshops to their employees in an effort to improve their financial well-being (Kim, 2007).

In addition, organizations might seek to help employees develop specific coping styles, raise awareness of the benefits of using the more adaptive coping styles for work–family outcomes, and encourage employees to adopt these coping styles as part of their behavioral routines. For example, Peng, Riolli, Schaubroeck, and Spain (2012) suggested that one organizational intervention to promote the use of problem coping is to have employees identify problematic situations over which they have control and plan ways to resolve those situations actively. Individuals may also reduce their tendency to use avoidance coping by engaging in positive self-talk, which means replacing negative statements about the self (“I wish I could just disappear so that this problem won't bother me anymore”) with more positive and functional statements (“I can take steps to deal with this problem,” Cheng & McCarthy, 2013).

5.3 | Limitations and future research

Perhaps the most apparent limitation of our study is that most of the variables used in our analysis were collected at the same point in time. Although the use of MIDUS I conscientiousness and the CFA marker technique in the additional exploratory analyses helped alleviate some concerns over common method variance, we still were unable to test causal relationships between the variables in our model. Longitudinal data in future research would not only allow for a stronger inference about the causal relationships we hypothesized, but also might reveal potentially interesting dynamic relationships among the present study variables. For instance, it is possible that work–family conflict and enrichment can exert influence on occupational prestige over time. On the one hand, work–family conflict may hinder employees' ability to focus on their career development, slowing down their career trajectories over time. On the other hand, work–family enrichment may provide opportunities for growth and personal development that provide impetus for career development, resulting in accelerated career growth. Building on the present findings, longitudinal investigations in the future will offer great opportunities to uncover dynamic relationships over time.

Relatedly, our operationalization of work–family enrichment and conflict treat these outcomes as levels that are relatively stable over time. However, researchers have recently begun to examine whether work–family outcomes

are more episodic in nature (Maertz & Boyar, 2011). For example, Shockley and Allen (2015) showed that episodic increases in perceptions of work importance and support from family members led to temporary increases in work-family conflict. Although conscientiousness is considered a relatively stable individual difference, researchers have also reported that general (noncontextualized) personality and domain-specific (contextualized) personality may predict outcomes differently. Shaffer and Postlethwaite (2012) showed that personality measures that had been contextualized to assess how employees behaved “at work” were more valid predictors of job performance than were non-contextualized measures of personality. The implication here is that researchers may increase the precision of models of the work-family interface by focusing on context-specific personality variables as predictors and episodic conflict and enrichment as outcome variables.

Finally, our study implicitly assumes that individuals may construct their work-family experience based on their attributes. This perspective fails to simultaneously consider the possibility that individual differences may lead people to evoke characteristic responses from others (Buss, 1987). As an example, Huang et al. (2017) examined how higher conscientiousness and agreeableness in employees may elicit supervisors to perceive higher levels of employee effort and greater degrees of interpersonal liking, which, in turn, lead to supervisors' greater compliance with justice rules when interacting with these employees. Similarly, we posit that high conscientiousness and high GMA may elicit more favorable reactions from supervisors, allowing supervisors to offer customized work arrangements (idiosyncratic deals; Liao, Wayne, & Rousseau, 2016). This may, in turn, contribute to decreased conflict and increased enrichment. We encourage future studies to involve other critical actors (e.g., supervisors, peers) in the work-family interface to explore this possibility.

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How to cite this article: Huang JL, Shaffer JA, Li A, King RA. General mental ability, conscientiousness, and the work-family interface: A test of mediating pathways. *Personnel Psychology*. 2018;72:291–321. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12307>

APPENDIX: STUDY SCALES AND ITEMS

Conscientiousness

Organized

Responsible

Hardworking

Careless (reverse-scored)

Thorough

Problem coping

I concentrate my efforts on doing something about it.

I take additional action to try to get rid of the problem

I take direct action to get around the problem

I do what has to be done, one step at a time.

I make a plan of action

I try to come up with a strategy about what to do.

I think about how I might best handle the problem.

I think hard about what steps to take.

Avoidance coping

I say to myself "this isn't real."

I refuse to believe that it has happened.

I pretend that it has not really happened.

I act as though it has not even happened.

I admit to myself that I cannot deal with it, and quit trying.

I give up trying to reach my goal.

I give up the attempt to get what I want.

I reduce the amount of effort I am putting into solving the problem.

Psychological job demands

How often do you have to work very intensively – that is, you are very busy trying to get things done?

How often do different people or groups at work demand things from you that you think are hard to combine?

(How often) you have too many demands made on you.

(How often) you have enough time to get everything done. **(reverse-scored)**

(How often) you have a lot of interruption.

Autonomy

On your job, how often do you have to initiate things—such as coming up with your own ideas, or figuring out on your own what needs to be done?

How often do you have a choice in deciding how you do your tasks at work?

How often do you have a choice in deciding what tasks you do at work?

How often do you have a say in decisions about your work?

How often do you have a say in planning your work environment—that is, how your workplace is arranged or how things are organized?

(How often) you control the amount of time you spend on tasks.

Financial well-being

How would you rate your financial situation these days?

How would you rate the amount of control you have over your financial situation these days?

Looking ahead 10 years into the future, what do you expect your financial situation will be like at that time?

In general, would you say you (and your family living with you) have more money than you need, just enough for your needs, or not enough to meet your needs?

How difficult is it for you (and your family) to pay your monthly bills?

Work-to-family conflict

Your job reduces the effort you can give to activities at home.

Stress at work makes you irritable at home.

Your job makes you feel too tired to do the things that need attention at home.

Job worries or problems distract you when you are at home.

Work-to-family enrichment

The things you do at work help you deal with personal and practical issues at home.

The things you do at work make you a more interesting person at home.

Having a good day on your job makes you a better companion when you get home.

The skills you use on your job are useful for things you have to do at home.

Family-to-work conflict

Responsibilities at home reduce the effort you can devote to your job.

Personal or family worries and problems distract you when you are at work.

Activities and chores at home prevent you from getting the amount of sleep you need to do your job well.

Stress at home makes you irritable at work.

Family-to-work enrichment

Talking with someone at home helps you deal with problems at work.

Providing for what is needed at home makes you work harder at your job.

The love and respect you get at home makes you feel confident about yourself at work.

Your home life helps you relax and feel ready for the next day's work.
