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WORK-LIFE CONFLICT, PERSONAL RESOURCES AND WELL-BEING OF EMPLOYEES IN THE GHANA PRISONS SERVICE

BY

SALOMEY OFORI APPIAH

Thesis submitted to the Department of Human Resource Management of the School of Business, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Business Administration (Human Resource Management)

APRIL 2022

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: ..... Date: 26/4/2022

Name: Salomey Ofori Appiah

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this research work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature..... Date 26/04/22

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Name: Professor Nana Yaw Oppong

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ABSTRACT

The prison officer pursues one of the most stressful occupations (Akoensi, 2018; Brodsky, 1982; Johnson et. al., 2005) and the difficulty associated with combining work with life responsibilities - the work-life conflict - is a key precursor to stress (Lambert et al., 2002; Triplett et al., 1999). The purpose of this study was to ascertain the moderating role of personal resources on the relationship between work-life conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Based on quantitative survey, a cross sectional study of employees of the Ghana Prisons Service was conducted. Data from 416 respondents were collected using questionnaires and analysed with frequencies and partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). The study revealed that work to life conflict had a negative relationship with the wellbeing of employees. Dimensionally, time-based work to life conflict was a significant negative predictor of wellbeing. Behaviour-based work to life conflict was a significant positive predictor of wellbeing but strain-based work to life did not significantly predict wellbeing. It was also found Life to work conflict had a significant positive relationship with the wellbeing of employees. Time-based life to work conflict was a significant positive predictor of wellbeing but behaviour-based and strain-based life to work conflict had no significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees. Emotional intelligence did not moderate; however, Spiritual intelligence moderated the interaction between work to life conflict and wellbeing but not life to work conflict and wellbeing. The study contributes to policy and knowledge by highlighting the role of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence on the work-life and wellbeing nexus.

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KEYWORDS

Work-life conflict

Work–to–life conflict (WLC)

Life-to-work conflict (LWC)

Time - based conflict

Strain-based conflict

Behaviour-based conflict

Spiritual intelligence

Emotional intelligence

Employee wellbeing

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DEDICATION

To my husband, James Kojo Kutin and my sons; Kweku Nuamah Kutin and Nana Kwame Nuamah Kutin.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AEI	Ability Emotional Intelligence
AMOS	Analysis of a Moment Structures
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BCE	Before Christ Execution
CA	Cronbach Alpha
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel Development
COR	Conservation of Resources
CR	Composite Reliability
CSE	Conscious State Expansion
EQ/EI	Emotional Intelligence
HR	Human Resource
HTMT	Heterotrait Monotrait Ratio
ILO	International Labour Office
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
LWC	Life to work conflict
OEA	Others Emotional Appraisal
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OLS	Ordinary Least Square
PMP	Personal Meaning Production
ROE	Regulation of Emotions
SEA	Self-Emotional Appraisal
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SI	Spiritual Intelligence
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

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SQ	Spiritual Intelligence/Quotient
TA	Transcendental Awareness
TEI	Trait Emotional Intelligence
UOE	Use of Emotion
USA	United State of America
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
WFC	Work - family conflict
WLC	Work to life conflict
WLEIS	Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

In relation to the previous two decades, many organizations, employees, and families have found it difficult to find the right balance between work and family responsibilities (Li, Shaffer, & Bagger, 2015). It is widely recognized that incompatibility or conflict between these two domains has negative consequences for employees' health and well-being (Charkhabi, Sartori, & Ceschi, 2016). This has prompted the need to consider the resources available to individuals that can be used to help deal with the conflict that emanates from these two domains.

Policies to address work-life conflict are still a big concern around the world. As a result, this study explores work-life conflict, personal resources, and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service using the lenses of role conflict theory, conservation of resource theory, and affective events theory. The study contributes to the work-life conflict literature by highlighting the effect of personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence on the relationship that exists between work-life conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

Background to the Study

With the rise of non-traditional families and the erosion of traditional gender norms, fewer people are living in a heterosexual, traditional breadwinner-homemaker household, where one spouse (the husband) specializes in work and the other (the wife) in childcare and domestic tasks (Breeschoten & Evertsson, 2019). There have been the effects of profound social, economic, and demographic shifts that have changed the nature and

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composition of the family and the current workforce (Sousa, Chambel & Carvalho, 2018). People are now living in dual-earning or single-parent households, combining having a paid job with family responsibilities (Eurostat,2015; OECD,2011). In other words. there has been an increase in the participation of women in the labour market (Eby, Bauer & Hammig, 2011; Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux & Brinley, 2005) and greater participation of men in family life (Bauer & Hammig, 2011, Kinnunem & Mauno, 1998).

There is also increase in globalization and diversity of the labour market, such as a greater number of diversified schedules. new contractual forms, and the need for employee geographical mobility (Sousa, Chambell & Carvalho, 2018). This has led to new family structures such as single-parent families and restructured families; and finally. a change in the guiding values of individuals, with an increasing number of societies attributing more importance to the quality of life and well-being (Sousa et al.. 2018; Sümer, Smithson, Guerreiro & Granlund, 2008).

All of these changes have made it difficult to manage and reconcile the roles in the family and work domains. These have led to a growing interest in this subject, with several studies in recent years contributing to the understanding of the causes and consequences of work-life conflicts (Williams, Berdahl & Vandello, 2016; Rodkin, Espelage & Hanish, 2015; Santos, 2011). The resulting redistribution of work and personal life roles have created new tensions and conflicts for men and women. Mounting evidence of negative outcomes for the individual, organization, and society from the difficulty of balancing work and personal life roles, has further fueled this research trend (Rajadhyaksha & Velgach, 2016). The number of disciplines examining this

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issue has grown as well and includes research from not only family studies, but management, psychology, health, and economics fields (Donaldson, Dollwet & Rao, 2015; Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011).

The major demographic and attitudinal shifts in employees, as well as the growing number of foreign assignments, highlight the importance for companies to tackle work and personal life issues as a fundamental business problem (Neal & Hammer, 2017). While the response to work and personal life issues differ considerably between various countries and organizations, several progressive US and European companies understand these problems and have begun introducing work and family programmes aimed at helping workers cope with role conflicts (Neal & Hammer, 2017; Parakandi & Behery, 2016). Furthermore, international organizations, such as the International Labor Organization (ILO) and the European Union, have started to address work and personal life issues on an international level and suggest an increased need for national policy. For example, an ILO convention, which was adopted in 1981, states that organizations need to help employees balance their demands for work and family (Neal & Hammer, 2017; Parakandi & Behery, 2016).

It is therefore important to understand how workers effectively perceive and manage their work-life interface in today's world of fervent searches for order (Xu & Cao, 2019; Trefalt, 2013). This is because people are any organization's precious assets and the two major domains in their lives, work, and non-work, are relevant for organizational studies (Majekodunmi, 2017; Lambert, Hogan, Kelly, Kim & Garland, 2014; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark & Baltes, 2011). These two domains coexist in an ideal world, without

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conflict. However, in the real world, problems, and concerns in one area will spill over into the other and create conflict (Sanz Vergel, Rodriquez Munoz & Nielsen 2015; Lambert et al., 2014). Since the pioneering work of Pleck (1977), there has been a consensus that work and personal life influence each other, and this has drawn the interest of most researchers and social analysts to the topic of work-life conflict (Suifan, Abdallah & Diab. 2016). European Agency for Safety and Health at Work Research has classified work-life conflict (WLC) as one of the most emerging psychosocial risk factors and highlights its negative consequences for the workforce (Kivimäk, & Härmä, 2018).

Work-life conflict is an extension of work-family conflict reflecting the reality that the work role may interfere with individuals' other personal life roles and interests. Besides the family role, these can range from time for friends, exercise, military service, education, having time for self and recovery (Kossek, 2016), volunteering, or being active in religious organizations. While work-family conflict remains a key factor for many employees, a challenge with current research is that scholars often methodologically and theoretically confound all forms of non-work conflict in the work-family measure (Wilson & Baumann, 2015). Consequently, some researchers such as Breeschoten and Evertsson (2019) use the term "work-life conflict" to reflect the many additional non-work demands in individuals' lives that are not restricted to those involving the family. Therefore, in this study, the term, work-life conflict is used.

Work-life conflict is an important issue in the context of sustainability of careers (Deery, & Jago, 2015). Originating from the organizational literature, work-life conflict measures unreasonable, contradictory, and often incompatible demands on an individual employee arising from personal life and

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work-related powers (Hartman, 2016; Griffin, Hogan, Lambert, Tucker-Gail, & Baker, 2010). Ghislieri, Gatti, Molino, and Cortese (2017) claimed that a conflict occurs between work, family, and private life when the demands associated with the demands of the other domain are incompatible.

Based on the work of Kahn et al. (1964), Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) conceptualized work-life conflict as a type of inter role conflict in which the role demands from the realms of work and non-work are mutually incompatible, such that involvement in one role makes involvement in the other more difficult. The definition is built on the assumptions of the role conflict theory (Kahn et al., 1978; 1964), which states that roles are embedded in expectations of appropriate behaviours and that engaging in a variety of incompatible roles could result in conflict because accomplishing one domain's expectations could decrease the capacity to address role expectation in another domain. In other words, this general theoretical term captures the reciprocal existence of personal life stressors affecting the worker in his or her work as well as stressors in the workplace that affect an employee in his or her personal life (Zhou, Meier & Spector,2019).

As a result, work-life conflict has evolved from early conceptualization as a unidirectional construct, with the direction of interference running from work to life (Akoensi 2018; Kopelman, Greenhaus, Connolly, 1983), to a bidirectional construct associated with unique domain-specific antecedents (Bowen & Zhang, 2020). These bidirectional influences of work and life can lead to two types of conflicts: work-life conflict (W-LC), or work interference with life; and life work conflict (L-WC), or life interference with work. These

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two are distinct but related constructs that form the overall concept of work-life conflict (Akoensi, 2018; Lambert, Hogan, Barton, 2002; Byron, 2005).

Work-Life conflict has substantial consequences for employees, their family members, and employers (Jackson& Fransman, 2018; Demerouti, Peeters, & Heijden, 2010). thus, affecting well-being. productivity, and costs. As a result of competing demands, limited resources. time. attention and energy are depleted, which could lead to various far-reaching negative outcomes including decreased job satisfaction, life satisfaction, job performance and affective organizational commitment, and increased job burnout and ultimately turnover intentions (Xu and Cao, 2019; Karatepe and Kilic. 2015; Zhao et al., 2014; Zhao and Mattila, 2013). These conflicts are also related to outcomes such as job boredom and low turnover rates as well as outcomes related to psychological distress (e.g., depression), and marital dissatisfaction with a resultant negative impact on job performance (Majekodunmi, 2017). It also creates negative outcomes such as stress, anxiety. depression, loss of control, dissatisfaction, absenteeism, tardiness, turnover. decrease in productivity and insufficient personal time (Yucel & Fan, 2019; Siti Aisyah et al., 2011; Irwan & Nor Azaian, 2011; Hamming, Gutzwiller & Bauer. 2009; Goodman & Crouter, 2009). Thus, work-life conflict (WLC) affects the well-being of employees.

Well-being is of immense significance in our lives in recent times. For individuals to sustain good motivation levels and physical and mental wellbeing, they need to feel good about themselves, their lives. and the events that occur in them (Bakker & Demerouti. 2018; Imaginário, Vieira & Jesus. 2013). Individuals often try and retain resources (such as money. time,

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conditions and personal characteristics) to ensure their well-being (Hobfoll, 2002). From the point of view of behavioural science, well-being has been defined as satisfying the goal, desires and needs of an individual through the actualization of their abilities and lifestyle (Kendrick & Krems, 2018; Emerson, 1985). Well-being is sometimes used alongside other terms such as happiness, quality of life, and satisfaction (Pinto, Fumincelli, Mazzo, Caldeira & Martins,2017; Fahri & Mary, 2004). Though the meaning of well-being is vague and difficult to quantify, with varying definitions and a lack of a widely accepted definition (Cooke, Melchert, & Connor, 2016), the bottom line is that well-being is usually seen as a representation of the state of life condition of people (Durand, 2015).

According to Conservation of Resource theory, individual differences can be considered as resources buffering the effects of stressful events on individuals (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018). Thus, individuals with more personal resources can cope with the loss of other types of resources, such as those caused by work-life conflict. At a time when technology and teamwork seem to get most of our attention, the role of individuals cannot be neglected as it is the human beings who provide intellectual power that creates technology, applies it for the completion of tasks and adapt it over time for sustainability and appropriateness of use (Cousins & Robey, 2015). They acutely activate the process of work accomplishment and no one can afford to neglect their great intellectual power and intelligence which may come in the form of emotional and spiritual intelligence. Intelligence is mainly concerned with the abilities such as looking for a relationship, the reason behind everything and judging things (Yadav, & Punia, 2016).

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Emotional intelligence is an important resource that buffers the negative relationship between work-life interface and its outcome (Szczygiel & Mikolajczak, 2018; Wang, Liao, Zhan & Shi, 2011). According to Zeidner, Matthews, and Shemesh, (2016) emotional intelligence is a construct consisting of four inter-related aspects, i.e., emotion perception. emotion understanding, emotion facilitation and emotion regulation. It represents individual differences in the ability and capacity to monitor and recognize one's own and other's emotions and to use this information to regulate one's emotions and actions (Radha, & Shree, 2017)

In addition, Bar-On (2000) conceptualized emotional intelligence as an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed and cope up with environmental demands and pressures. In other words, emotional intelligence is identified as the gift to recognize emotions, to aid our thoughts, to create emotions and to be aware of emotional facts by promoting emotional and intellectual development (Rana, Mahavidyalaya, Rathore, & Chadha, 2017)). which is distinct from spiritual intelligence (SI), also recognized as a buffer for absorbing the negative impact of work-life conflicts.

Spiritual intelligence (SI), involves a set of abilities, capacities, and spiritual resources one uses in everyday work life and personal life and can increase a person's adaptability and problem-solving ability, allowing the person to find meaning and purpose in life events, internal and external health, relaxation, and rejuvenation (Mirzaaghazadeh et al., 2014). Such intelligence is comprised of four aspects, namely critical existential thinking, personal meaning production, transcendental awareness. and conscious state expansion

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(King & DeCicco, 2009). Sheigal, Renard, & Shelton (2017) state that spiritual intelligence is characterized by harmony, peace, and balance. It allows individuals to feel that they have a greater purpose and meaning to fulfil in their lives and leads to an increased feeling of self-awareness (Srivastava, 2016).

SI aids individuals in handling limitations and discerning how to handle complex situations (Jacobs-Gray, 2017) and promotes an increase in the psychological well-being of individuals (Ahoei, Faramarzi, & Hassanzadeh, 2017).). According to Tasharrofi, Hatami, and Asgharnejad (2013), individuals who demonstrate higher levels of SI show greater resilience and experience less burnout. These authors also found that those with high levels of SI were better equipped to handle stressful events and solve a problem

Though the issues of work-life conflict, personal resources and wellbeing of employees are critical in every organization, it is observed that prison officers are more vulnerable to job-related stressors and strains than many other occupational groups (Kinman, Clements & Hart, 2017; Johnson et al., 2005; Kunst, 2011; Schaufeli & Peters, 2000). Research conducted in several countries have highlighted the working conditions that are particularly stressful in the prison sector such as high demands, time pressures, low input into decision making, role difficulties, procedural injustice, lack of resources and rewards, poor quality training, lack of support and poor relationships with managers, and co-workers (Bevan, Houdmont & Menear, 2010; Finney, Stergiopoulos, Hensel, Bonato & Dewa, 2013; Holmes & MacInnes, 2003; Lambert et al., 2009; Schaufeli & Peeters, 2000).

Other studies indicate that stressors that are intrinsic to the job role such as overcrowding, understaffing and aggression from prisoners are also powerful

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sources of strain for prison officers (Finney et al., 2013; Hartely, Davila, Marquart & Mullins, 2013; Humphery, 2011). Recently published statistics show that the incidence of serious attacks on prison staff by inmates are rising in the United Kingdom (Kinman, Clements & Hart, 2017) and the United States (Konda, Reichard & Tiesman, 2012). Work-related violence can be defined as any incident in which a person is abused. threatened. or assaulted in circumstances relating to his or her work (Health and Safety Executive, 1996). In addition to the direct impact of any injuries sustained on physical health, exposure to violence at the workplace can have serious negative implications for employees and organisations such as mental health problems, burnout, absenteeism, and turnover. Exposure to workplace aggression can also engender work-life conflict and threaten the quality of relationships with friends and family (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

The prison work is unique because prison institutions are responsible for holding offenders against their will. Unwilling clients may be maladapted, troublemakers and hostile (Lambert et., al, 2015; Brough & Williams, 2007). Moreover, prison institutions can be sullen environments where in addition to the bureaucratic dynamics found in other complex organizations. there exists an oscillation between stimulus overload and deprivation/boredom as well as the ongoing potential for danger and violence. Thus, working in a prison institution can lead to problems that can spill over and cause conflict at home. The prison officer pursues one of the most stressful occupations (Akoensi, 2018; Brodsky, 1982; Johnson et. al., 2005) and the difficulty associated with combining work with family responsibilities –the work-family conflict - is a key precursor to

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stress (Lambert et al., 2002; Triplett et al., 1999). Yet balancing work roles with family roles and responsibilities poses serious difficulties for many officers.

Despite these difficulties, only few studies have investigated work-life conflict among prison officers in Ghana. It is therefore crucial that personal resources that can help buffer the effect of work-life conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons service are explored. The present study is an attempt to address the gap in knowledge by investigating the effect of work-life conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison service and the moderating role of personal resources on the established relationship.

Statement of the Problem

The prevalence of work-life conflict has increased in most sectors of the economy and it is now one of the most pressing occupational health concerns (Kinman, Clements & Hart, 2017). Employees who work long antisocial hours in hazardous and emotionally demanding jobs, such as prison officers, are believed to be at particular risk (Kinman *et al.*, 2017). In Ghana, imprisonment rates have remained high over the last decades (Ghana Prisons service, 2018), exacerbating the pressure on those responsible for overseeing the incarcerated population.

Already notorious for facing exceptional and unique challenges due to the nature of their job roles, the work of a prison officer is bedevilled with several additional stressors on the prison officer that are noteworthy (Armstrong, Atkin – Plunk, & Wells, 20015; Lommel, 2004). The combination of such stressors has harmful effects that can spill over or emerge as poor work performance, low job satisfaction, and even increased risk of social or family

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issues such as divorce, mental health problems, and physical illness (Yucel, 2017; O'Neill & Rothbard, 2017; Armstrong, Atkin-Plunk & Wells, 2015).

Focusing on work-life tension among prison officers is relevant because of their specific background and public safety mandate. It is expected that a stable and professional workforce of prison officers will improve operational security for fellow officers while also maintaining a safe and secure prison atmosphere for prisoners and the country. This disparity, called work-life conflict, has a clear basis in broader organizational literature (Michel, kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011; Nohe, Meier, Sonntag, & Michel, 2015), and is one of the most critical challenges facing organisations, families and individual nowadays (Pheko,2013). Also, there is minimal prisons research (James, 2018; Lambert, Altheimer, & Hogan, 2010; Lambert, Hogan, Camp, & Ventura, 2006), with most of the available studies been conducted in single institutions in developed countries such as the USA (Boles et al., 2003; Frone et al., 1997; Netemeyer et al., 2005), Finland (Kinnunen and Mauno, 1998; Mauno and Kinnunen, 1999), and Australia (Elloy and Smith, 2003).

Moreover, previous research has focused on the direction of work-life conflict (i.e., life to work conflict; work to life conflict) (Stoevaet al., 2002) or on the form of Work-life conflict (time, strain, behaviour) (Carlson, 1999). To fully understand the work-life interface, both directions and forms of work-life conflict must be considered (Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The present study builds on past efforts by examining both the form and direction of work-life conflict in relation to the dispositional variables of interest. This study also goes beyond the mere examination of conflicts between work and family, which would obscure the fact that people occupy multiple

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roles in addition to their role as an employee and a parent. People are usually involved in multiple roles outside their family life, for instance, in leisure or community roles (Derks, Bakker, Peters & Van Wingerden, 2016). Hence, this study widens the focus in the broad nonwork domain. Therefore, our key concept is labelled "work-life conflict" (WLC) and can also be applied to people outside traditional family roles.

To date and to the best of my knowledge, only a few studies have considered the role of dispositional variables in the relationship between work-life conflict and wellbeing (Rantanen, Mauno, Kinnunen & Rantanen, 2011; Davies & Humphrey, 2011; Sharma, Dhar & Tyagi, 2015; Haar, 2006; Aryee, Luk, Leung & Lo, 1999; Matsui, Ohsawa, & Onglatco, 1995). Researchers such as Carlson have called for additional study of personality variable to provide further insight into the underpinnings of work-life conflict. The present study is designed to answer this call by examining specifically, the role of personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence in the work-life conflict and wellbeing nexus. For many, work-life conflict has become a persistent stressor in their working lives and therefore every factor that might decrease its detrimental effects on wellbeing should be investigated (Dettmers, 2017; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). It is argued that, individual resources may be especially important in the absence of other family friendly resources, either at work (e.g., organizational support) or at home (e.g., supportive partner) (Wayne, Lemmon, Hoobler, Cheung, & Wilson, 2017).

Similarly, the link between work-life conflict, personal resources and wellbeing has not been extensively studied in Ghana, especially in the Ghana Prisons Service. Prior studies employed qualitative approach and therefore did

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not test relationship (Akoensi, 2017). The rest of the studies on work-life conflict mostly have been limited to the other industries like the banking sector (Alutu & Ogbe, 2007; Ampofo & Boateng, 2008; Asiedu-Appiah, Dufie-Marfo & Frempong, 2013; Bedu-Addo, 2010; Oppong, 2006; Songsore & McGranahan, 2003; Vermeulen, 2006). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has so far investigated the relationships among work-life conflict, personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence and wellbeing of employees.

This study, therefore, seems to be timely, and in all sense reasonable in that going beyond what previous researchers focused on, this study can be considered a novelty in the work-life conflict literature using a sample of the employees of the maximum and medium prisons of the Ghana Prisons Service. Unlike most of the existing literature on work-life conflict, this study examines work-life conflict in a context rarely examined: the prison environment. This study is therefore based on the assumption that personal resources in the form of emotional and spiritual intelligence will ameliorate the negative effects of work-life conflict on the well-being of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to examine the moderating role of personal resources on the relationship between work-life conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

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Research Objectives

Specifically, the study seeks to:

1. Examine the influence of Work to Life conflict (WLC) on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.
2. Examine the effect of Life to Work conflict (LWC) on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.
3. Assess the moderating effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Work to Life Conflict and wellbeing nexus.
4. Examine the moderating effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Life to Work conflict and wellbeing nexus.
5. Analyse the moderating effect of Spiritual Intelligence on the Work to Life Conflict and wellbeing nexus.
6. Investigate the moderating effect of spiritual intelligence on the Life to Work conflict and wellbeing nexus.

Hypothesis

H1 Work to life conflict has a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

H_{1a} Time-based work to life conflict has a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

H_{1b} Strain-based work to life conflict has a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

H_{1c} Behaviour-based work to life conflict has a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service

H2 Life to work conflict has a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

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H_{2a} Time-based life to work conflict has a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

H_{2b} Strain-based life to work conflict has a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

H_{2c} Behaviour-based life to work conflict has a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service

H_3 Emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on the relationship between work to life conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

H_4 Emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on the relationship between life to work conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

H_5 Spiritual intelligence has a moderating effect on the relationship between work to life conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

H_6 Spiritual intelligence has a moderating effect on the relationship between life to work conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

Significance of the Study

The relevance of this study rests on its probable contribution to knowledge, policy-making and work-life balance. This study is the first comprehensive study of work-life conflict in Ghana Prisons Service. Thus, in terms of theoretical significance, the study advances knowledge and understanding of how the use of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence as personal characteristic/resources can be used to reduce the effect of work-life conflict on the wellbeing of employees. Consequently, universities and colleges in Ghana and other developing countries can apply the results for developing and redesigning programmes and courses related to work-life conflict. Also, being a pioneering study on the topic in the sector, the current study lends itself

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to be compared with later studies to identify developmental and possibly, cultural influences in the variables.

In addition to the potential theoretical contributions. the study has significant practical implications. First, the results of the study may reveal the role and position of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence in dealing with the effect of work-life conflict on the wellbeing of employees. In this way, the findings of the study are expected to benefit the Human Resource Department in formulating realistic and far-reaching policies for dealing with the work-life balance of the employees of the Ghana Prisons Service. Again, the findings of this study might enrich the competencies that HR professionals require to identify, utilize, and combine the skills, knowledge and experiences of employees in the service.

The prevailing literature will also see the contribution of this study by proposing a framework as to how to look at the various dimensions of the variables synergistically. More importantly, the study also highlights the applicability of the study's construct in the Prisons service. This is prominent as it helps in the determination of the need for the refinement of the study constructs. The exploration of the predictive relationships among the study constructs is another significant area of contribution of this research. This knowledge would be beneficial in helping the prison service to obtain an understanding of how work and life-related stress can be dealt with using a personal skill that can be learnt and how this source of stress can also affect the wellbeing of their employees. The study provides basis for future researchers to test its findings as well as the various possible hypotheses arising from it. This will help to build and strengthen the body of knowledge on the relevance of

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emotional and spiritual intelligence of the prison service as well as other security services in Ghana and Africa as a whole.

The findings presented in this thesis are important to workplace policymakers as work and family are two key parts of adult life. The stress that may result from the conflicting demands of these two domains is shown to have adverse effects on mental health. Reducing work-family conflict could potentially reduce adverse mental health outcomes which make up a high proportion of long-term sickness thereby minimizing adverse impacts for the employer in turn.

Also, the findings of the study will provide stakeholders, policymakers as well as those charged with the responsibility of implementing policies in the prison service, with empirical evidence on the importance of personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence for prison officers in helping to reduce the effect of work life conflict on their wellbeing. It was hoped that such information will inform decisions on recruitment of prison officers as well as the need to incorporate development programs that will stress on emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence into pre-service and in-service training for prison officers.

Within academia, this research builds upon previous studies, which used limited measures of work-family conflict and were often cross-sectional. Furthermore, the association between work-family conflict and the measures of wellbeing with the moderating role of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence had not been examined. This thesis examines the aforementioned associations cross sectionally.

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Delimitation of the Study

The current study seeks to address how personal resources can be used to reduce the negative effect of work life conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service. Although various resources have been identified in the literature, introducing all resources will not be feasible in this study. Thus, the study focused mainly on how emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence can help reduce the negative effect of work life conflict on the employees in the Ghana Prisons Service.

Though the scope of wellbeing is extensive, this study considered wellbeing in terms of life satisfaction, job satisfaction and physiological distress. The focus was on how work life conflict influences the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service. Work life conflict was considered as a bidirectional concept in the three main forms. That is time based, strain based and behaviour based. Finally, only employees of the Ghana Prison Service were eligible to answer questions relating to the study. Views expressed by all other persons were, however, noted and used where necessary.

Definition of Terms

1. Emotional Intelligence. It is a subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's and other's feeling and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions.
2. Spiritual Intelligence. It refers to all abilities, capacities, and spiritual sources that if applied in daily life can improve the quality of life.

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3. Work Life Conflict: It is a form of inter role conflict in which meeting the role demands of one role interferes with meeting the demands of another role.
4. Work to Life Conflict: this refers to the extent to which participation in the life role (e.g., Parenting) is hindered from participation in the work role.
5. Life to Work Conflict: refers to the extent to which participation in the work role is hindered from participation in the life role. An example is that family commitments to taking care of babies makes it difficult to work on evenings
6. Time-Based Conflict: This is when the number of conflicts perceived increases in proportion to the number of hours spent in both the work and life domains.
7. Strain-Based Conflict: This occurs when there is a spillover of negative emotions from one domain to the other.
8. Behaviour-Based Conflict: This occurs when specific behaviours required in one domain are incompatible with behavioural expectations in another domain.
9. Wellbeing: It is the utilization of an emotional, intellectual, physical, spiritual, and social dimension that expands one's potential to live and work effectively and to make a significant contribution to society.

Organization of the Study

The thesis is organized into seven chapters. Chapter one, the introduction, illustrates the background and statement of the problem, the objectives of the study, and a set of research questions. It also includes the

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significance of the study, the delimitation, the limitation, and the organization of the thesis.

Chapter two covers the theoretical review underpinning the relationship that exist among the variables. Chapter three covers the conceptual and empirical review on the relationships among the variables which is also based on the study's research problem, research questions and research objectives. It also talks about the strength and weaknesses in some of the measures employed in other studies and justification for limiting the study context to the Ghana Prison Service. From the empirical review, the conceptual framework of the study emerged. Major lessons learnt from the empirical review are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter four covers the methodological framework adopted for the study. It covers the research philosophy together with the research approach, the research design, the study area, the target population, sample and sampling procedure, instrument design, pre-testing, measurements of the variables, methods of data collection and analysis and ethical issues.

Chapter five provides the research findings following the main aim of the study. In light of this aim, six research objectives were established and addressed. Chapter six provides discussion on the results presented in chapter five. The discussion also takes cognizance of the theories and the conceptual framework discussed.

Chapter seven covers the summary, conclusions, and recommendations which draws together all aspects of this research in a concise manner. It also explores the possibility of extending this research in the future. At the end of the report are the bibliography and appendices.

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Chapter Summary

The chapter began with an untitled and short introduction that presented the problem under study, the significance of the study, how the study related to previous work and the theoretical underpinning of the study. The chapter followed with a background to the study, where the writer showed the relevance of the study by citing the findings of prior studies. The chapter continued with the statement of the problem and identified gaps in the existing literature. Subsequently, the purpose of the study was declared and six objectives were set to guide the study direction. Based on the stated research objectives, hypotheses were formulated. The significance of the study was later presented, followed by delimitations, limitations, the definition of terms and the organization of the study.

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CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL REVIEW

Introduction

The study aims to investigate the relationship among work-family conflict, personal resources, and wellbeing of employees. The focus of this chapter is on two distinct areas. The first part is the researcher assessment of the theoretical frameworks that underpin the current study. The objective was to elaborate on theories that explain the various variables being investigated in this study and to have a well-defined structure for the study.

Theoretical Review of the Study

Work-life research has confined itself to a few dominant psychological theories till now. Role Conflict theory, which was derived from early work on organizational stress by Kahn et al. (1964) has largely influenced the understanding of work-family conflict. The changing nature of work over the years with more women entering the workforce prompted the development of new theories which considered the linkages between 'work' and 'family'. More recently, work-family researchers have begun to explore other theoretical paradigms like affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989), and spill over theory (Staines, 1980) for understanding the linkages between work and family.

Poelmans (2001) referred to these as 'interface theories' because what happens in one domain (e.g., family) can have a causal impact on what happens in the other domain (e.g., work) (Frone, 2003). They adopt an integrative and

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dynamic view of work and family which propose a reciprocal relationship between work and family domains such that they mutually influence one another. The study was drawn predominantly from the conservative resource theory, role conflict theory and the affective event theory. These theories have been critically reviewed showing the bearings they have with this current study.

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Role Conflict Theory

Role conflict theory is one of the leading theories used in the extant literature when it comes to research on work-family conflict. It helps to understand the effect of work-family conflict on employee's affective and behavioural outcomes (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn. Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964). The work-life conflict concept is based on the role conflict theory as expounded by Katz and Kahn (1978); and Kahn et. al, (1964), which posits that the main determinant of an individual's behaviour is based on what others expect from them. In other words, the theory states that in most social situations and especially within organizations, the role that a person takes is central on understanding the behaviour of the individual.

According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), work life conflict is a form of inter-role conflict in which meeting the role demands of one role (e.g., work) interferes with meeting the demands of another role (e.g.. leisure or family). The definition is built on the assumption of the Role Theory (Allen. 2001), which states that roles are embedded in expectations of appropriate behaviours and that engaging in a variety of incompatible roles could result in conflict, because accomplishing one domain's expectations could decrease the capacity to address role expectations in another domain. In other words, individuals have a variety of demands from both work and life domains and that multiple life roles

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often result in inter role conflict as individuals have difficulty in performing all the roles successfully due to the conflicting demands (Wyland, Lester, Ehrhardt & Standifer, 2016). It is now generally recognised that work-life conflict is bidirectional, such that work can interfere with life and life can interfere with work (Charkhabi, Sartori & Ceschi, 2015). According to Tiedje et al. (1990), role theory is viewing the energies of individuals as finite and role demands as infinite such that role conflict, then becomes an inevitable, normal, and expected consequence of multiple roles. Role theory's basic premise is that people occupy many different roles at any given time which makes role conflict likely. Such role conflict is described as a stressful situation that results from discrepant role expectations and from the inability to resolve those incompatible expectations (Pomaki, Supeli & Verhoeven, 2007, p. 317).The theory argues that inter role conflict experienced by individuals will result in an undesirable state including decreased job satisfaction, life satisfaction, job performance and affective organizational commitment, increased job burnout, psychological distress, individual stress, depression, anxiety and ultimately turnover intentions (Xu & Cao, 2019; Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; Zhao and Mattila, 2013; Amstad, Meier, Easel, Elfering & Semmer, 2011; Schieman & Glavin, 2011; Zhao et al., 2014). This is as a result of depletion that results from competing demands on limited resources, time, attention and energy.

The theory further states that the expectation surrounding each of these diverse roles a person performs can lead to role conflict. This is because each role requires time, energy, and commitment. Such incompatibility is indicated by the fact that participation in the work role is made difficult by virtue of performing life roles and vice versa. The theory posits that different roles are

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performed by individuals which are bestowed on them by different societal structures such as personal life, work, and the community (Parsons & Shlis, 1971). It is assumed that role conflict is caused by prohibitions from external constraints that prevent individuals from fulfilling their multiple roles (Santos, Zahn, Silvestre & Silva, 2017). Poelmans, O"Driscoll and Beham (2005) confirm this, indicating that the ability of an individual in performing multiple roles leads to role ambiguity in a particular role or all the multiple roles, which has harmful effects on people's health, attitude, and wellbeing (Poelmans, O"Driscoll & Beham, 2005).

As a result, role conflict occurs when people are unable to take up the responsibilities in their personal life and at their workplaces (Derks, Van Duin, Tims & Bakker, 2015). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), also stated that any role characteristic that influences an individual's time involvement within a role can produce conflict between that role and another role. The theory explains that conflict is bound to exist when time spent on personal roles such as assisting any family member is devoted to activities within the work role. Different roles therefore compete for an individual's limited time resources which make it physically impossible to meet the demands from another role (Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly, 1983). This can be used to explain the fact that time and energy spent on individual personal life-related activities cannot be spent on work-related activities, thus creating work-life conflict. This means that additional time, energy, and commitment will be required for those competing demands. Consequently, it can result in the experience of conflict if there are not enough resources at the disposal of an individual to perform those roles (Goode, 1960). Explicitly, the theory suggests that the more time an individual

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spends on work-related activities the more they would experience Work to life conflict. Conversely, the more time an individual spends on family-related activities, the more they would experience life to Work conflict.

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Goode (1960) postulates that societal structures are made up of several roles and individuals cannot satisfy the demands of all roles. People must therefore continuously bargain and make decisions on roles they must satisfy, thereby attempting to adjust to the demands placed on them by multiple roles. Multiple roles contribute to strain and other pathology because of their individual demands in terms of time, obligations, and performance (Goode, 1960). Based on the tenets of this theory, researchers have postulated that role conflict results in a variety of negative consequences for the individual, in both the workplace and the family (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Williams & Alliger, 1994; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). However, Role conflict theory has been criticized by the expansionist views of scholars like Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) who advocate that role accumulation has in fact many benefits to offer the individual, such as knowledge, skills, sense of fulfillment and purpose, and it does not necessarily contribute to strain and pathology.

The role conflict theory has some limitation when applied to work life conflict studies. To date, role conflict theory has paid less attention to family roles, which is, by definition, essential to understanding work-life conflict. Role conflict theory however does not specifically indicate as to which of the roles affect the execution of the other. It does not recognize the fact that conflict can also occur if an individual is not able to fulfil his or her own expectations. Furthermore, role conflict theory is limited in explaining moderating factors which might buffer the relationship between work-life conflict and employees'

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affective and behavioural outcomes (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Regardless of these limitations, the theory adequately explains what happens when a person performs multiple roles. particularly, work-life conflict, which is a focus of the current study.

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Conservation of Resource Theory

Previous research suggested that WFC research could be extended by taking the perspective of conservation of resource (COR) theory (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007). The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory encompasses several stress theories (Hobfoll, 1989). Hobfoll (1989) provides a useful basis for understanding the relationship between work-family conflict and resources that are available to an individual in their work and family domains. The COR theory proposes that individuals seek to acquire and maintain resources that help them attain goals and reduce stress (Hobfoll, 1989; 2011). Stress occurs when circumstances in the environment threatens the loss of resources or an actual loss or depletion of resources or when the resources invested fail to generate expected gains (Hobfoll, 2002). The theory argues that resources could be broadly conceptualized as the total capability an employee has to fulfil his or her centrally valued needs (Hobfoll, 1989; 2011). In other words, Resources are defined as those objects, personal characteristics. conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions or energies.

Hobfoll (1989) identifies four kinds of resources whose loss or gain result either in stress or in wellbeing: objects (e.g., home, furniture); conditions (e.g., marriage, tenure, seniority); personal characteristics (e.g.. traits, skills,

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emotional regulation skills (Wang, Liao, Zhan & Shin, 2011)); and energies (e.g., time, money, knowledge). These resources may be functional in achieving one's goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001) and the loss of this resources, or threat of such a loss may cause the experience of stress such as work – family conflict.

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Hobfoll (2001), therefore, empirically developed a list of more than 70 resources relevant to the COR theory. The list ranged from work-related resources to non-work-related resources. Personal resources were identified as aspects of the self generally linked to resiliency (Hobfoll, et al., 2003) and to better emotional outcomes in the face of stress (Cohen & Wills, 1985). According to the COR theory, individual differences can be considered as resources buffering the negative effects of stressful events on individuals (Hobfoll, 1989). These differences in levels of resources may affect how individuals react to stress (or the loss of resources). Some persons may have better skills at minimizing their losses. Individuals with more personal resources can cope with the loss of other types of resources, such as resource loss caused by work – family issues. Emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence are considered to be important resources that are likely to buffer the negative effect of work-life conflict on the wellbeing of employees (Dasgupta, & Mukherjee, 2011; Faribors, 2010; Suliman & Al-Shaikh, 2007; Markes et al., 2008)

The COR theory explains stress outcomes for both intra- and inter-role stress. For example, employees experiencing work role conflict may come to believe that they cannot successfully perform the job. Consequently, they may be forced to invest more of their resources into the work role for fear of losing their job status. The COR theory proposes that inter-role conflict leads to stress

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because resources are lost in the process of juggling both work and family roles. University of Cape Coast https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui These potential or actual losses of resources lead to a negative "state of being," which may include dissatisfaction, depression, anxiety, or physiological tension. Some type of behaviour, such as planning to leave the work role, is needed to replace or protect the threatened resources. If this type of behaviour is not taken, the resources may be so depleted that burnout ensues (Hobfoll & Shirom, 1993; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998).

The COR model (Hobfoll, 1989, 2011; Hobfoll, Freedy, Lane, & Geller, 1990) has been positioned, and used as a suitable foundation for understanding the work and family interfaces. Grandey and Cropanzano (1999), explained that the model offers a strong conceptual framework as it explains stress outcomes for both intra-role and inter-role conflicts. On the backdrop of these suggestions, a sizeable number of studies have used the COR theory to successfully demonstrate and explain the links between the two domains (i.e., family and work) and to also explain how the conflicts may eventually affect organizational outcomes (e.g., Netemeyer, et al., 1996). Hobfoll (2011) further suggested that because what people value (e.g., well-being, peace, family, self-preservation, and/or positive views of self) appear to be universal, organizations might have no choice but to operate in accordance with people 's values and motives. The COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002) appears as the most influential theory explaining people's wellbeing since it describes how people react to the stressors in their environment and how these influences their wellbeing.

In summary, Hobfoll's (1989) COR theory offers a theoretical guide for comprehending the work-life literature. First, it suggests specific hypotheses about relationships between work and family roles and a broad range of

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outcomes. Second, CQR allows for predictions about the moderating relationship of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence among the work-life variables.

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Affective Events Theory

Weiss and Cropanzano, (1996), argues that affective experiences have effects on an individual's evaluative judgments about their jobs and work environments. Affective Events Theory provides a comprehensive account of the causes, consequences, and structure of affective experiences at work. It further states that work environment features (i.e., roles and job designs) influence attitudes directly, through a cognitive route, as well as indirectly through an affective route, the latter by determining the occurrence of positive or negative affective work events. Experiencing such daily hassles and uplifts leads to negative and positive affective reactions that in turn lead to affect - driven behaviours and work attitudes. Work attitudes may subsequently influence judgment-driven behaviours, such as turnover intentions.

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argue that workplace events trigger affective responses which after being accumulated over time will influence workplace attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational trust, and commitment. These attitudes will in turn impact upon workplace behaviour such as absenteeism, lateness, turnover, and productivity. Accordingly, the model assumes that emotions are not equal to job satisfaction. More specifically, job satisfaction, rather than constituting an affective phenomenon (Spector, 1997), is conceptualized as an evaluative judgment about one's job. This judgment should not be confused with real emotions that employees experience at work, because emotions have causes and consequences which are distinguishable

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from the causes of evaluative judgment such as, for example, job satisfaction (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

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The mechanisms suggest that work to family conflict and family to work conflict are sources of negative affective events which deplete individuals' psychological resources, promote experiences of negative emotions, and hinder the establishment of rewarding social relationships at work (Nohe et al., 2015). The repeated experiences of negative events at work disrupt the satisfaction level of individual's needs and could therefore negatively influence their job and life satisfaction and the psychological health. The prison job usually involves long working hours and irregular scheduling. Employees may experience difficulties in arranging time off from work, decreasing their ability to enjoy non work life such as leisure time. Both job satisfaction and life satisfaction are negatively influenced by work–life conflict (Xu & Cao, 2019; Lin et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2015). Thus, work–life conflict could result in a spillover effect, which has a negative effect on satisfaction in both work and life domain (Xu & Cao, 2019; Rice et al., 1992).

However, Affective Event Theory does not specify the kind of work environments or work events that may be associated with positive or negative affective reactions. According to Basch and Fisher (2000) few studies have explored the specific events that might arouse affect at work. In the present study, the negative events in the model are represented by work-life conflict.

Summary of the Theories Adopted

The work-life interface theories discussed above provide a useful framework for understanding the dynamics that exist between work and life and helps in explaining the consequences associated with work-life conflict. Based

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on the previously mentioned, it can be resolved that all the three theories contribute to the explanation of the nexuses among the variables. For example, Role conflict theory highlighted the conflict between the two main domains (work and life roles). Conservation of resources theory was also examined to capture the type of resources, specifically the personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence that can help individuals deal with the negative effect that the inter role conflict has on their wellbeing. Finally, the affective events theory was also used to explain how the inter role conflict as a source of negative affective events affects the wellbeing of individuals. The theories assume that multiple roles played by individuals lead to conflict and this conflict as a source of stress and a negative affective event affects the wellbeing of individuals. The personal resources an individual possess can be a buffer to deal with the effect that work-life conflict has on the wellbeing of employees.

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Chapter Summary

The chapter presented a theoretical review that provides assumptions for the study. In this respect, the role conflict theory and affective event theory highlighted the conflict between the two main domains (work and life) and how they influence the wellbeing of employees. Understanding the buffering nature of personal resources in the form of emotional and spiritual intelligence on the relationship existing between work-life conflict and wellbeing of employees were examined from the conservation of resource theory.

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CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL AND EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on the main concepts of the study, namely, work-life conflict, personal resources (emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence) and wellbeing of employees. This will enhance knowledge concerning the constructs used in this study. This chapter also reviews the literature on the empirical investigation of work-life conflict, personal resources, and wellbeing of employees. The rationale for reviewing the empirical literature is to gain more insight into the application of the main variables in the study. It is also expected that the review will facilitate the researcher's choice of methods or instruments. Another expectation is that the review will help the researcher to refine the problem statement, which, in turn, may necessitate some changes in the objectives. The chapter ends with a discussion on the conceptual framework for work-life conflict, personal resources, and wellbeing of employees.

Conceptual Review

This review will help enhance our knowledge concerning the constructs used in this study. The constructs are Work-life conflict, Personal resources and the Well-being of employees.

Work-Life Conflict

Two streams of research focusing on the work-life relation can be distinguished: One part of the literature has taken a conflict perspective and analysed the negative interdependencies between work and private life (e.g.,

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Eby et al., 2005). Another part has pursued a more balanced approach by University of Cape Coast https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui
recognizing the positive effects of combining work and family roles (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne et al., 2007). Yet. most of the research concerning academics, has been dominated by a conflict perspective (e.g., Kinman & Jones 2008a; Fox, Fonseca & Bao, 2011). The conflict approach is based on the scarcity hypothesis that individuals only have a limited amount of energy and time available (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Participating in different roles is assumed to be conflictual and stressful which reduces an individual's quality of life (Greenhaus & Powell. 2006).

Conceptually, the work and family interface are viewed as one that is either in balance or in conflict. Some studies examine work-life balance while others focus on work-family conflict yet some uncertainty remains regarding their relation vis-á-vis one another. Many studies and actors (e.g., the European Union) treat balance and conflict as existing on opposite ends of a continuum, but as shown by Carlson, Grzywacz, and Zivnuska (2009), they are theoretically distinct concepts, that is 'balance 'is more than the absence of conflict. Thus, the terms work-family balance and work-family conflict (WFC) reflect the perspective that is viewed as either negative (conflict) or positive (balance).

Numerous conceptual approaches are employed when the interplay between work and life is studied. Mostly, a distinction tends to be made between 'work-life' and 'work-family. A key assumption of work-family conflict is that the demands and expectations of work (e.g., working late, travel) often conflict with those of the family (e.g., picking up a child after school to be able to attend their soccer practice or music lesson) or taking a parent to the doctor when they are sick and cannot drive themselves. When an individual's multiple roles such

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as work and family become incompatible with each other, role conflict occurs (Kahn et al., 1964). Work-life conflict is an extension of work-family conflict reflecting the reality that the work role may interfere with individuals' other personal life roles and interests. Besides the family role, these can range from time for friends, exercise, military service, education, having time for self and recovery (Kossek, 2016), volunteering, or being active in religious organizations.

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While work-family conflict remains a key factor for many employees, a challenge with current research is that scholars often methodologically and theoretically confound all forms of non-work conflict in the work-family measure (Wilson & Baumann, 2015). Consequently, some researchers such as Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman, and Garden (2005) use the term "work-life conflict" to reflect the many additional non-work demands in individuals' lives that are not restricted to those involving the family. The concept examined in this study is work-life conflict.

Historically, the study of work-life conflict can be traced back to a post-World War II debate on gender roles (Bardoel, De Cieri & Santos, 2008; Barnett, 1998). The most widely cited definition of work-life conflict in the literature is by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from work and family/life domains are mutually incompatible in some respect, that is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by participation in the family (work) role" (p. 77). This definition has been derived from the interaction among the role theory, scarcity hypothesis and the resource drain theory. Role theory posits that various life roles result from the expectations of others and individual beliefs regarding

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appropriate behaviour for a particular role (e.g., subordinate, co-worker, spouse, mother; Kahn et al., 1964). Thus, role theory suggests that life domains entail multiple roles where numerous demands are placed on the individual, often resulting in conflict (e.g., inter role conflict; Kahn et al., 1964).

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Similarly, resource drain theory (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Small & Riley, 1990) suggests that an increase of resources (time, attention, and energy) spent in one role results in a decrease of resources available in the other. Rooted in role and resource drain theories, and derived from a scarcity hypothesis – where people operate under a fixed number of resources such as time and energy – conflict theory suggests that life domains can be incompatible, resulting from different norms and requirements (Burke, 1986; Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990); therefore, increased role performance in one domain results in decreased role performance in the other domain.

Individuals engage in many divergent roles every day that come with different responsibilities and challenges, which can lead to work-life conflict (Cheng & McCarthy, 2013). Work-life conflict does not have to be about one having supremacy over the other; work-life conflict can be about how work and non-work responsibilities can coexist in harmony (Lissonet al., 2013). As Foy (2015) and others (Janget al., 2011; Murphy & Doherty, 2011) have noted that the relationship between work and life is, for example, family-friendly; balanced; conflicted; and flexible. Individuals have limited time, energy, and resources to deal with their multiple responsibilities; at times, one role can spill over into the other, which gives rise to conflict (Cheng & McCarthy, 2013). Work-life conflict is conceptualized as the consequence of "resources being lost in the process of juggling both work and family/life roles" (Grandey &

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Cropanzano, 1999, p. 352). Work-life conflict is defined as "...a form of inter-role conflict in which work and family demands are mutually incompatible and meeting demands of both the domains is difficult" (Higgins, Duxbury & Lyons, 2007).

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Higgins and Duxbury, 1992, notes that work-life conflict occurs when the cumulative demands of roles within work and personal life are incompatible so that involvement in one role is made more difficult by participation in the other. Thomas and Ganster, (1995) submit that Work-life conflict is a particular type of inter-role conflict in which pressures from the work role are incompatible with the pressures from the life outside of the work role. Wayne, Musisca and Fleeson, (2002) also defines work-life conflict as the stresses and responsibilities spilling over into the other from one domain.

In the work of Greenhaus, Tammy, and Spector, (2006) they noted that work-life conflict exists when the expectations related to a certain role do not meet the requirements of the other role, preventing the efficient performance of that role. It could therefore be said that the conflict between work and family/life domains tends to stem from the conflict between the roles. Several studies reveal that work and family are not two separate domains as they are highly interdependent, having a dynamic relationship with one another. While family life is affected by the factors at work, the reverse is also experienced (Mugunthan, 2013; Trachtenberg, Anderson, & Sabatelli, 2009; Namasivayam & Zhao, 2007).

Originating in the organizational literature, the work-life conflict concept measures excessive, conflicting, and sometimes incompatible demands on an individual employee that emanate from forces within the family and work

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domains (Boles, Johnston, & Hair, 1997; Griffin, Hogan, Lambert, Tucker-Gail, & Baker, 2010). Armstrong, Wells and Atkin-Plunk, 2015, notes work-life conflict as a general theoretical concept that captures the reciprocal nature of family stressors affecting the employee in his or her workplace, as well as workplace stressors that affect an employee in his or her family domain. Boles, Johnson, and Hair (1997, p. 18) provide further insight when they suggest that work-life conflict "results from trying to meet an overabundance of conflicting demands from two domains - work and family/friends/outside commitments." Responsibilities in both areas are important to individuals, yet, when taken together, often place unreasonable demands on an individual. Hofacker and Konig, (2013) also submitted that work-life conflict is a challenge, tension and trade-off associated with the settlement between work and family tasks. Simply put, work-life conflict occurs when work and home roles spill over and cause conflict for a person (Buonocore & Russo, 2012).

Mutually incompatible demands from the work and non-work domains are common in today's work life and can lead to work-life conflict (Sturges & Guest, 2004). European Agency for Safety and Health at Work Research has classified work-life conflict (WLC) as one of the most emerging psychosocial risk factors (Kossek, Lewis & Hammer, 2010). Westman, Etzion and Gortler (2004) stated that a conflict between work and life emerges when demands associated with one domain are incompatible with the demands associated with the other domains. In line with this, Shaffer, Joplin, and Hsu (2011) explain work-life conflict as the incompatibility between work and life role pressures. In other words, it is a lack of fit between life responsibilities and work objectives (Becker & Huselid, 1998). Employees participating thoroughly either in

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organizational affairs or in life commitments may ultimately face a conflict in balancing both domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) which further affects their personal, family, and organizational well-being. The personal consequences of work-life conflict include health issues, lifelong stress, psychological symptoms, and attitudes whereas work and family issues comprise strain, inefficiency, withdrawal, and some attitudinal swings (Shaffer, Joplin & Hsu, 2011).

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Models of Work-Life Conflict

Work-family/life research has identified numerous mechanisms linking work and family domains. There are six models that can be used to explain the effects of work-family/life conflict. They include, the segmentation model, the congruence model, the identity or integrative model, the spill-over model, the compensation model and the resource drain model (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Frone, Barnes, & Farrell, 1994).

The segmentation model explains that life and family represent two separate unrelated domains that do not influence each other, while the congruence model suggests that since work and family share a common cause, they can have either a positive or negative correlation and that any relationship found between the two is spurious. The identity or integrative model suggests that work and family are so closely intertwined that any attempt to differentiate between the two would be futile.

The spill over model hypothesizes that one domain affects another by way of a positive relationship and there is spill over from one domain to the other. For example, an employee who is in a negative mood state at work will experience a negative mood state at home, as the negative effect carried over

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from the workday would spill over into his or her home life. Likewise, a positive mood state at work would lead to a positive mood state at home. The compensatory model suggests that there is a negative relationship between work and family, and that, for example, reduced satisfaction in one domain would lead a person to try to make up for this by increasing energy exerted towards some aspect in the other domain.

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Finally, the resource drain model states that the negative relationship that exists between work and family occurs as a result of one domain using up time and energy that are needed for the other domain. The results of majority of the empirical studies examining these reactance models supports the spillover effect. The spillover effect is the term used to describe the occurrence of a mood, energy, motivation, etc. from one domain to the other. A positive spillover effect occurs when a positive state in one domain leads to a positive state in another domain, thereby facilitating or enhancing the second domain and vice versa. However, conflict continues to be a dominant paradigm for most work-family research (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002) even though more recently, other linkages such as facilitation (e.g Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Hill, 2005) and work-family enrichment (Greenhause and Powell. 2006) have joined the list. This could be because work and family tend to work as greedy institutions wherein an individual's fixed or scarce resources of time and energy result in a zero-sum game making conflict inevitable (Hill, 2005).

Directions of Work-life conflict

Conflict theory claims that work and family environments are incompatible because they have distinct norms and requirements (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Specifically, work-life conflict is defined as a form of inter-role

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conflict in which the role pressures from the work and life domains are mutually incompatible in some respect (Katz & Khan, 1978). That is, participation in the work (life) role is made more difficult by participation in the life (work) role. (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). In other words, according to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), work-life conflict occurs when strain from participation in one role, time devoted to the requirements of one role or specific behaviours required by one role makes it difficult to fulfil the requirements of the other role. In other words, participation in the work role is made more difficult by participation in the family role.

Early work in this area treated the conflict as being a one-way process from work to home (Allen, et al., 2000). Later work, however, expanded this premise and proposed that conflict can go in both directions. That is, this conflict between the two (i.e., work and life) roles can be bidirectional (Brough & O'Driscoll, 2005; Frone, 2003; Frone, Russell & Cooper. 1992) and contains two components; work-to-life conflict and life-to-work conflict. Thus, two types of inter role conflict can be distinguished: (a) work-to-life conflict (WLC), referring to a situation in which role pressures at work hamper functioning at home, and (b) life-to-work conflict (LWC), referring to role pressures at home interfering with functioning at work.

Work to Life Conflict (WLC)

Work-to-life conflict can arise because of demands at work, making it more difficult to accomplish tasks associated with one's family. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) state that work-to-life con conflict occurs when contribution in the work role creates problems in the contribution of the family role. That is the negative aspects of the job permeate the family/social life. In other words,

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according to Michel et al. (2001), this is where work issues and problems spill over and cause problems and interfere with family/life issues. Wayne, Musisca and Fleeson (2002) note that work to life conflict is when problems at work spill over to the home settings. That is, this is where an employee brings problems and stress home from work that affects the quality of family life. For example, a prison officer who has been involved in an altercation with a violent inmate may come home and take out tension and anger on his or her family.

Life to Work Conflict (LWC)

Similar to work - to -life conflict, life–to–work conflict occurs when responsibilities associated with one's family roles interfere with work-related demands (Netemeyer et al., 1996). In other words, this conflict arises when the meeting of family demands by an individual creates a disturbance in his/her work-life. According to Netemeyer et al., (1996), life-to-work conflict is a situation where role pressures at home interfere with functioning at work. That is where problems, conflicts, and crises at home spill over to the work settings. In other words, it occurs when harmful features of one's home life negatively influence the employee at work. For example, a prison officer going through a bitter divorce may take out his or her emotional tension and frustrations on inmates.

Dimensions of Work-Life Conflict

The construct of work-life conflict (WLC) is multi-dimensional and occurs when time devoted to the requirements of one role or strain from participation in one role or specific behaviours required by one role makes it difficult to fulfil the requirements of the other role. (Greenhaus & Beutell,

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1985). Different types of both work-to-life conflict, as well as life-to-work conflict, are characterized by different types of conflict originally discovered by Greenhaus & Buetel (1985). Based on role theory and in their definition, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) proposed that work-life conflict can be decomposed into three forms: time-based conflict, strain-based conflict, and behaviour-based conflict. This decomposition according to Lambert et al. (2006) will better help to assess the mechanism associated with this conflict resulting in negative workplace outcomes.

Time - Based Conflict

Time-based conflict is the most frequently examined component of work-life conflict (Kinman, Clement & Hart, 2016). It builds on the utilitarian perspectives (Lobel, 1991), which posit that time is a scarce resource and therefore when an individual devotes time to the demands of one domain (work or family) he/she consumes the time that may be needed to meet the demands of the other domain (work or family). This source of work-life conflict arises because time spent on activities within one role generally cannot be devoted to activities within another role (Greenhaus & Beutell. 1985, p. 77). In other words, time-based conflict occurs when role pressures stemming from the two different domains compete for the individual's time (e.g.. requiring employees to work late with little notice might make it difficult for employees to meet family obligations, like picking up a child at day-care) (Frone. 2003; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992).

Lambert et al. (2006) defined time-based conflict as work demands that result in home conflict because the officer is spending insufficient time tending to family needs. In other words, conflict may arise when performing demands

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in one domain (e.g., work) is time-consuming to such a degree that it impedes role performance in the other domain (e.g., family). That is, job-induced separations absorb employees' time for a certain period, making them unavailable for the family and vice versa (e.g., working long, anti-social and sometimes unpredictable hours will constrain opportunities to spend time with family or to relax and recover from work). Time-based conflicts are common in organizations, including corrections, which require staffing around the clock every day of the year - including holidays. For example, a staff member may not be able to miss work to attend a play or school event of a child or a staff member may be forced to work mandatory overtime.

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Time-based conflict is related to how many hours per week a person works versus how many hours they are not at work. The number of hours worked is a cause of work-family conflict. Time-related conditions such as long work hours, schedule inflexibility, shift work requirements, and overtime/evening duties are consistently related to WLC (Byron, 2005, Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996).

Strain-Based Conflict

Strain based conflict occurs when a strain, dissatisfaction, anxiety, and fatigue from one domain (work or life) makes it difficult for the individual to meet the demands of the other domain (work or life) (Greenhaus & Beutell,1985). Stressful situations in one domain or resulting from one domain can cause the employee to suffer from tension, fatigue, irritability, excitability, depression, and/or shock which can ultimately affect the other domain. Work stress is caused by conflict within one's occupational role, work role ambiguity, and work role overload (Khan & Byosiere, 1992) and leads to role pressure and

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incompatibility (Greenhaus & Beutell,1985). Conversely, family-related stress such as marital and parental conflict can lead to interference with work roles (Byron, 2005). Work/life conflict that results from a strain from a given role exists when this strain affects one's performance in another role.

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In other words, Strain-based conflict arises when negative emotional reactions to work 'spill over' into the personal domain and vice versa (Kinman & Jones, 2001). That is the demands and tensions from work negatively impact the quality of a worker's home life" (Lambert et al., 2006, p. 372). Strain-based conflict is more likely to occur in correctional institutions than in many other types of organizations because staff must deal with unwilling clients who can be sometimes manipulative and dangerous. While staff may be told that what happens in the correctional institution should remain there when the person goes home, this is not realistic. For example, a correctional staff member who has dealt with an uncooperative and verbally abusive inmate may take his or her frustration and anger home and take it out on family and friends (Armstrong & Griffin, 2004).

Behaviour-Based Conflict

Behaviour-based conflict occurs when specific behaviours required in one role are incompatible with behavioural expectations in another role. According to Greenhaus, Allen, and Spector (2006), behaviour-based conflict is where conduct that is expected in one role is incompatible or counterproductive in another. The authors claim that this type of work-life conflict manifests itself depending on the behaviours required by the type of job; in the context of prison officers, it may manifest itself as an authoritarian interactive style with people in other life domains). Lambert, Hogan, and

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Altheimer (2010) also note behaviour-based conflict as the incompatibility between the correctional officer's role in the workplace and their role at home. For example, they suggested incompatible learned behaviours in the correctional environment could include "being suspicious and questioning the actions of others, [which] may not be appropriate when dealing with people, particularly family members and friends, and this can lead to conflict for the person" (p. 42).

Also, Armstrong and Griffin, (2004) view behaviour-based conflict occurring when certain behaviours which an individual uses and are appropriate in one domain (work or family) are incompatible with the behaviours that are desired in the other domain (work or family). These behaviours developed in one domain (e.g., work) interfere with the behaviour that is required to properly perform role responsibilities in the other domain (e.g., family). For instance, one's job can involve certain rules of conduct, such as strictly obeying or giving orders, which may be considered undesirable in family life. In other words, "Specific patterns of in-role behaviour may be incompatible with expectations regarding behaviour in another role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985: 81).

According to Kinman, Clements and Hart (2016), working in corrections presents many opportunities for the different forms of work-life conflict. Time-based conflict is common in some professions, such as corrections, which require staff to work shifts 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, 365 days a year. Additionally, correctional workers can be required to work mandatory overtime to respond to institutional crises and emergencies. Furthermore, working in corrections can be a strain. The never-ending demands associated with the job may result in correctional employees suffering from

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tension, fatigue, irritability, excitability, depression and/or shock. Behaviour-based conflict can result when correctional staff are required to learn roles at work that are not necessarily appropriate in social and family life, such as barking orders at or questioning the activities of family members.

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Concept of Spiritual Intelligence

Intelligent quotient became extremely popular in the early twentieth century as a method of evaluating and assessing an individual's intelligence (Shuka & Gupta, 2018). Job performance, financial advancement, and 'social disorders' are all linked to the intelligence quotient (IQ). It does not, however, account for other aspects of intelligence, such as creativity (Gavrila, 2005). The material and mental activities of a researcher were catered to by IQ. It utterly failed to respond to the human spirit's desire for creation. Daniel Goleman introduced the concept of another quotient, the emotional intelligence quotient in the mid-1990s (Goleman, 1995). EQ enables a person to assess the scenario in which he finds himself and to act correctly within those boundaries, allowing the situation to guide him (Selman, Selman, Selman & Selman, 2005). It has been stated throughout the last decade that even EQ is insufficient to deal with the problems that people experience in their personal and professional lives. This is because, while EQ allows one to adapt one's feelings in response to the situation, it cannot change negative feelings into positive ones (Gavrila, 2005).

Previous researchers and authors such as Gardner (2006), Goleman (2006), Salovey and Mayer (1990), Bar -On and Parker (2000), and Albrecht (2006), had also proposed the concepts of multiple intelligences, emotional intelligence, and practical intelligence to deal with various issues and problems in life and at the workplace. However, these bits of intelligence, according to

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Abas and Othman (2018) are inadequate to completely tackle the problems because not all problems can be controlled or manipulated as some of them are beyond our mental and physical abilities to manage and solve.

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Spiritual intelligence is a relatively new concept which results from a modern viewpoint in psychology, i.e., paying attention to spirituality (Rostami & Gol, 2013). Although in the history of psychology, some famous psychologists such as William James (1902), Karl Jung (1969) and Gordon Allport (1950) have paid attention to the field of religion, special attention has been paid to this subject during the recent decades (Rajaee, 2010). According to Garg (2017), the popularity of the concept of spirituality is increasing exponentially in the field of human resource management and both academicians and practitioners are looking at spirituality to solve modern-day human resource challenges.

Gardner (1999) first introduced the theory of multiple intelligences, which posits that intelligence is more than a single property of the human mind. Intelligence is the strongest predictor of cognitive achievements as well as school and academic performance (Musek and Maravic, 2004, p. 5). In his theory of multiple intelligences, Gardner (1999) included nine different types of intelligence (natural, musical, logical, existential, interpersonal, physical, linguistic, emotional, and spatial). He did not include the concept of spiritual intelligence in his theory, instead, he used the concept of existential intelligence as viable which is concerned with the "ultimate issues" of life (Gardner, 1999). According to Halama & Strizenec (2004), existential intelligence can be defined as an ability to find and realize meaning in life. Based on this definition, Halama

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& Strizenec (2004) suggested that the ability to find and realize meaning in life is an important element of SI.

Emmons (2000) took it a step further in presenting the evidence that spirituality meets the criteria for intelligence. Since SI involves a set of abilities that draw on spiritual resources, it can be concluded that existential and SI are non-identical but mutually related and overlapping constructs (Halama & Strizenec 2004). In other words, both are "related and overlapping constructs with some common as well as unrelated aspects" (p. 15). Drawing on Gardner's definition of intelligence, Emmons (2000b) argued that spirituality can be viewed as a form of intelligence because it predicts functioning and adaptation and offers capabilities that enable people to solve problems and attain goals.

Researchers do not agree with a single definition of spirituality. In other words, there remain doubts about what spiritual intelligence means, involves and its key elements. It has been defined through different concepts, such as inner experiences (Dillard, 1982); an attitude of openness and care (Milliman et al., 2003); morality (Kohlberg & Ryncarz, 1990); faith (Fowler, 1981); workplace integration and connectedness (Ingersoll, 2003); compassion (McCormick, 1994); respect, humility and courage (Heaton, Scmidt-Wilk & Travis, 2004); common purpose (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2004); inclusiveness and interconnectedness (Marcqus, Dhiman & King, 2005); inner consciousness (Guillory, 2000); feelings that energize action (Dehler & Welsh, 1994); a sacred force that implies life (Nash & Mclennan, 2001). In the meta-analysis of the literature of spirituality, Karakas (2010) found 70 different definitions of spirituality. Case and Gosling (2010) have rightly concluded that the concept of

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spirituality is plagued by problems of definition but there is emerging consensus over the utility of workplace spirituality for both employees and employers.

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Few other authors, such as Zohar and Marshall (2000), have equated spirituality with hyper or superintelligence. According to the two authors, spirituality may be defined as contextualizing, meaning giving and transformative intelligence. Such a broader definition of spirituality circumscribes both intelligence quotient and emotional quotient. Emmons (1999), defined spirituality as the search for, and the experience of elements of sacred meaning, higher consciousness, and transcendence. Emmons (2000) also noted that spirituality helps a person to go beyond the physical and material world to experience a higher state of self-realization. The author elaborated further, stating that spirituality could be seen as a quality that is present in every employee to a somewhat different extent. Spirituality may be referred to as the ability of an individual to get connected with complete self, with others and with complete universe too (Mitroff & Denton, 1999). Krishnakumar and Neck (2002) defined spirituality as a perennial search for meaning and fulfilment of life. Furman, Benson, Canda, and Grim Wood (2005) also support the view of search on the purpose of life.

According to Wolman, (2001), everyone has their inborn spiritual capacities that give meaning and purpose to life. Understanding from Gardner's definition of intelligence as the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings. Emmons (2000) recommended spirituality as an element of intelligence because it predicts functioning and adaptation and offers capabilities that enable people to solve problems and attain goals. He also notes that spiritual intelligence entails the

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abilities that draw on such spiritual themes to predict functioning and adaptation and to produce valuable products or outcomes. Zohar & Marshall (2000) stress the utility of SI in solving problems of meaning, value, and those of an existential nature, concurring with Vaughan (2002) and Wolman (2001).

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Looking at spirituality through the lens of intelligence, Emmons (1999) writes, "SI is a framework for identifying and organizing skills and abilities needed for the adaptive use of spirituality" (p. 163). Hence, SI can be differentiated from spirituality in general, spiritual experience, (e.g., a unitary state), or spiritual belief, (e.g., a belief in God). (Amram, 2007). However, the theory and research of spirituality and SI were well-reviewed by many authors and researchers (Emmons, 1999; MacHovec, 2002; Mark, 2004; Schuller, 2005; Sisk & Torrance 2001; Wolman, 2001; Zohar & Marshall. 2002; Nasel, 2004; Amram, 2009)

Zohar and Marshall (2000) recommended that spiritual intelligence is a type of intelligence that helps people address and solve problems of meaning and value in their life. George, (2006), also notes that spiritual intelligence is important to assist a person in finding the deepest and most inner resource from which the capacity to care, the power to tolerate and adapt is obtained. Spiritual intelligence in the workplace according to Tee et al., (2011), helps workers in the context of their relationships and helps them align their values with a clear sense of purpose that demonstrate a high level of integrity in work.

Nasel (2004) and Hosseini et al., (2010) also notes that spiritual intelligence is an individual's ability to utilize spiritual talents to know more, search for meaning and analyse existential, spiritual, and practical issues. In other words, spiritual intelligence is the adaptive use of spiritual information to

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facilitate daily problem solving and achieving (Sohrabi & Naseri, 2009). Individuals with higher spiritual intelligence have more flexibility, self-awareness, insight, and a comprehensive approach in life (Ebrahimi et al, 2012). Several studies have shown that spirituality has a positive relationship with life satisfaction, purposefulness, as well as physical and mental health and well-being (Pargament & Sanders, 2007, Fallah Joushani, 2010). Mohammadyari (2012) also noted that parents with higher spiritual intelligence grow children with higher mental health and vice versa. He explains spiritual intelligence as a human ability that helps to creatively plan questions of life and helps parents of young children affect the mental health of their children effectively.

In the view of Emmons (2000), spiritual intelligence is an adaptive use of spiritual information to solve problems and achieving goals in daily life. Further, Staude (2005) asserted spirituality as the transformation of physical, occupational, rational, intellectual, and emotional aspects of one's life. Fariborz, (2010) also noted in a stressful situation the innate source which can help an individual is spirituality because it gives meaning and purpose to life. A person's spiritual attributes are the most essential and animating force that is believed to be the invisible, life-affirming energy in oneself (Fry, 2003). Also, multiple studies have illustrated the significance of employees' spiritual characteristics in a workplace that should not be overlooked (Sheikh, Inam, Rubab, Najam, Rana & Awan, 2019). Spirituality exists in the hearts and minds of people everywhere, within religious traditions and independently of tradition (Vaughan, 2002). That is, almost everyone has the element of spirituality that is sometimes supported by religious values and triggered by non-religious beliefs

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(Fruzzetti, 2006). Likewise, everybody comes with a spirit and a body in the workplace (Sheikh et al. 2019).

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In one of the earliest definitions, Zohar, and Marshal (2000) defined spiritual intelligence as that which is used to develop our longing and capacity for meaning, vision, and value. They noted that it allows us to dream, to strive and it underlies the things we believe in and the role our beliefs and values play in the actions that we take and the way we shape our lives. (p. 3). Working without purpose and meaning leaves people unsatisfied and causes organizations to struggle to create an identity in the market and contribute to the communities they serve (Covey, 1990; Deming, 1981). A high level of spiritual intelligence, according to Zohar and Marshall, (2000), enables an individual to use their spirituality to bring meaning, importance, and general enrichment to their lives. This helps us achieve personal integrity, determine the purpose of our lives, and stay on the right path. Because of spiritual intelligence, we are integrated (rationally, emotionally, and spiritually) creatures/individuals (Zohar & Marshall, 2000). Ideally, these three (cognitive, emotional, and spiritual) basic human intelligences work together and support each other, but each can operate independently in a certain area.

McEwan (2004) also states that spirituality is an understanding of life that helps us to think about life, who we are, and where we come from. Between the term spirituality and religion, there is uncertainty (Wong, 2008). Spirituality is defined by an individual's experience, but religion is classified as structured, organized, ritual, and belief-related (Berger & Williams, 1999). The reason the construct of spirituality is considered as intelligence is based on some scientific observations and findings that the application of specific patterns of thoughts,

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emotion, and behaviours discussed under religion and spirituality, in daily life can lead to an increase in the individual's adaptation and well-being (Anandrajah and Hight, 2001, Kennedy 2002, Vanness and Kasel, 2003, Daaleman, 2004). The spiritual paradigm advocates that employee do not work only with their hands, but also with their hearts and spirits too (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000). It is when their hands, hearts and spirits are engaged that the meaning and purpose of life will be realized. Spiritual intelligence requires different strategies that can coordinate innate life and the spirit with external life which can contribute to satisfaction and quality of life change (Vaguan, 2002).

King (2008) believes spiritual intelligence to be a collection of mental capacities which contribute to the awareness, integration, and adaptive application of the nonmaterial and transcendent aspects of one's existence, leading to such outcomes as deep existential reflection, enhancement of meaning, recognition of a transcendent self, and mastery of spiritual states" (p. 56). Such intelligence, according to King & DeCicco, (2009) is comprised of four aspects/dimensions, namely: (i) critical existential thinking (CET), (ii) personal meaning production (PMP), (iii) transcendental awareness (TA), and (iv) conscious state expansion (CSE). Based on the definitions by King and DeCicco (2009: p. 70), it is argued that CET (capacity to critically contemplate the meaning, purpose and existential issues), PMP (ability to construct personal meaning and purpose in all experiences), TA (capacity to perceive transcendent dimensions of the self, others and of the physical world) and CSE (ability to enter spiritual states of consciousness at one's discretion) help employees understand and manage their own and other's emotions and utilize them in a manner that benefits others.

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On the other hand, Bowell (2004), notes spiritual intelligence includes seven steps: awareness, meaning, evaluation, being centred, vision, projection, and mission. Niţă (2014) also states that spiritual intelligence is characterized by harmony, peace, and balance. It allows individuals to feel that they have a greater purpose and meaning to fulfil in their lives and leads to an increased feeling of self-awareness (Stupar, PilavVelić, & Šahić, 2013), offering individuals direction and resulting in an ability to demonstrate forgiveness towards others (Shabnam & Tung, 2013). Naseri, (2008) added that spiritual intelligence is made up of four factors such as self-conscious transcendence, spiritual experience, patience and forgiveness

Amram and Dryer (2007) have identified five constructs of Spiritual Intelligence; they are Consciousness, Transcendence, Grace, Meaning and Truth. A consciousness trait is the ability to raise consciousness, tap intuition and synthesize multiple viewpoints in ways that will enhance daily functioning and wellbeing. Transcendence is a trait of the ability to align with the sacred and transcend the egoistic self with the sense of relatedness and holism in ways that enhances functioning. Grace is a trait that reflects the love for life drawing on the inspiring beauty and joy inherent in each present moment to enhance functioning and wellbeing. While meaning is a trait of the ability to experience meaning, link activities and experiences to values and constructs interpretations in ways that enhance functioning and wellbeing in the face of pain and suffering. Truth is a trait of the ability to be present, to live peacefully and surrender to truth, manifesting open receptivity, presence, humility, and trust in ways that enhance daily functioning and well-being.

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Hosseini et al., (2010), recommends spirituality as an inherent aspect of human nature and is considered as the source of all thoughts, feelings, values, and behaviours of individuals. Wiggleworth (2006), also notes that spiritual intelligence is the ability to behave with wisdom and clemency if internal and external peace is maintained taking into consideration the conditions (equanimity). Spiritual intelligence according to Stupar et al., (2013), aids individuals in handling limitations and discerning how to handle complex situations and also promotes an increase in the psychological well-being of individuals (Sahebalzamani, Farahani, Abasi, & Talebi, 2013).

Moreover, spiritual intelligence is said to promote better interpersonal communication and improved working relationships as a result of high emotional intelligence (Joseph & Sailakshmi, 2011). According to Tasharrofi, Hatami, and Asgharnejad (2013), individuals who demonstrate higher levels of spiritual intelligence show greater resilience and experience less burnout. These authors also found that those with high levels of spiritual intelligence were better equipped to handle stressful events and solve problems seamlessly. King and DiCocco, (2009) also added that when stressors are at work, the dimensions of spiritual intelligence can help reduce the negative impact of the stressors. Yadav and Punia, (2016), were also of the same view that spiritual intelligence can boost one's serenity and strength which will help better control a situation and shrink the level of existing stress.

Stupar et al. (2013) state that a well-balanced individual should demonstrate intelligence in three areas: their traditional intelligence quotient (IQ), their emotional intelligence (EQ), and their spiritual intelligence (SQ). Amram, (2007) explains that spiritual intelligence is the skills of an individual

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to notice and exemplify the spiritual things in day-to-day life. It characterizes itself as a diverse body of skilfulness and capability that come to knowledge in unusual situations (Isfahani & Nobakht,2013). In the words of Buzan (2002), spiritual intelligent individuals are more aware of their inner self and environment, and this changes people's lives. They are also extra conscious about the other side of life, the universe and the occurrence and functioning in it (Yadav & Punia, 2016). Vaughan, (2002), states spiritual intelligence is necessary for discernment in making spiritual choices that contribute to psychological wellbeing and overall healthy human development.

George (2006) stressed that no universal prescription exists for how to seek and find spiritual intelligence but individuals must find it and only they know how to obtain it. Spiritual intelligence, according to Vaughan, (2002), can be developed with practice and can help a person distinguish reality from illusion. In other words, she noted that it can be cultivated through questing, inquiry, and practice. Yadav and Punia, (2016), adds that spiritual intelligence can be developed by ones' personal efforts such as values. truth, and honesty, involving knowing things beyond nature as well. Vasconcelos, (2019) also notes that spiritual intelligence can be cultivated over time in a careful and disciplined way by anyone interested in developing his or her spirituality. That is spiritual intelligence is an innate capability ready to be triggered whenever we want. In addition, according to Srivastava and Misra (2012), spiritual intelligence assists people in any context to develop their spiritual awareness, capacity, and intelligence and also to use that intelligence to be more effective as an individual, and to expand their capacity to make a greater contribution to the endeavours of others.

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Sun-Chin et al. (2011) state that spiritual intelligence is the set of abilities that individuals use to apply, manifest, and embody spiritual resources, values and qualities in ways that enhance their daily functioning and wellbeing. Spiritual intelligence can be considered a method for improving the well-being of both employees and the organization (Subramanian and Panchanatham, 2014). Perrone et al., (2006) also note that spiritual intelligence can have a tremendous impact on an individual's life, such as by creating a better balance of work, family and life satisfaction. People with a higher level of spiritual intelligence are happier and more satisfied with life than people with a lower level of spiritual intelligence (Cohen, 2002; Perrone, Webb, Wright, Jackson & Ksiazak, 2006).

This study adopts the definition by King and DiCocco (2009) which notes spiritual intelligence as a set of mental capacities which contribute to the awareness, integration, and adaptive application of the nonmaterial and transcendent aspects of one's existence, leading to such outcomes as deep existential reflection, enhancement of meaning, recognition of a transcendent self, and mastery of spiritual states. Spiritual intelligence generally involves a set of abilities, capacities, and spiritual resources one uses in everyday work life and personal life and can increase a person's adaptability and problem-solving ability, allowing one to find meaning and purpose in life events (Mirzaaghazadeh et al., 2014). It helps reduce stress, enhances creativity, and improves problem-solving capabilities (Tischler, Biberman & McKeage, 2002).

Dimensions of Spiritual Intelligence

From the literature, it is evident several dimensions or components has been recommended and validated by scholars in defining the concept of spiritual

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intelligence. In the context of the present study, the core components of spiritual intelligence (i.e., critical existential thinking, production of personal meaning, transcendental awareness, and expansion of conscious states) are adopted from literature as these variables are widely accepted while defining the concept in the body of knowledge. These dimensions were proposed by King (2008) who believes spiritual intelligence to be a collection of mental capacities based on unsubstantial and exalted aspects of life such as personal understanding, deep existential thinking, and expansion of meaning.

Critical Existential Thinking (CET)

According to King (2008), critical existential thinking is the first dimension of spiritual intelligence. It is the capacity to critically contemplate the meaning, purpose, and existential issues. In other words, it is the capacity to critically contemplate the nature of existence, reality, the universe, space, time, and other existential/metaphysical issues; also, the capacity to contemplate non-existential issues with one's existence (i.e., from an existential perspective).

Personal Meaning Production (PMP)

The second dimension proposed by King (2008) is personal meaning production (PMP), which refers to the ability to construct personal meaning and purpose in all experiences. In other words, it is the capacity to infer individual importance and reason from all physical & mental encounters, including the ability to create, produce, export an existing reason, and master a life purpose.

Transcendental Awareness (TA)

The third dimension proposed by King (2008) is transcendental awareness (TA), which refers to the capacity to perceive transcendent

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dimensions of the self, others, and the physical world. In other words, it is the capacity to identify transcendent dimensions/patterns of the self (i.e., a transpersonal or transcendent self), of others, and of the physical world (e.g., non-materialism) during normal states of consciousness, accompanied by the capacity to identify their relationship to one's self and the physical.

Conscious State Expansion (CSE)

The fourth dimension proposed by King (2008) is Conscious State Expansion (CSE), which is the ability to enter spiritual states of consciousness at one's discretion. In other words, it is the ability to enter and exit higher states of consciousness (e.g., pure consciousness, cosmic consciousness, unity, oneness) and other states of trance at one's discretion (as in deep contemplation, meditation, prayer, etc.). That is, it is the capacity to move around a higher level of spiritual awareness at one's discretion.

The Concept of Emotional Intelligence

The importance of emotions in the workplace has been established by many scholars. Emmerling and Goleman (2003) investigated the roots of emotional intelligence in an organizational environment in classical management theory and practice to understand the abilities of the human being. Over three decades of psychological assessment intervention, research has justified the importance of considering social and emotional competencies when attempting to predict occupational effectiveness. EI emerged as a major psychological construct in the early 1990s, where it was conceptualized as a set of abilities largely analogous to general intelligence. Emotional intelligence (EI) captures individual differences in the way one experiences, identifies,

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understands, regulates, and utilizes self-related and other-related emotions (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Whilst the overall validity of the construct is still fervently debated (Brody, 2004; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso. 2008; Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2009), the field continues to prosper.

Emotional intelligence belongs to a class of intelligence that operates on social, personal, practical and emotional information (Mayer et al., 2004). The concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has its roots in the theory of multiple intelligence given by Howard Gardner, in which two important forms of intelligence were identified: interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1983). Even before Howard's theory of multiple intelligence, Thorndike (1920) had explored the idea of "social intelligence" which also contributed to understanding the concept of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is a concept established in the 1990s by Salovey and Mayer (1990;1997). Mayer and Salovey (1990) termed emotional intelligence as the subset of Social Intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. This definition was further reformulated by Mayer and Salovey (1997) to include the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulated emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Ahuja (2011) cites the employees who can better understand themselves and others and be able to better manage their feelings and respond according to the situation will undoubtedly perform better in their jobs; and according to this author, this capability of an individual can be called emotional intelligence.

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Emotional intelligence (EI) is defined as the general capacity to think about emotion (Izard, 2001), but also as the specific abilities to use emotional information (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005), reason about emotions (MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004), perceive and identify emotions (Nowicki & Duke, 1994), and manage emotional intensity (Gross & John, 2002). The term also relates to flexibility, achievement motivation, self-regard, and happiness (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008). Yadav (2011) also believes emotional intelligence is someone's ability to acquire and apply knowledge from his/her emotions and the emotions of others to be more successful and lead a more fulfilling life. Rani in a 2012 study defines an individual's emotional intelligence as an indicator of how he or she perceives, understands, and regulates emotions.

Goleman (1998) defined EI as the capacity for recognizing our feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and our relationship. In addition, Bar-On (2000) conceptualized EI as an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed and cope up with environmental demands and pressures. The theory of EI as propounded by Mayer and Salovey (1997) characterized it as the concerning emotions where mergers of feelings and thinking take place. For that reason, EI is identified as the gift to recognize emotions, to aid our thoughts, to create emotions and to be aware of emotional facts by promoting emotional and intellectual development. Ryback (1998) also defines emotional intelligence as the ability to use your awareness and sensitivity to discern the feelings underlying interpersonal communication, and to resist the temptation

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to respond impulsively and thoughtlessly, but instead to act from receptivity, authenticity, and candour.

Aritzeta, Swailes and Senior (2007) explained that Emotional Intelligence, a multi-dimensional construct that links emotion and cognition to improve human interactions in their activities, has been linked to improved workplace behaviour (as cited in Allam, 2011). Emotional intelligence (EI) has been claimed to correctly predict a variety of successful behaviours of a human being in the workplace (Goleman, 1998; Sergio, Dungca, & Ormita, 2015; Sergio & Marcano, 2013). Various studies show a correlation between high levels of EI and high levels of performance (Yadav, 2011; Sergio, 2011; Sergio, et al., 2015; Sergio & Marcano, 2013). Anitha Devi (2012) also adds that emotional intelligence is a differentiator in the workplace concerning individual and organizational performance. People with high EI are more grounded, more resilient and are more satisfied at work. Indeed, individuals with higher-than-average EI display strong self-awareness and high levels of interpersonal skills. They display empathy, are adaptable and able to cope with pressure, and generally experience less stress and better health and well-being than low scorers (Sergio, 2011; Sergio et al., 2015; Sergio & Marcano, 2013).

There is substantial evidence for the positive, life-enhancing aspects of emotional intelligence, with positive associations of the same being found with happiness, life satisfaction, psychological health, and social network quality and size (Austin et al., 2005; Day et al., 2005; Furnham & Petrides, 2003). Varatharaj and Vasantha (2012), also note that the relationship between personal and professional life can be achieved through emotional intelligence and that it is required to maintain a balance between private and professional

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life. They also noted that emotional intelligence is essential for the accomplishment of the day-to-day objectives of life, which are a challenge to everyone. In addition, according to Abdullah (2012), an individual with high EI can deal with people and situations with a positive attitude towards all aspects of life and can command respect by building relationships.

Conceived as a core latent trait/resource driving behaviour, individual differences in emotionally intelligent competencies could underpin variation in the experience of stressors (e.g., emotional perception or management may impact initial reactivity) such that low levels of EI confer vulnerability, whilst high levels function as a protective resource (Zeidner et al., 2009). Duran et al., (2004), concludes that emotional intelligence is identified as a factor that contributes to minimizing the negative outcomes of emotional labour and enhances employee well-being. This is because those individuals who possess strong social awareness are more able to recognize how to behave appropriately in differing social situations. Austin et al., (2005) add on to this by concluding that emotional intelligence has a positive correlation with general wellbeing. Bar-On (2002), also notes that individuals with high emotional intelligence can successfully handle work demands. It might affect work attitudes, increase altruistic behaviour, enhance work outcomes, and curb interpersonal conflicts and related stress (Carmeli, 2003). Overall, it is agreed that higher emotional intelligence is linked with better psychological functioning (Salovey & Grewal 2005, Brown & Schutte 2006, Schutte et al. 2007).

According to Yadav and Punia, (2016) and Serrat (2009), emotional intelligence (EI) is depicted as the ability to feel something, communicate in such a way as it was thought, remembrance with full of feelings, learn from

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others and own self, manage and understand in every situation. It can be developed with experiences as well as time and damage and may be due to instructions given by parents, institutions, and society during upbringing. It is an intelligence that may be inborn characteristics or learned, developed and improved (Desti, Kannaiah & Shanthi, 2015; Nivetha, & Sudhamathi, 2019; Panimalar, 2020).

Conceptualization of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence can be conceptualized in two main ways: trait emotional intelligence (TEI) and ability emotional intelligence (AEI). Being conceptually distinct concepts, TEI (or emotional self-efficacy) is seen as a cluster of emotion-related self–perceptions and dispositions (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). In other words, it is a constellation of behavioural dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one's ability to recognize, process, and utilize emotion-laden information.

On the other hand, AEI (or cognitive-emotional ability) is seen as a distinct group of mental abilities in emotional functioning (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). That is, it is described as one's actual ability to recognize, process, and utilize emotion-laden information (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004, p. 278). It is mostly seen as tests that utilize questions/items comparable to those found in IQ tests (Austin, 2010). These include all tests containing ability-type items and not only those based directly on Mayer and Salovey's model.

In contrast to trait-based measures, ability measures do not require that participants self-report on various statements, but rather require that participants solve emotion-related problems that have answers that are deemed to be correct or incorrect (e.g., what emotion might someone feel before a job interview? (a)

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sadness, (b) excitement, (c) nervousness, (d) all the above). Ability based measures give a good indication of individuals' ability to understand emotions and how they work. However, since they are tests of maximal ability, they do not tend to predict typical behaviour as well as trait-based measures (O'Connor et al., 2017). Nevertheless, ability-based measures are valid, albeit weak, predictors of a range of outcomes including work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction (Miao et al., 2017), and job performance (O'Boyle et al., 2011).

In each case, the preferred conceptualization dictates the method of assessment. Whilst AEI lends itself to measures of maximal performance, akin to cognitive testing (i.e. external appraisal), TEI is assessed via self-report measures tapping typical performance (i.e. internal appraisal) in the vein of traditional personality assessment (Zeidner et al., 2009). According to this method of classification, Ability EI tests measure constructs related to an individual's theoretical understanding of emotions and emotional functioning, whereas trait EI questionnaires measure typical behaviours in emotion-relevant situations (e.g., when an individual is confronted with stress or an upset friend) as well as self-rated abilities.

This study used the trait-based model of emotional intelligence which refers to the constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions located at the lower - levels of personality hierarchies (Kong et al., 2012; Petrides, Pita & Kokkinaki, 2007). Specifically, the study adopts the Wong and Law emotional intelligence scale (WLEIS), which is one of the most widely used measures of trait emotional intelligence. The definition of EI used is that of Mayer and Salovey (1997): a set of interrelated skills concerning "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate

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feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth."

Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Mayer and Salovey conceptualized emotional intelligence as composed of four distinct dimensions: (1) Appraisal and expression of emotion in the self (self-emotional appraisal [SEA]) - this dimension is related to one's perceiving and understanding the emotions of people around him or her; (2) Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others (others' emotional appraisal [OEA]) - this dimension is related to the ability of people to regulate their emotions; (3) Regulation of emotion in the self (regulation of emotion [ROE]), this dimension is related to the ability of people to regulate their emotions; and (4) Use of emotion to facilitate performance (use of emotion [UOE]), this dimension is related to the ability of individuals to make use of their emotions to increase their performance.

The Concept of Well-being

Well-being is becoming increasingly important in our lives, both now and in the future. Individuals must feel good about themselves. their life, and the events that occur in them to maintain high levels of motivation and physical and mental health (Imaginário, Vieira, & Jesus, 2013). Employee well-being benefits employees, organizations, and communities in equal measure. Employees spend a large portion of their lives at work. according to Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002), and employers should foster employee well-being at work. Furthermore, according to the authors, workplaces provide the foundation for the establishment of a community for employees. Employees spend the majority of their lives at work, where they form friendly and cordial

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relationships, develop peace values, and contribute significantly to society (Fairholm, 1996). Employee well-being is promoted at work, resulting in a healthy and happy workforce for an organization (Cooper & Robertson, 2001). The dynamics of employee well-being are crucial to comprehending the various paradigms that influence work quality of life.

A pleasant, high-quality life requires a strong sense of well-being (Diener, 2000). Happiness, satisfaction, vigour, optimism, passion, and self-actualization are all linked to wellbeing (Seligman, 2002). According to Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics, eudaimonia (the Greek word for happiness) is the highest good for humans and can be attained by correct behaviours that contribute to individual well-being (Myers, 1992). Wellbeing, according to Corbin and Lindsey (1994, p. 233), is the use of "an emotional, intellectual, physical, spiritual, and social component that extends one's potential to live and work effectively and make a major contribution to society."

Warr (2002) emphasizes the importance of one's feelings about one's life. According to the author, people's perceptions of their level of well-being are likely to influence their quality of life. Simply put, an employee's view and ideas about his or her well-being at work determine the employee's overall well-being at work. Currie, (2001) also highlights the workforce's physical and emotional wellness. To ensure employee well-being, the researcher proposed a stress-free and physically safe atmosphere. Bakke, (2005) found a relationship between well-being and the work environment. To assure employee well-being, the author suggests creating an intriguing, stimulating, pleasurable, and joyous work environment.

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The Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) study from 2007 adds another construct. The study found that employee wellbeing is influenced not just by the job but also by the social environment. Social relationships with organizational agents, as well as lifestyle and employment changes, have an impact on individual employees' personal and professional lives (Guest, 1998). It is proposed that employers develop an office environment that encourages employees to be happy. An employee's environment should allow them to thrive and reach their greatest potential (Tehrani et al., 2007).

Well-being has been defined by behavioural science as the achievement of an individual's goals, wants, and needs through the actualization of their abilities and lifestyle (Emerson, 1985). Happiness, quality of life, and satisfaction are all concepts that are sometimes used in connection with well-being. Bradburn, (1969) considered well-being in terms of positive affect as opposed to negative affect. Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985) asserted that satisfaction with life refers to a global appraisal of well-being. According to research, happiness is closely linked to better mental health, physical health, and longevity (Strack, Argyle & Schwartz. 1991).

According to Ryan and Deci (2001), well-being refers to optimal functioning and experience. The precise nature of optimal functioning is not necessarily clear; however, many philosophers and psychologists provide differing conceptions of well-being. Although numerous and sometimes complex, these conceptions tend to revolve around two distinct, but related philosophies: hedonism and eudaimonism. A hedonic view of well-being equates well-being with pleasure and happiness (Kahneman et al. 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Alternatively, a eudaimonic view of well-being conceptualizes

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well-being in terms of the cultivation of personal strengths and contribution to the greater good (Aristotle, 2000), acting per one's inner nature and deeply held values (Waterman, 1993), the realization of one's true potential (Ryff & Keyes, 1995), and the experience of purpose or meaning in life (Ryff, 1989).

Hedonic and eudaimonic approaches to well-being can be further distinguished by the degree to which they rely on subjective versus objective criteria for determining wellness. The subjective judgement of well-being can be assessed with their life satisfaction, or psychological health (e.g., perceived stress) (Grzywacz, Almeida & McDonald, 2002); as well as by individuals' objective measures of physical health (e.g., blood pressure) (Broadwell & Light, 1999). However, the meaning of objective wellbeing and subjective wellbeing depends on the discipline and can vary when discussed in the fields of ethics, theology, politics, economics, and psychology (Fahri & Mary, 2004). The most common one is the hedonistic approach, which focuses on subjective well-being, namely people's assessment of their life regarding positive feelings, pain avoidance, or satisfaction toward life domains (Diener, 1984; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Singer, 2008). To illustrate, determinations of wellness from the hedonic approach center around the experience of pleasure, a subjectively determined positive affective state.

There is a cognitive and an affective component to subjective well-being (Lent, 2004; Warr, 2011). People's conscious evaluation of all areas of their lives corresponds to the cognitive component (Diener, 1984). The affective component refers to people's feelings as a result of experiencing unpleasant or pleasurable emotions in response to life, or as a result of a balance between negative and positive impacts. People are said to have high subjective well-

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being if they have satisfied their lives and experience positive emotions like joy and happiness regularly, as well as negative emotions like despair and rage infrequently (Diener et al., 1991). Hence, Huppert et al.. describe subjective wellbeing as living life well.

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From a eudaimonic perspective, well-being is achieved by meeting objectively valid needs which are suggested to be rooted in human nature and whose realization is conducive to human growth (Fromm, 1947). The eudemonistic approach is part of an ethical doctrine according to which people must know their true nature and realize their human potential (Norton, 1977). Eudemonism thus corresponds to a happy life depending upon self-reliance and self-truth, according to the two great Greek maxims: "know thyself" and "choose thyself or become what you are" (Ryff & Singer, 2008). This perspective focuses on people's psychological wellbeing namely the extent to which they believe they are true to themselves and their values (Waterman, 1993) or reach their life goals. In short, the hedonic approach focuses on subjectively determined positive mental states, whereas the eudaimonic approach focuses on experiences that are objectively good for the person (Kagan, 1992).

The concept of well-being is unclear and difficult to assess due to diverse interpretations and the lack of a globally accepted definition (Achour, 2013). However, the bottom line is well-being is generally viewed as a description of the state of people's life situation (McGillivray, 2007). The measuring of well-being in this study is based on a subjective approach to wellbeing which can be also defined as emotional wellbeing (Ryan & Deci, 2001) that emphasizes human feelings (Achour, 2013; Fedewa & Ahn, 2011).

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This decision was based on the assessment that the term 'well-being' is often used rather than 'subjective well-being' to avoid "any suggestion that there is something arbitrary or unknowable about the concepts involved" (Diener, 2005, p. 3). Thus, the objective approach which measures well-being through certain observable facts such as economic, social, and environmental statistics is not applied (Achour, 2013).

The subjective approach assesses well-being based on the respondent's self-reported experiences rather than the researcher's judgment (Rojas, 2013). People who have more positive feelings and fewer negative feelings are more satisfied with their lives (Fedewa & Ahn, 2011; Rojas, 2013). The respondents' affective state is valued by their experience of being well, which is investigated to understand their satisfaction with life and well-being (Rojas, 2013). Job satisfaction and life satisfaction are the aspects of subjective well-being examined in this study. Job satisfaction resulting from professional advancement and accomplishment has been shown to improve subjective well-being (Fedewa & Ahn, 2011).

In the fourth century BCE, Aristippus defined emotional well-being as having bodily pleasure while avoiding suffering (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Ryan and Deci (2001) employ this pleasure-pain theory to claim that wellbeing is comprised of three elements: (a) life satisfaction, (b) the presence of positive mood, and (c) the absence of negative mood. Diener (1984) also claims that the primary indicators of wellbeing are life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect. As a result, it is easy to see how well-being refers to people's positive and negative assessments of their lives, which include "reflective cognitive evaluations, such as life satisfaction and job satisfaction, interest and

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engagement, and affective reactions to life events, such as joy and sadness" (Diener, 2005, p. 2).

This study examines well-being using measures of family life satisfaction and job satisfaction because life and work are the most important elements in everyone's life (Clark, 2000), and satisfaction with those two domains affects people's wellbeing and overall feelings about their lives (Diener, 2005). A psychological health measure was also used to assess participants' well-being because this study refers to well-being as emotional well-being. The psychological health scale measures participants' degrees of psychological distress.

Empirical Review of Work-Life Conflict, Personal Resources and Wellbeing of Employees

The empirical review was developed in line with the study's specific objectives. This review will help provide areas of consensus and disagreement thereby help avoid previous errors committed by the earlier scholars. The review will also guide the development of the problem statement as well as the methodological chapter for this study.

Work-Life Conflict and Wellbeing of Employees

Earlier theorists have agreed to the contributions of work-life conflict to the well-being of employees. For example, Grant-Vallone and Ensher's (2001) investigation on work-life conflict revealed that employees reported a higher level of work interfering with their personal life than personal life interfering with their work even though both directions of work-life conflict affected the wellbeing of employees. This notwithstanding, the authors advocated that

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organizations were left dissatisfied with both the reduction of life to work conflict and work to life conflict. This is because programs that address both types of conflict are imperative to retain high-quality employees. The authors generated data for the study from 118 culturally diverse employees working in Europe through a survey questionnaire. This list of the study units was obtained from the organisation's phone directory.

Two types of conflict were measured with a validated scale of work and family conflict by Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, (1996). The terms personal and professional life were used so that employees who were not considered to have families in the traditional sense could still be included. Personal life was defined to include any activities with your spouse/partner, family responsibilities, volunteer activities, sports and/or hobbies. This accorded every employee to be part of the sample. Statistically, SPSS was used for data analysis. Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2001) measured the variables using 3, 4 and 5 Likert scales. The limitation of this study is that the study was based on a relatively small sample of employees from a single organization. This limited the power to detect results and generalize the findings. The current study, therefore, employed a substantial sample size of prison officers from two prison institutions.

Kinman, Clements and Hart (2017) conducted a study among prison officers (N = 1,682) and looked at how the working conditions, work-life conflict and wellbeing influence each other using the work-home resources model. The study also examined the role of affective rumination and detachment on the relationships among the three variables. Data was collected using an online questionnaire completed by 1682 prison officers. Results from the study

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showed that work-life conflict had a significant negative relationship with the wellbeing of the prison officers. One limitation of this study is that although the sample size was substantial and broadly representative of the wider population of prison officers in the United Kingdom, the extent to which the findings captured the experiences of all officers working in different types of the correctional institution cannot be established. Therefore, the current study adopted a stratified simple random sampling to show representative.

A study conducted by Lenaghan, Buda, and Eisner (2007) focused on the role that emotional intelligence plays in the relationship between work-family conflict and the wellbeing of employees. Data was collected using a survey questionnaire with a sample size of 205 employees of a university and analysed using SPSS. The findings of the study revealed that emotional intelligence and work-family conflict had a significant influence on the well-being of employees. The work-family conflict had a negative influence on the well-being of employees and emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between work-family conflict and the well-being of employees. One limitation of this study is the scope of the study. That is the study concentrated only on working spouses and parents and the results can only apply to only married couples and parents. This study goes beyond the mere examination of conflicts between work and family, which would obscure the fact that people occupy multiple roles in addition to their role as employees and parents. People are usually involved in multiple roles outside their family life like leisure or community roles. Hence our research widens the focus in the broad nonwork domain. Our key concept is therefore labelled work-life conflict and this applies to people outside traditional family roles.

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Using a sample of 6398 workers in New Zealand, Brough, O'Driscoll and Kalliath (2005) studied the ability of family-friendly organizational resources to predict work-family conflict and job and family satisfaction. Data was collected using a survey questionnaire and was analysed using structural equation modelling. The findings of the study revealed that both directions of work-family conflict had a negative relationship with job and family satisfaction. The research also demonstrated that the provision of organizational family-friendly practices will produce improved psychological outcomes for employees. Their conceptualization of work-family conflict did not take account of the forms of work-family conflict. This current study focused on both direction and form of work-life conflict. The well-being variable in their study included only job and family/life satisfaction. This current study had a third dimension to the well-being of employees, psychological health.

A study conducted by Armstrong, Atkin-Plunk and Wells (2015) focused on correctional officer's work-family conflict, job stress and job satisfaction. Data was collected from a sample of 441 officers at 13 public adult correctional facilities in a southern state. Analysis was done with SPSS. The study revealed that strain-based and behaviour-based work-family conflict, as well as family-work conflict, had a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction as a measure of wellbeing. One of the limitations of this study is that the authors considered only the forms of work-family conflict but not the forms of family-work conflict. That is family-work conflict was considered a composite variable. This current study looks at both directions and forms of work-life conflict.

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Using a sample of 325 international mobile employees, Ballesteros-Leiva, Poilpot-Rocaboy and St-Onge (2016) focused on examining the relationship between life-domain interactions and the well-being of employees. The study used two measures of wellbeing namely subjective wellbeing and psychological wellbeing. Life domain interactions were measured from a conflict and an enrichment perspective, each in two directions. Data was collected from 284 employees with questionnaires and analysed with SPSS. The study revealed that both directions of work-life conflict had a significant negative relationship with well-being. This study used the term work-life to encompass all other responsibilities aside from being a spouse and parent. The study did not consider the forms of the directions of work-life conflict.

A study conducted by Hammig, Knecht, Laubli and Bauer (2011) focused on Switzerland employees' work-life conflict and wellbeing as measured by a musculoskeletal disorder of employees. The study collected data on 6091 employees with a survey questionnaire and analysed it with SPSS. The study revealed that only one direction of work-life conflict, work to life conflict, had a strong significant negative relationship with well-being.

Sharma, Dhar and Tyagi (2015) also conducted a study on 693 nursing staff associated with 33 healthcare institutions in India. They focused on the relationship between work-family conflict and psychological health as a measure of wealth. They also studied the mediation and moderation roles of stress and emotional intelligence respectively. Data was collected using a survey questionnaire and analysed with AMOS and SPSS. The results revealed that work-family conflict had a direct negative relationship with the psychological

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health of the nursing staff. Stress as a mediator mediated the relationship between work-family conflict and psychological health of the nursing staff.

A study conducted by Akram and Ch (2020), investigated the relationship of work-family conflict with job demands, social support and psychological wellbeing of university female teachers in Punjab. Data was collected on 410 female teachers with a questionnaire. Structural Equation Modelling and T-test were used for the data analysis. The results revealed that teachers having work-family are also having depression and anxiety which reflects their poor mental health and psychological well-being.

According to the role accumulation perspective developed in response to role scarcity theory, role conflict need not inevitably result in the favouring of one role to the expense of others. In contrast, role accumulation suggests there are positive or beneficial effects of commitment to multiple roles. A variety of work and personal roles provide multiple opportunities for satisfaction and pleasure, thereby enhancing psychological functioning. Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) were among the first to note the role scarcity approach did not fully account for data available on multiple roles. They argued that multiple roles gave some people more energy and resources than they depleted. Data supporting the benefits of the role come from the literature on psychological wellbeing, which suggests the combination of work and family roles is psychologically beneficial (Barnett, 1998; Barunch et al., 1983; Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993).

A study conducted by Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer and King (2002) focused on the relationships between multiple life roles, psychological well-being and managerial skills in women. Data were collected both qualitatively

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and quantitatively from 61 and 276 women respectively. The study revealed that multiple role commitment positively related to life satisfaction, self-esteem, and self-acceptance as a measure of wellbeing. Along similar lines, a recent study conducted by Graves, Ohlott, & Ruderman, (2007) among 346 male and female managers indicated that managers who felt more committed to their parental and marital roles did not indicate that they experienced more role conflict, which would have been expected from a scarcity perspective. On the contrary, those in dual roles reported higher levels of well-being.

Moreover, Kirchmeyer (1992), has established that when employees, besides their work role, spend more hours on life roles, they reported higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Similarly, Steptoe, Lundwall, and Cropley (2000) assessed the influence of participation in family roles on psychological recovery after work. The study revealed that instead of family roles depleting the employees, participation in family roles seems to help them relax. This finding indicates that there may be a positive side to participation in multiple roles as well.

Work-family studies that have addressed the positive side of role combination indeed suggest that role combination does not necessarily elicit conflict nor will it always be associated with detrimental outcomes (Barnett, Marshall & Singer, 1992). These studies have revealed that participation in multiple roles can be associated with enhanced well-being for individuals. In addition, these studies suggest that employers do not need to fear that employee's involvement in and commitment to other life roles goes at the expense of work. They indicate that the work domain can benefit from employees' participation in other roles. That is, challenging the scarcity

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perspective on strategy, individuals who were involved in a greater number of roles in their lives have been found to have better physical health over time (Barnett, Marshall, & Singer; Moen, Dempster-McClain, & William, 1992). Thus, this calls for a further investigation of the constructs. Based on the issues discussed, the study hypothesized that:

H1: Work to life conflict (time-based, strain-based and behavioural-based) has a significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

H2: Life to work conflict (time-based, strain-based and behavioural-based) has a significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

The Moderating Role of Emotional Intelligence on Work-Life Conflict and The Well-Being of Employees.

Emotional intelligence belongs to a class of intelligence that operates on social, personal, practical, and emotional information (Mayer et al., 2004). According to the Conservation of resource theory, individual differences can be considered as resources buffering the negative effects of stressful events on individuals (Hobfoll, 1989). Individuals with more personal resources can cope with the loss of other types of resources, such as resource loss caused by work-life issues. In this study, we proposed emotional intelligence as an important resource that buffers the relationship between work to life conflict and wellbeing of employees, as well as the relationship between life to work conflict and well-being of employees. Emotional intelligence represents individual differences in the ability and capacity to monitor and recognize one's own and other's emotions and to use this information to regulate one's emotions and

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actions (Johnson & Spector, 2007; Salovey & Grewal, 2005; Wong & Law, 2002).

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Previous studies have suggested that emotional intelligence could buffer the negative effects of stressful events on work outcomes. For example, Dasgupta and Mukherjee (2011) found that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between role conflict and job stress. Research also found that emotional intelligence played an important role in reducing stress caused by work-family issues (Carmeli, 2003; Spector et al., 2004; Suliman & Al-Shaikh, 2007). Similarly, a study conducted by Davies and Humphery, (2012a, 2012b) revealed that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between the stressor by having a soothing effect on disruptive behaviour.

Carmeli (2003) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes and the behaviour of senior managers. Among other findings, his results supported the finding that emotional intelligence moderated the negative influence of work-family conflict on career commitment. He notes that this result indicates that senior managers who have high emotional intelligence may better and more carefully handle the inherent work-family conflict than those with low emotional intelligence. A person with high emotional intelligence can recognize and then effectively deal with their own emotions while at the same time recognizing and empathizing with others' feelings. Inherent in the work-family conflict is a tremendous amount of emotional upheaval. Inevitably, one domain will encroach on the other and it results in more than just a time issue or energy constraints; it also invokes one's emotions. The ability to be aware of your emotions, express them and effectively manage

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them is a key determinant in whether the [illegible] domains negatively impacts one's wellbeing.

Gao, Shi, Niu, and Wang (2011) conducted a study on a sample of 212 Chinese high school teachers on the relationships among work-family conflict, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction. The study revealed among other results that emotional intelligence weakened the effect of work-family conflict on job satisfaction. High emotional intelligence helps employees balance work-family conflict such that employees with high emotional intelligence may be more capable of preventing work-family owing to their emotional astuteness. These individuals can recognize the degree to which work and family play emotional roles for them, and have insight into how their emotions should be managed. Thus, they can keep their job satisfaction from being adversely affected.

Similarly, Lenaghan, Buda, and Eisner (2007) conducted a study on 205 employees in the USA on the relationship among work-family conflict, emotional intelligence and well-being of employees. Among other findings of their study, their results supported a finding that emotional intelligence acts as a protector variable in the impact of work-family conflict on one's well-being. Higher emotional intelligence positively influenced wellbeing. Specifically, individuals who had high emotional intelligence with low work-family conflict reported the highest well-being while those with low emotional intelligence and high work-family conflict reported the lowest wellbeing. Sharma, Dhar, and Tyagi (2014) also conducted a study on the relationship among work-family, stress, psychological health, and emotional intelligence. Data was collected on 693 nurses with the use of survey questionnaires. The study revealed that

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enjoy higher levels of emotional intelligence are less affected by life to work conflict because they are better at perceiving and regulating their emotional and behavioural reactions at work and they can do so more efficiently. In the face of resources lost in life to work conflict, these individuals may not perceive the same levels of threat as do employees with lower levels of emotional intelligence. Moreover, emotional intelligence is positively related to the well-being of employees (Maria, 2010; Wang, Cai, & Deng, 2010) so that employee wellbeing may be less affected by life issues when an individual has higher emotional intelligence. Therefore, in the face of life to a work conflict, employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence may find regulating negative emotions and investing resources to meet emotional job demands easier than those with lower levels of emotional intelligence. Thus, it is proposed that:

H4: Emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana prisons service.

The Moderating Role of Spiritual Intelligence on Work-Life Conflict and The Well-Being of Employees.

According to the conservation of resource theory, individual differences can be considered as resources buffering the negative effects of stressful events on an individual (Hobfoll, 1989). Individuals with more personal resources can cope with the loss of other types of resources, such as resources loss caused by work-life issues. In the current study, we propose spiritual intelligence as an important resource that buffers the negative relationship between work to life conflict and wellbeing as well as the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

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Spiritual intelligence is the higher stage of intelligence that helps the individual to have a connection with themselves and the outside world (Hosseini et al., 2010). Many researchers have argued that spiritual intelligence is a core ability that penetrates and guides other abilities (Ronel & Gan, 2008). Spirituality is a form of intelligence that predicts functioning and adaptation, as demonstrated by correlations of spirituality, with improved health or wellbeing (Emmons, 2000a; Emmons, 2000b). According to Srivastava and Misra (2012), spiritual intelligence assists people in any context (corporate, community or family) to develop their spiritual awareness, capacity, and intelligence, and to use intelligence to be more effective as an individual and to expand their capacity to make a greater contribution to the endeavours of others.

Selvarajan, Singh, Stringer and Chapa (2020) conducted a study on a large national sample (N=1130). In this research, they propose that spirituality moderates the relationship between work-family conflict and well-being. The research includes a broad range of well-being variables including job and family satisfaction, subjective and psychological well-being. Among other findings of their study, their results supported a finding that spiritual intelligence acts as a protector variable in the negative impact of work-family conflict on one's well-being. The authors noted that, for organizations to achieve the benefits of spirituality on individual and organizational outcomes, a major change in organizational approach and philosophy is much needed. Thus, Organizations can launch interventions aimed at psycho-spiritual training of employees.

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Abdullah's study of 2012 notes that spiritual intelligence integrates all the dimensions of human life and guides them to live a meaningful life. Spiritual intelligence according to Alex and Ajawani (2011), is the ability to find meaning, purpose, and value in our lives, connecting our actions and lives to a wider, richer meaning – giving context. Suan Chill et al., (2011) also noted in their study that, spiritual intelligence is the set of abilities that individuals use to apply, manifest, and embody spiritual resources, values and qualities in ways that enhance their daily functioning and wellbeing. Mohammadyari (2012) also noted that parents with a higher spiritual intelligence grow children with higher mental health. Spiritual intelligence according to Yadav and Punia (2016) can boost an individual's serenity and strength which will help better control their situations and shrink the level of existing stress.

A study conducted by Khodabakhshi Koolaee, Heydari, Khoshkonesh and Heydari (2012) and Moallemi, Bakhshani and Raghibi (2011) on pregnant women showed that spiritual intelligence improved individual physical and emotional health. The studies also revealed that spiritual intelligence positively influences psychological capacity that improves prenatal stress management skills. Emmons' (2000) study also showed that spiritual intelligence positively influences life orientation which protects individuals against non-adaptive or negative behaviours in society or personal life. Spiritual intelligence, according to Cheraghi and Molavi (2007), is an individual spiritual ability, capacities, and resources aimed at boosting stress management skills and mental health. Amram and Dryer (2008) also describe spiritual intelligence as capabilities that individuals use to improve the performance of daily living and general well-being.

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Nadery, Asgari, Roshani, Mehri and Aryany (2008) study showed a significant association between spiritual intelligence and life satisfaction. The results further showed that variables of spiritual intelligence and emotional intelligence were the predictors for life satisfaction, respectively. According to Mohammad, Hojjatollah, Reza and Mehdi (2013), spiritual intelligence and its components are associated with psychological well-being and purpose in life so that an increase in spiritual growth can act as a base for a better and more coordinated life of individuals. Subramaniam and Panchanatham (2014) findings showed a positive relationship between spiritual intelligence, emotional intelligence, and well-being. They concluded that when emotional and spiritual intelligence is high well-being is also high.

A recent study by Neethu and Kishor (2017) found spiritual intelligence to be positively correlated with well-being. The result further shows that spiritual intelligence increases well-being. Also, Khadijeh, Mahbobeh and Ramezan's (2017) study found a significant relationship between spiritual intelligence and psychological well-being and its different dimensions among women with breast cancer. It was concluded that patients with higher spiritual intelligence also had higher psychological well-being. In addition, Karakas (2010) confirmed that the incorporation of spirituality at work increases employees' well-being by increasing their morale, commitment, and productivity; and decreases employees stress, burnout, and work holism in the workplace. Noble (2000) mentioned that individual spiritual intelligence is an inborn capability that helps people for psychological growth. A mature and psychologically sound person can become the best asset for any organization. For this reason, it is necessary to understand the contribution of spiritual

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intelligence on individual behavior in the workplace which can contribute a greater knowledge in the fields of management and psychology.

A study conducted by Gao, Shi, Niu, and Wang (2012) on Chinese high school teachers indicated that in testing and extending the usage of the conservation of resource theory, other resources apart from emotional intelligence should be considered as stress buffers in studying the relationship between work-life conflict as a source of stress and the wellbeing of employees. This study, therefore, proposes that the relationship between work to life conflict and employee well-being could be buffered by spiritual intelligence. Characterized as an inter-role conflict, work to life conflict causes stress both in the family and life domains because resources from both roles are lost in the process of juggling between them. Individuals with higher levels of spiritual intelligence pose serenity and strength which helps them better control their situations and shrink the level of existing stress. Moreover, since spiritual intelligence is positively related to wellbeing, it is less likely for those who have high spiritual intelligence to have low wellbeing when their work is conflicted with family/life roles. Thus, it is proposed that:

H5: Spiritual intelligence has a moderating effect on work to life conflict and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana prisons service.

When individuals face interference from life to their work, they may spend their time and energies dealing with life issues, which results in fewer resources available for work activities. As a result, they feel stress and well-being decreases as mentioned earlier. It is conceivable that when individuals are faced with threats to resources, they may evaluate these threats differently, depending on their available spiritual information. Individuals who enjoy higher

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levels of spiritual intelligence may be less affected by life to work conflict because they can solve significant life problems and they are prepared to face complicated and tough situations and to live at the edge. In the face of resources lost by life to work conflict, these individuals may not perceive the same levels of threat as do employees with lower levels of spiritual intelligence.

Moreover, spiritual intelligence is positively related to the well-being of employees (Sahebalzamani, Farahni, Abasi & Talebi, 2013) so that employee wellbeing may be less affected by life issues when an individual has higher spiritual intelligence. In other words, spiritual intelligence provides individuals with spiritual abilities, capacities and resources aimed at boosting stress management skills and wellbeing. Therefore, in the face of life to work conflict, employees with higher levels of spiritual intelligence may find regulating negative emotions and investing resources to meet emotional job demands easier than those with lower levels of spiritual intelligence. Thus, it is proposed that:

H6: Spiritual intelligence has a moderating effect on life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service.

Analysis and Implications of the Literature Reviewed

The above literature review indicates that very little research has been done on the moderating effect of personal resources, specifically, emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence on the relationship between work-life conflict and the wellbeing of employees. Gao, Shi, Niu, and Wang (2012) however, suggested that more personal resources must be investigated and understood properly to help employees better handle work-life issues. Given

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this, the current study investigates the relationships among work-life conflict, personal resources, and well-being of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.

The findings of the literature suggest that studies done on work-life conflict and wellbeing of employees were mostly done in western work cultural settings which are extremely different from non-western cultures, for example, Ghana, where the present study was conducted. This indicates that the findings from those studies cannot be generalized to non-western cultures.

It was also drawn from the literature review that most of the studies concentrated on the narrow definition of family. That is concentrating on the core family or children living at home. This current study used a more inclusive and comprehensive term work-life conflict to encompass all concerns and activities such as dependents, spouses, leisure, studies, or community life, to overcome the traditionally narrow focus on role conflicts.

Moreover, previous research as per the review focused either on the direction of work-life conflict (i.e., life to work conflict; work to life conflict) or on the form of work-life conflict (time, strain, behaviour). To fully understand the work-life interface, both directions and forms of work-life conflict must be considered. The present study takes a deeper look at the relationship among all six different types of work and life conflicts on the well-being of employees to answer the basic question of which type of conflict among the six would have more impact on the well-being of employees. Another issue is the use of first-generation analytical tools such as correlation and regression in past research. Structural equation modelling which is a statistical technique was used for this study.

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Only a few studies have considered the role of personality variables in the relationship between work-life conflict and wellbeing. Researchers such as Carlson (2000) and Gao et al. (2012), have called for additional study of personality variables to provide further insight into the underpinnings of work-life conflict. The present study is designed to answer this call by examining specifically, the role of personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence in the work-life conflict and well-being nexus.

Past researchers also encouraged future research to address the identified gaps in the literature, particularly the moderating effects of personal resources on the work-life conflict and wellbeing nexus as well as studies that looked at all six dimensions of work-life conflict. To address this issue, both the direction and form of work-life conflict will be explored under an all-inclusive scope of family termed, life. In addition, the moderating effect of personal resources, specifically, emotional, and spiritual intelligence on the relationship between work-life conflict (WFC) and the wellbeing of employees will be explored in this research.

Conceptual Framework of the Study

The framework drawn was based on the study objectives and it shows how the study constructs are related to each other. The framework is divided into three parts. The first part is the work-life conflict, followed by personal resources and finally, the wellbeing of employees.

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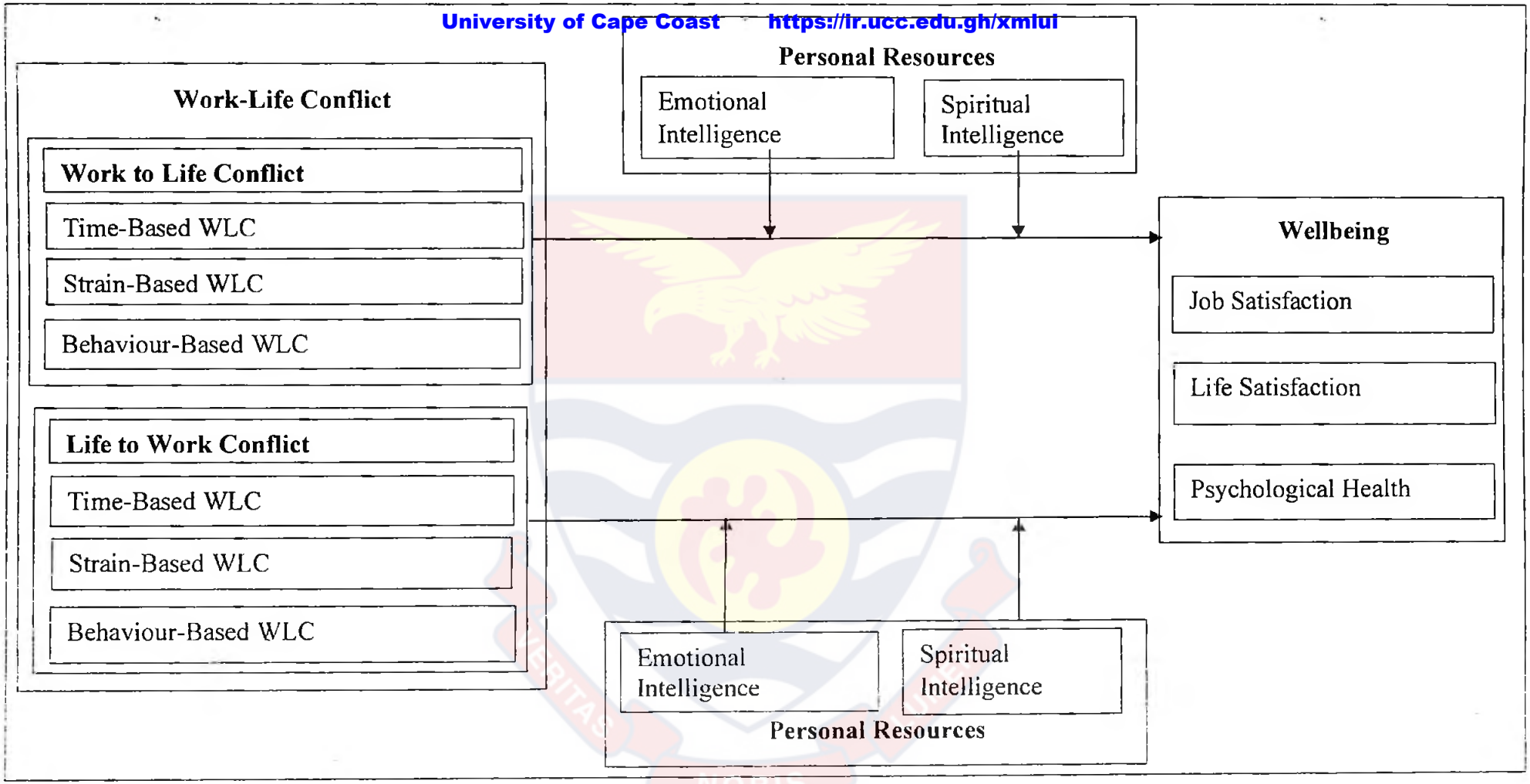

Figure 1: **The relationship among work-life conflict, personal resources and wellbeing of employees.**

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This study proposes that work-life conflict has a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees. Work - life conflict is conceptualized in two forms as work to life conflict and life to work conflict. These two forms are measured using three dimensions each, namely, time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behaviour-based conflict. According to Greenhaus and Buetel (1985) and Frone et al., (1992), the work-life conflict is fully understood when both the directions and forms of work-life conflict is considered. This study uses all six dimensions of work-life conflict.

Because life and work are the most important aspects of everyone's lives (Zark, 2000), and people's happiness and overall feelings about their lives are influenced by their gratification with those two domains, this study assesses well-being using measures of family life satisfaction and job satisfaction (Diener, 2005). Because this study defines well-being as emotional well-being, individuals' well-being was also assessed using a psychological health measure.

The study also proposes that personal resources have a moderating effect on the work-life conflict and wellbeing nexus. For many, work-life conflict has become a persistent stressor in their working lives and therefore every factor that might decrease its detrimental effect on wellbeing should be investigated (Dettmers, 2017; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). It is argued that, individual resources may be especially important in the absence of family friendly resources either at work or at home (Wayne et. al, 2017). The study examines specifically the role of personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual resources in the work-life conflict and wellbeing nexus.

The figure above shows the relationship of the variables understudy in a conceptual framework. The relationships between the variables are shown by

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the direction of the arrows. Work-life conflicts in the directions of work to life conflict and life to work conflict and forms of strain-based, time-based, and behaviour-based are considered to influence the wellbeing (life satisfaction, job satisfaction and psychological health) of employees. The model presents a moderating effect of personal resources, specifically, emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence on the relationship between work-life conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

Chapter Summary

The chapter reviewed the literature on conceptual and empirical issues relating to work-life conflict, personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence and the well-being of employees as captured in prior studies. Important issues and lessons from the review informed the conceptual framework of the study. The review will further prove beneficial in the methodology, analyses, presentation of findings, discussions, conclusions, and recommendations. The next chapter presents the study's methodology.

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CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the methods and procedures used to gather and analyse data for the study. Research methods discuss how the researcher went about his or her study and the rationale behind each method used. The rationale is to help the researcher solve the research problem systematically. This chapter is organized into the following subheadings: study area/study organization, research philosophy, methodological approach to the study, research design, sources of data, study population, sampling procedures, data collection instruments, data processing and analysis, and ethical considerations.

Study Area/Study Organisation

The following criteria were used to identify a suitable setting for this study: a fortified prison facility designed to hold the most aggressive, high sentenced and incorrigible inmates; a facility that meets international specifications and standards; a facility having an authorized capacity of two thousand prisoners; a facility with strict control and monitoring of inmates' movement; a facility with a minimal staff inmate interaction with 24-hour surveillance of inmates and the entire facility. As a result, the most suitable setting for the study were those institutions where one could find, at least, high sentence and aggressive prisoners, each exhibiting a different criterion. Based on these criteria, the maximum and the medium prison institutions were selected for the study. These institutions were chosen because they hold the most aggressive, high sentence and incorrigible inmates and may place high work

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demands on the employees making them more vulnerable to face work-life conflict.

The Maximum-Security Prison is the latest prison established in Ghana. It is located at Ankaful Prisons Complex, Cape Coast in the Central Region. It is the prison with the most secure facilities. thus the title Maximum Security Prison. Maximum Security has been established with such a secure facility to keep the high sentence and high-profile prisoners and to aid in the decongestion of prisons. The prison was commissioned by the late President Evans Atta Mills on 8th November 2011 after the first phase of the project was completed. The prison was first established to confine law-breakers to facilitate the smooth running of the British administration. The prison complex comprises three other prisons namely, Contagious Disease Prison, Main Camp Prison and Ankaful Annex Prison. They are located on the main Ankaful – Elmina Road. The land size occupied by the Maximum-Security Prison is 1,800 feet by 1,800 feet.

The size of lands for the residential facilities vary, with different projects underway. There is 1,000 feet by 600 feet land, with fifteen blocks of two-bedroom flats under-construction. On another 800 feet by 800 feet land are twelve blocks of three-bedroom flats, all under construction. Also, four bungalow blocks are under construction on a separate 250 feet by 180 feet and eleven two-bedroom flats will occupy 1,000 feet by 600 feet land once construction commences (Ghana Prisons Service, 2015).

The medium security prison comes close to the maximum-security facility but with less emphasis on internal fortification. Until the provision of a maximum prison facility in 2011, the medium security facility was used to hold high sentence and aggressive prisoners. Currently, there is only one such facility

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in the country which is located at Nsawam in the Eastern Region of Ghana. The Nsawam Medium Security Prison was established in 1960 and received its first inmates on 10th October; 1960. It is located in the south-eastern part of the Nsawam Township on the outskirts along the Accra-Nsawam trunk road. The prison is located on 823.027 acres of land. Construction of the prison began in 1956 with land acquired from the Adonten division of the Aburi stool. The acquisition was achieved through the assistance and negotiation of the late Ohene Djan, a royal of Aburi and a friend of President Kwame Nkrumah. The establishment of the Nsawam Medium Security prison was necessitated by overcrowding in the central prisons and the McCarthy committee on the prison which recommended that a new prison be built at Nsawam near Accra. The category of inmates Nsawam Medium Security Prison holds are remanded, recidivists, lifers, and condemned prisoners (Ghana Prisons Service, 2015).

Research Philosophy

A research paradigm or philosophy is a collection of beliefs that prescribe how research should be carried out in a particular discipline and how the results should be interpreted (Bryman, 2004). In other words, a paradigm is essentially a set of beliefs that encompasses the theories of a group of researchers, with these ideas underpinning their research methods and interpretation (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Within the different epistemological positions which are commonly invoked, two broad groups can be identified: on one side are the interpretivists, postmodernists, social constructionists and relativists, and on the other side are the positivists, modernists, and empiricists (Lawson, 2002). The philosophical foundation for this study is however based on the positivist paradigm.

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The positivists, modernists, and empiricists assert that social phenomena can be explained scientifically, based on regularities from the data obtained. It stems from positivism which is the paradigm of traditional natural science. Historically, positivism has expanded into several branches including logical positivism, methodological positivism, and neo-positivism. Its philosophical assumptions are based on scientific realism. which asserts that reality is objective, and exists independent of the researcher and how he or she makes sense of the social world (Craig, 1998). It connotes a research philosophy that is rooted in natural sciences and which is oftentimes referred to as an objective research strategy, it also connotes that there is only one objective that is real which is achieved through experiment (Saunders et al., 2012; Quinlan, 2011). Positivism from an epistemological view acknowledged that it is an intellectual way of hypothesizing, investigating, and reporting authentic research, originally in the natural sciences, and later embedded in the social sciences (Thomson & Walker, 2010). Positivism, therefore, concludes that the object being investigated and the meaning ascribed to that object has a distinct separate existence from the researchers own perspective (Bryman & Bell. 2011).

This view is also embedded in ontological research philosophy that a researcher is independent of the mentality of any person; in essence, the existence of the researcher and the social actors largely depends on collective attitudes and practices (Baillie & Meckler, 2012). In the social sciences, a positivist might use laboratory experiments to test hypotheses. but the main positivist methodology for examining real world problems is the survey of sample populations that are sufficiently large to support generalizations of human behaviour. Most researchers who take this standpoint aim "not to disturb

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the world they are studying. Their aim, instead, is to trawl their data collecting net quietly through the social world" (Graham & Jones 1992: 239) and use tools such as surveys or questionnaires to depict and understand the subject matter and numerical approaches to reporting and analysing the data gathered (Ward & Boeck, 2000).

The researcher adopted the positivist approach because this research assumes the ontological belief that the real world is made up of people's experiences of work-life conflict (WLC). Work and life are two different constructs but they are interdependent. The conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989; 2011) presumes that consumption of resources (for example, time spent on work /life) will compete with the execution of work and life roles. It further holds that the nature of work demands and life demands affect work-life conflict but the nature and extent of its effects would not be similar across nations. Therefore, it is an objective reality that independently exists, not an illusion in the contemporary world. Thus, this research assumes that the knowledge on work-life conflict can be identified, measured, and described in different scenarios. It further assumes that not all individuals will experience the same level of conflict which varies in terms of national, organizational, and family characteristic.

Since this study presumes that a world exists external and theory-neutral, this research adopts an objective (positivist) epistemology. Saunders et al., (2012) submitted that positivism gives room for objective reality and has the goal of universal truth that deals with human practices in the field of management sciences (Bosch, 2010; Baillie & Meckler, 2012; Rubin & Rubin, 2012: 15).

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Research Approach

A research approach according to Sanders, Lewis, and Thornhill, (2007; 2016), can be deductive, inductive, and abductive. In the view of Gilbert (2001), deductive approach is the mainstay to develop valid and reliable ways of collecting facts about the social phenomena that facilitate the use of statistical analysis to make explanations about how the social world operates. In other words, deductive approach concentrates on the testing of theory/hypothesis through the reading of literature (Sanders et al., 2016). Inductive on the other hand is used to gain deep understanding of human behavior regarding people's values, interpretive schemes, and belief systems (Cavana, Delahye & Sekaran, 2001). In other words, inductive approach deals with the collection of data and developing of a theory after the data analysis. The abductive approach, the third approach, according to Neuman, (2014), combines the two approaches. In other words, instead of starting from theory to data as in deductive approach or data to theory as in inductive approach, an abductive approach involves the collection of data for the exploration of themes and patterns of a phenomenon to generate a new or modify an existing theory which is subsequently testes through additional data collection (Neuman, 2014).

The philosophies underpinning this research are objectivistic and positivist in nature, and adopts a deductive approach. The knowledge therefore can be discovered through categorization and scientific measurement leading to use of quantitative methods and statistical analysis to achieve determined research aims (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007; 2016). Based on the characteristics and assumptions of the two dominant paradigms outlined above, two principal approaches, quantitative and qualitative, have emerged in the

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social sciences. The former is based on positivism, while the latter builds on interpretivism. This study adopts the quantitative approach.

Quantitative research entails counting and measuring of events and performing the statistical analysis of a body of numerical data (Smith, 1988). It is the kind of research approach that is largely used as a substitute for any data gathering approach (e.g., questionnaire) or data analysis procedure (e.g., graphs or statistics) that produces or engages numerical data. This also many a times answers the questions why, how, what is the effect of one variable on the other (Saunders et al., 2012; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). As Cassell and Symon (1994) pointed out, the major concerns of the quantitative approach are that measurement is reliable, valid, and generalizable in its prediction of cause and effect. Being deductive and particularistic, quantitative study is based upon formulating the research hypotheses and verifying them empirically on a specific set of data. Scientific hypotheses are value-free; the investigator's own values, biases, and subjective preferences have no place in the quantitative method (Babbie, 2003; Frankfort, Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992; Ting-Toomey, 1984).

This study adopted the quantitative research method which is in line with the non-experimental design of ex post facto type because the researcher does not have direct control over the independent variable, hence, the intention to manipulate is not there. The reason for adopting this approach is that it is an appropriate means for arriving at statistical descriptions especially when the population is large. Moreover, the quantitative research approach allows defining the study variables and linking them together to frame hypotheses, which would subsequently be tested after the analysis of the collected data

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(Saunders et al., 2016:166). The chosen method would also permit the researcher to use a questionnaire for the data collection and follow an objective process for the data collection and analysis. Furthermore, the quantitative research method would grant the researcher an opportunity to generalize the results of the sample to the population from which the sample was collected.

The researcher also considers this approach for this study because a probability sampling approach was utilized to select from the target population, a representative sample for the study. It also gives room for a broader spectrum in terms of the population and enhances the generalization of the results as well as giving room for greater objectivity and accuracy of results (Babbie, 2010; Brians, Willnat, Manheim & Rich, 2011). The quantitative approach is also considered an appropriate design for the study because of its ability to make a concise investigation on the moderating effect of personal resources on the work-life conflict and employee wellbeing nexus in the Ghana Prisons service.

Research Design

Research design refers to the general plan of how to go about answering the research question (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007). It is a guideline that specifies how data relating to a given research should be gathered, measured and analysed (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016:96). A research design can also be described as the research plan, structure, and strategy the researcher employ to obtain adequate answers to a collection of research questions (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973, cited in Blaikie, 2000, p. 37). A correlational research design was used for this study. According to Sekaran and Bougie. (2016), the correlational design is a design that determines the associations or relationships among variables. In other words, it is used to describe the statistical association

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between two or more variables (Creswell, 2001). From the viewpoint of the authors, the correlational design does not indicate one variable causes a change in another variable but instead, it shows the extent to which variables co-vary. Creswell, (2014), also notes that correlational design is used to assess to what degree two or more variables differ when changes in one variable are reflected in the other (Creswell, 2014:41).

This study design was considered a valid method to examine the relationship among work-life conflict, personal resources, and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service because neither the dependent nor the independent variables could be manipulated. This is because, it will be difficult to say that work-life conflict is the only cause of change in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. There may be other factors that might cause changes to their well-being which might not be evident. Also, data obtained for analysis was based on self-reported questionnaires and this could not be subject to a rigorous study of cause and effect as in experimental studies.

Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary data sources were used. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), the primary data is the data closest to the truth and is often the most valid, the most illuminating, and the most truth-manifesting. The primary data were collected from employees of the Ghana Prisons Service in the maximum and medium institutions using an in-depth survey questionnaire. The secondary data was from relevant journals, books, the internet, and other documents. While the primary data provided the foundation for analysis and discussion, secondary sources of information supplemented the arguments by bringing to light other studies related to the research. The

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researcher used this information to identify commonalities, points of departure, repeating themes, and areas for future research.

Study Population

At the end of a long and involved analysis, nothing comes out that is better than the attention, precision and consideration that went into the selection of the research population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). McBurney (2001:248) refers to the population as the sampling frame. He notes that population is the totality of persons, events, organization units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned. The population for this study were employees of the maximum and medium prison institutions of the Ghana Prison Service. The employees comprise both custodial and non-custodial employees at the various levels of the institution. The total number of employees in the institutions were 769 as shown in Table 1. The population was classified using the characteristics of the maximum and medium prison institutions.

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

In social research, studying each unit directly is usually impossible, or unnecessary. As noted by Keith (2005), we cannot research everyone, everywhere on everything. The amount of time involved in surveying the entire population can be so long that the results can become outdated. A sample is the representative portion of the population selected for the study (Ofori & Dampson, 2011; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The ideal sample must be carefully chosen so that the researcher can see the overall population's key characteristics in the same proportions and relationships if the researcher were to analyse the

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overall population (Leedy & Ormrod 2010). The primary objective of sampling, therefore, is to obtain a representative sample from which to make a reliable generalization of the total population (Blaikie, 2000; Neuman, 2004).

The reason usually advanced by researchers for the use of sample surveys instead of a census is that complete coverage of the entire population is not always advantageous as compared to the sample when dealing with a large population (Saunders et al., 2016). The sample surveys are usually supported in this situation because of their ability to provide accurate information within a relatively fewer resources available to the researcher and may be more efficient than the complete coverage of the population. Despite endorsing sample surveys as opposed to a census in an extremely large population, it is suggested that researchers should avoid an overly large sample size in their studies as this would result in duplicity of data (Kariuki, Wanjau & Gakure, 2011).

For this reason, the optimum sample size has been deployed for the study. The optimal sample size is often calculated either by direct calculation using appropriate statistical formulae appropriate to the nature of the study or by reference to tables specifying suggested sample sizes for a given population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016; Sarantakos, 2005; Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). Based on the table developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), with a population size of about 769 and to ensure a 5 per cent margin of error, the minimum sample size should be 260. However, to ensure an increase in internal and external validity, a sample of 416 employees were selected for this study as presented in Table 1. The additional sample was gotten by calculating 60% of the minimum sample size.

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Specifically, simple random technique was employed for the study. This technique was selected because it grants unbiasedness in the selection of any of the study units. Specifically, a set of numbers from 1 and 769 of the employees were done and out of it 416 employees were selected randomly. This was done with a number generation tool in excel. The employees of the Ghana Prison Service were targeted because they had vital information concerning the work-life conflict, personal resources (emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence) and the wellbeing of the Ghana Prison Service.

Data Collection Instruments

In this study, the survey data gathering method was adopted. The researcher used standardized questionnaires to gather data on the study's respondents' preferences, thoughts and behaviours (Creswell, 2003; Yin, 2003). The survey approach has been adopted, as it is ideally chosen for descriptive, exploratory or explanatory studies. Again, the method is best suited for studies that have a unit of analysis comprising individuals, groups and organizations (Yin, 2003). The survey approach of data collection has two main components-interviewing and administration of questionnaires (Babbie, 2007).

The key instrument employed for data collection was a self – administered questionnaire. Questionnaires are easy but powerful research instruments according to Zikmund, (2003). They are cost-effective and reduce data biases arising from any interviewer bias that was introduced during the interview. The questionnaire's anonymous nature enables respondents to openly share their inner beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions. Greater uniformity, consistency and objectivity are guaranteed when a questionnaire is used for data collection (Neelankavil, 2005; Sekarana & Bougie, 2016). Also, according to

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Neelankavil, (2005), privacy and convenience of respondents can be accomplished during questionnaire completion. thereby ensuring greater anonymity.

In line with the arguments advanced by Neelankavi. (2015), the use of a self-administered questionnaire was justifiable for this study because the study sought to collect data from employees of the Ghana Prison Service in a non – supervised setting due to the busy nature of the respondents. It can be concluded from this that accurate response from the respondents could be guaranteed for this study if questionnaire, which has qualities such as greater uniformity, consistency and objectivity and offering convenience to respondents, was used for data collection.

The research was based on data collected from a self-report questionnaire made up of multiple questions. The questionnaire was divided into six sections. Section A was used to capture information on the respondent's demographic details: age, gender, the institution they work for, their position, their experience and qualification. Section B was used to measure work to life conflict (WLC) using the Work-Family Conflict (WFC) Scale, a 9-item, 5- point Likert type instrument composed of time-based, strain-based. and behaviour-based 3-item subscales where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Cronbach's Alpha for the full scale in a previous study was 0.87. As noted by Mathews, Kath. and Barnes-Farrell (2010) the WFC scale has been used in over 25 empirical studies. Additionally, the subscales have been used individually (Bruck et al., 2002). A definition of each subscale is shown in table 2. The work-family conflict scale was however

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adapted to suit the measurement of the work-life conflict variable by replacing family with life.

Section C was used to measure life to work conflict (L-WC), using the Family Work Conflict (FWC) Scale, a 9-item, 5-point Likert type scale composed of time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based 3-item subscales where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree (Carlson et al., 2000) The Cronbach's Alpha in past studies has ranged from 0.70 - 0.87. Sample items and past and current alpha coefficients for each subscale are shown in Table 2. Like WFC, the FWC has been used in over 25 research studies (Matthews et al., 2010). Additionally, the subscales have been used individually (Bruck et al., 2002). A definition of each of the three subscales is shown in table 2 below. The work to family and family to work scales were also adapted to help measure the work to life conflict and the life to work conflict by replacing family with life.

Section D measures the emotional intelligence with a 16-item scale developed by Wong and Law (2002) with a 7-point Likert scale point composed of Self-emotions appraisal, Regulation of Emotions. Use of Emotions and Emotion Appraisal. The Cronbach's Alpha in past studies was 0.78. Section E measures Spiritual intelligence with a 24 – item scale developed by King (2008b) with a five-point Likert scale point composed of critical existing thinking, personal meaning production, transcendental awareness, and conscious state expansion. The Cronbach's Alpha in past studies was 0.85.

Section F measures well-being with a 20-items scale developed by Diener et al. (1985), Hackman and Oldham (1975) and Goldberg (1972) with a 7- point and 4-point Likert scale point respectively. This scale is composed of life satisfaction, work satisfaction and psychological health. All the sections

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except section A were measured with a Likert – item rating scale. The Likert – scale facilitates the measuring of attitudes of respondents through the combination of scores of those respondents on different items into a single index (Likert, 1932). In other words, they are scales generally used to measure people's attitudes, opinions, and beliefs (Yates, 2004)

Table 1: Summary of the Questionnaire Items

Elements	Number of questions	Empirical Source
Respondent's profile	6	
Work to family conflict	9	Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985
Time-based WFC	3	"
Strain-based WFC	3	"
Behavior-based WFC	3	"
Family to work conflict	9	Carlson et. al, 2000
Time-based FWC	3	"
Strain-based FWC	3	"
Behavior-based FWC	3	"
Emotional intelligence	16	Wong and Law, 2002
Self-emotions appraisal	4	"
Regulations of emotions	4	"
Use of emotions	4	"
Others emotion appraisal	4	"
Spiritual Intelligence	**24**	King and DeCicco, 2009
Critical existential thinking	7	"
Transcendent awareness	7	"
Personal meaning production	5	"
Conscious state expansion	5	"
Wellbeing of Employees	20	
Life satisfaction	5	Diener et al. (1985).
Job satisfaction	3	Hackman and Oldham (1975)
Physiological health	12	Goldberg (1972)

Source: Researcher's Compilation, (2020)

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Data Collection Procedure

The procedure followed by a researcher in collecting data is essential in the determination of the response rate for a particular study. This is because if an appropriate procedure for data collection is not followed, there may be a possibility of having most of the instruments used in the data collection not returned by the respondents and hence leading to a low response rate (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). There are different ways by which data can be gathered through a questionnaire. The method could be through the internet, post and hand delivery and collection of questionnaires (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016; Saunders et al., 2016).

The hand delivery and collection of questionnaires were adopted for this study. The method chosen allows the researcher to visit the premises of the institutions of the Ghana Prison Service and hand-deliver the questionnaire to the respondents. Also, the hand delivery and collection technique of data collection helps the researcher to inquire from the respondents the time they will use to complete the questionnaire and the convenient time for the researcher to collect the questionnaire. The agreement reached with the respondents was strictly adhered to ensure that no respondent was put at a disadvantage. Finally, the hand delivery and collection technique of data collection through the questionnaire also made it easier for the respondents to determine the authenticity of the study. This is because any identifiable documents that might be required by the respondents could easily be provided to them for verification.

Furthermore, the collection of data took place in the first quarter of 2021. The premises of the respondents were visited during working hours. 98 per cent

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of the total number of questionnaires distributed were found to be appropriate and hence, utilized. The utilized questionnaires were therefore kept under lock.

Pre – test

A pre-test according to Pallant (2016) is required to offer clarity to instructions, questions, and scale items. It helps potential respondents to comprehend the questions and respond appropriately. It also helps researchers to do away with any questions that may have offend potential respondents. Saunder's et al. (2016) also advanced that pre-test improves the questionnaire to be sent to the field for data gathering. It also enables the researcher obtain some assessment of the questions' validity and the likely reliability of the data. In order to check for the reliability of the questionnaire, a pre-test was conducted using a convenience sampling of 15 employees from the Ankaful Annex Prisons to assess how they interpret the questions and to detect problems in the questionnaire design for corrections before the actual survey was conducted.

The pre-test helped to correct ambiguities and poorly worded questions and these were modified to facilitate reading and understanding. The Cronbach alpha and reliability coefficient obtained was between 0.78 and 0.97, suggesting that the instrument was reliable. The pretesting was done in January, 2021.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data collected from the survey design was analysed quantitatively using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The data collected was first be edited to remove errors and then coded accordingly. The data obtained were analysed using the computer software; Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS 17.0 version). The technique used to test the hypotheses in this study was

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Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and the Ordinary Least Square (OLS). The techniques employed from these tools are descriptive statistics, correlation, simple and multiple regressions. The descriptive statistics (frequency and percentages) was employed to determined data characteristics. while the OLS-SEM were used to analyse the study objectives and hypothesis. The choice of the tools was based on their efficacy in examining the relationships between variables that were hypothesized in this study. Specifically. each of the research objectives was analysed as follows:

1. To examine the influence of Work to Life conflict (WLC) on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service. Multiple linear regression was used to analyse this objective. The independent variable, work to life conflict, was regressed on the dependent variable, the wellbeing of employees. In addition, PLS-SEM was used to show the nexuses between the independent and dependent variables.
2. To examine the effect of Life to Work conflict (LWC) on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service. Multiple linear regression was used to analyse this objective. The independent variable, life to work conflict, will be regressed on the dependent variable, the wellbeing of employees. In addition, PLS-SEM was used to show the nexuses between the independent and dependent variables.
3. To assess the moderating effect of Emotional Intelligent on the Work to Life Conflict and wellbeing nexus. PLS-SEM was used to

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determine whether emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

4. To determine the moderating effect of Emotional Intelligent on the Life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus. PLS-SEM was used to determine whether emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees.
5. To analyse the moderating effect of spiritual intelligence on the Work to Life Conflict and wellbeing nexus. PLS-SEM was used to determine whether spiritual intelligence moderates the relationship between work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees.
6. To investigate the moderating effect of spiritual intelligence on the Life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus. PLS-SEM was used to determine whether spiritual intelligence moderates the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

The evaluation of the models began with the measurement model and then the structural model because, PLS-SEM validates measurement models first before structural models are evaluated (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt & Ringle, 2019). Reliability of the scale was measured with the rho_ A although Cronbach's Alpha (≥ 0.7) and Composite Reliability (≥ 0.7) were also computed. The reliability measure rho_ A is an estimate for the squared correlation of the PLS construct score with the (unknown) true construct score. It must have a minimum score of 0.7 (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019). The rho_ A is therefore recognized as the most important PLS reliability measure (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015), which is currently the only consistent reliability measure of the PLS construct scores (Henseler, 2017).

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Content validity was ensured through constant review of literature in line with main constructs. The items that were used to measure the constructs were obtained through validated scales. Furthermore, the supervisor subjected the items to strict scrutinization before final acceptance. Convergent validity was measured with the Average Variance Extracted [AVE]. AVE values must be or exceed 0.5 before they can adequately measure convergent validity (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015). Benitez, Henseler, Castillo and Schuberth (2020) explained that convergent validity measures the extent to which indicators belonging to one latent variable measure the same construct.

Discriminant validity was measured with Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (Should be less than 0.9 or 1). Discriminant validity represents the subjective independence of every indicator on its latent variable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019), thus, it measures the degree to which a concept distinguishes itself from other constructs (Kassem, Khoiry & Hamza, 2020). Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio [HTMT] represents the geometric mean of the heterotrait-heteromethod correlation divided by the average of the monotrait-heteromethod (Benitez et al., 2020) and best measures discriminant validity in the reflective model than Fornell –Larcker Criterion and Factor Loadings (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015). This justifies why these indices were not reported in the context of this study.

Since reflective models are prone to biases and errors, it became extremely necessary for the study to examine the test of collinearity statistics and report the same (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019). This was measured with the VIF values. This is the accepted means of measuring common-method bias in reflective models (Kock, 2015). Generally, as a rule of the thumb, VIF needs to

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have a score of 5 or lower to avoid multicollinearity problems (Kock & Lynn, 2012) in situations where algorithms incorporate measurement error especially for factor-based PLS-SEM algorithms (Kock, 2015). The VIF is also used to measure common method bias (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019). Common method bias was measured with Collinearity Statistics (VIF $\leq$ 5).

The structural model was evaluated as follows. Factors loadings for all significant indicators were measured accordingly, given cognizance to p-values and t-statistics (Jung & Park, 2018). Outer loadings are considered a form of item reliability coefficients for the reflective model (Garson, 2016; Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2012). The outer loadings also measure convergent validity (Kassem, Khoiry & Hamza, 2020). Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins and Kuppelwierser, (2014) disclose the outer loadings are single regression results with an indicator in the measurement model as an independent variable.

Outer loadings otherwise referred to as measurement loadings are standardized path weights connecting the factors to the indicator variables and range from 0 to 1. Loadings should be significant (Garson, 2016). By convention, for a well-fitting reflective model, path loadings should be above 0.70 (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2012). However, indicators with not less than 0.5 loadings can be retained. Items with a threshold less than 0.7 were retained because their deletion could not improve CA and CR (Hair et al., 2014). In general, the larger the loadings, the stronger and more reliable the measurement model.

Path-coefficients were used to assess the contribution of the predictor(s) to the variance in the dependent variable (Schuberth, Henseler & Dijkstra, 2018). The beta co-efficient value represents the power of latent structures

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between exogenous and endogenous constructs (Kassem, Khoiry & Hamza, 2020). Effect size (f^2) was used to quantify the contributions of the predictors to the changes in the dependent variable (Ahrholdt, Gudergan & Ringle, 2019). Effect size values above 0.35, 0.15 and 0.02 can be interpreted as strong, moderate, and weak (Cohen, 1998) respectively.

The predictive relevance of the direct effect in the model was measured with the q^2. The q^2 values are obtained by way of the blindfolding procedure which omits as part of the data matrix, estimate the model parameters, and predicts the omitted part by using the previously computed estimates (Ringle, Sarstedt, Mitchell & Gudergan, 2020). It is categorized as follows: $0.02 \leq q^2 < 0.15$ as a weak effect: $0.15 \leq q^2 > 0.35$ as moderate effect and $q^2 \geq 0.35$ as strong effect (Becker, Rai, & Rigdon, 2013).

The predictive capacities of the models were assessed with the coefficient of determination (R^2). The R-square is the most common effect size measure in path models (Benitez et al, 2020). The R^2 provides insights into a model in-sample predictive power (Becker, Rai, & Rigdon, 2013). The R^2 makes the research future-proof because the new model selection criteria can still be calculated ex-post as long as the R^2 values are given (Benitez et al, 2020). The prescribed tentative cut-off points (Kassem, Khoiry & Hamza, 2020) for describing R-square are as follows: Results above 0.67 (Substantial), 0.33 (Moderate) and 0.19 (Weak). The findings were presented in Tables and Figures for easy understanding and reporting.

Ethical Consideration

The researcher anticipates several ethical issues that might arise during the data collection. As a result, to ensure that ethical standards were upheld in

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this study, an ethical clearance letter and other documents elucidating the intent and authenticity of the survey was sought from the Institutional Review Board of the University of Cape Coast. Specific approval was also obtained from the Ghana Prisons Service. To ensure that the rights of respondents are respected and protected, the researcher adopted an informed consent form from Creswell (2003) with the following content: The right to participate voluntarily and the right to withdraw at any time, so that the individual is not being coerced into participation; The inclusion of the main purpose of the study in the instruments so that individuals understand the nature of the research and its likely impact on them; The right to ask questions, obtain a copy of the results, and have their rights respected; The benefits of the study to the individual respondents; and Signatures of both the participants and the researcher.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a detailed discussion on the procedure followed by the researcher in the conduct of the study. Among the elements discussed by the researcher were study area, research design, research philosophy, research approach, target population, sample and sampling procedure, instrument design, pre-testing, measurements of the variables, data collection techniques and analysis and ethical consideration of the study. Both descriptive and correlation research design was used for this study. The descriptive design was used to help the researcher know the situation of either the variables of interest or groups being studied or both. Also, a correlational research design was employed due to the difficulty in concluding that work-life conflict is the only cause of change in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Furthermore, the positivism philosophy was employed for the study.

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Data were collected using a structured questionnaire that was designed based on validated scales as reported in the literature. Specific questions in the questionnaire addressed the operationalization of the study's constructs – work-life conflict, emotional intelligence, spiritual intelligence, and well-being employees. The statistical techniques employed for the data analysis were descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) and inferential (correlational, simple, and multiple regressions) statistics. The choice of the tools was based on their efficacy in examining the relationships between variables that were hypothesized in this study.

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CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings from the current study. The current study sought to examine work-life conflict 's influence on employee's wellbeing of the Ghana Prisons Service and the role of personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence in moderating such nexus. The first part presents and discusses the profile of the respondents in the study. Specifically, the role of respondents in their respective firms was explored together with their gender, ages, length of service, educational qualification, role in the institution and their institutions. The final part assesses the study's models. Specifically, issues about indicator loadings, CR (Composite reliability), AVE (Average Variance extracted) and DV (Discriminant validity) were considered for the measurement models. In addition, the important issues considered for the structural models were coefficient of determination, path coefficient, predictive relevance and effect size. Whereas analysis of the first part was done using descriptive statistics, that of the final part was analyzed using structural equation modelling.

Demographic Profile of Respondents

The socio-demographic information of the respondents is presented below in Table 2 using descriptive statistical tools - frequency and percentage.

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Table 2: Demographic Information of Respondents

No	Variables	Attributes	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Gender	Male	304	75.2
		Female	100	24.8
		Total	404	100
2	Age range	less than or equal to 30 years	131	32.4
		31-40 years	146	36.1
		41-50 years	76	18.8
		51-60 years	51	12.6
		Total	404	100
3	Length of service	1-5 years	165	40.8
		6-10 years	118	29.2
		11-15 years	45	11.1
		16-20 years	30	7.4
		21 years and above	46	11.4
		Total	404	100
4	Education Qualification	Basic Education Certificate	28	6.9
		Senior Secondary/ Technical School Certificate	155	38.4
		HND/Diploma	103	25.5
		1ST Degree	90	22.3
		Postgraduate	28	6.9
		Total	404	100
5	Role in the institution	Custodian	363	89.9
		Non- custodian	41	10.1
		Total	404	100
6	Institution	Medium security	271	67.1
		Maximum security	133	32.9
		Total	404	100

Source: Field survey (2021)

The gender distribution of the respondents indicated that the majority of the respondents were males 304 (75.2%) whilst the remaining 100 (24.8%) were females. This means that the sample structure was male-dominated. This provides the avenue where further comparative analysis can be performed based

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on sexual orientations in the study. Regarding the age range of the participants, the study revealed that the majority of the respondents 146 (36.1%) were between the ages of 31-40 years. This was followed by 131 (32.4%) of the respondents who were less than or equal to 30 years. It was also revealed that 76 (18.8%) of the respondents were between the ages 41-50 years. Furthermore, the least among the age range was 51 (12.6%) of the respondents who were between the ages 51-60 years. A critical analysis of the age range indicated that the institution had a relatively younger workforce structure.

Also, on the number of years respondents have served the prison service, Table 2 revealed that the majority, 165 (40.8%) of the respondents had served between 1-5years. This was followed by 118 (29.2%) of the respondents who had also served the institution between 5-10 years. It was known that 30 (7.4%) of the respondents has stayed in the institution between 15-20 years. This gives a clear indication that most of the respondents have more years to work in the institution showing a younger workforce. For the educational qualification of respondents, Table 2 showed that the majority constituting 155 (38.4%) of the respondents holds senior secondary/ technical school certificates. This was followed by 103 (25.5%) who were HND holders, 90 (22.3%) who were 1st-degree holders, and 28 (6.9%) who were post graduate holders. Similarly, 28 (6.9%) were holders of Basic School Certificate. In addition, the respondents were asked to state their role in the organization and according to Table 2, 363 (89.9%) of the respondents were custodians while 41 (10.1%) were non-custodian.

Assessment of Measurement and Structural Models for the Study

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According to Hair et al. (2014:97), 'a measurement model is appropriate when its indicators loaded above 0.70 on the latent variables or loaded between 0.4 and 0.7 in situations where removing the indicators do not lead to an increase in the reliability of the model." Also, "a Composite Reliability score from 0.6 to 0.7 and AVE (Average Variance Extracted) of 0.50 is seen as best for a measurement model." Finally, DV (Discriminant Validity) is considered appropriate for a measurement model when "the square root of each construct's AVE is higher than its correlation with other constructs."

In addition, for the structural models, it has been established that R square values of "0.25", 0.5 and 0.7" are seen as "weak, moderate and substantial" respectively. Also, Q square values of "0.02, 0.15 and 0.35" and f square values of "0.02, 0.15 and 0.35" are considered as "small, medium and large" respectively. Finally, a significant level up to 5% is also considered normal (Hair et al., 2014:97). The presentation of the models follows. The presentations of the models were in line with the six objectives itemized for the study, furthermore, the presentation of the structural models for each of the objectives was preceded by the assessment of the measurement models.

Objective 1: To Determine the Influence of Work to Life Conflict on the Wellbeing of Employees in the Ghana Prisons Service.

The first objective sought to determine the influence of work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The evaluation of the specified model is based on the recommendation that, measurement model is evaluated for quality assessment before structural model (Benitez, et al., 2020). The findings are presented as follows:

Measurement Model

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Table 3: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Wellbeing	0.859	0.869	0.890	0.537
Work to Life Conflict	0.884	0.957	0.909	0.626

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

From Table 3, it can be observed that the CA value, which indicates the internal consistency was reliable because the CA value for all the items exceeded the minimum 0.7 cut off point (Hair, et al.,2017). However, according to Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt (2012), composite reliability is considered a preferred alternative to CA to test convergent validity in reflective model because CA may either over-estimate or under-estimate scale reliability. Again, CA appears to underestimate the quality of internal consistency for the sensitivity of the number of elements in the table (Kassem. et al., 2020). This limitation is however resolved by the use of composite reliability.

From Table 3, it can be observed that all the constructs were reliable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019; Ringle, Wende & Becker.2015) because the constructs had CR scores higher than 0.7(Garson,2016; Hair. et al., 2014). Both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability refer to sum scores. not composite scores (Henseler,2017). This has led to the development of a new criterion for measurement of reliability in reflective models in SMART PLS which is rho_A. The findings in Table 3 show all the constructs had a rho_A higher than 0.7 hence it is concluded that all the constructs were highly reliable. Again, close

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observation for the AVEs for the constructs proves that they accurately measure the convergent validity (AVE>0.5).

Discriminant validity

Table 4: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	Wellbeing
Work to Life Conflict	0.292

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

In a well-fitted model, the HTMT ratio should be below 0.9 particularly in reflective models to accurately measure discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle & Sarsstedt,2015). This is a more conservative approach. The findings in Table 4 demonstrates a ratio below 0.9. which means both constructs accurately measured discriminant validity.

Collinearity Statistics (VIF)

Table 5: Inner VIF values

	Wellbeing
Work to Life Conflict	1.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The VIF score for the inner model (Table 5) therefore portray there is no common method bias for the constructs because the value for the VIF scores for the inner model did not exceed 5 (Kock. 2012).

Structural Model

This section provides findings relating to the output of the predictive modelling carried out. The structural model provides information relating to the influence of work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana

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Prisons service. According to Benitez, et al., (2020), the aspects of results recommended for reporting in explanatory studies for reflective models include loadings, path coefficients, effect size, predictive relevance (for direct paths) and coefficient of determination.

Outer loadings

Table 6: Indicator loadings

	Loadings	T Statistics	P Values
BS1 <- Work to Life Conflict	0.807	25.879	0.000
BS2 <- Work to Life Conflict	0.803	20.264	0.000
BS3 <- Work to Life Conflict	0.699	11.683	0.000
BT1 <- Work to Life Conflict	0.867	35.997	0.000
BT2 <- Work to Life Conflict	0.853	35.394	0.000
BT3 <- Work to Life Conflict	0.699	12.858	0.000
FP10 <- Wellbeing	0.690	15.449	0.000
FP12 <- Wellbeing	0.658	9.560	0.000
FP3 <- Wellbeing	0.739	15.342	0.000
FP4 <- Wellbeing	0.707	13.180	0.000
FP6 <- Wellbeing	0.784	23.796	0.000
FP7 <- Wellbeing	0.803	23.373	0.000
FP8 <- Wellbeing	0.735	13.028	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

From Table **6** it is observed that results from the factor loading show almost all the indicators had loadings of more than 0.7. This indicates that all the factors strongly measure the constructs they purport to measure especially as seen with their respective p-value. The p-values indicate the level of

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significant predictions of the indicators to accurately measure the respective constructs. The outer loadings were all statistically significant because they had $p<0.05$. Thus, in all instances, the T-statistics for the indicators were larger than 1.96.

Coefficients, Effect size and Predictive Relevance

Table 7: Co-efficient, Effect size and Predictive Relevance

	Beta	F squared	T Statistics	P Values	Q squared
Work to Life Conflict -> Wellbeing	-0.303	0.101	6.023	0.000	0.042

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The contribution of the predictor to causing the variance in the well-being of employees was measured with the beta coefficient value. The coefficient result (Table 7) indicates work to life conflict made a statistically significant negative contribution to causing a negative variance in the wellbeing of employees (Beta = -0.303; t = 6.023; p = 0.000: $p<0.05$). Thus, it can be expressed that a unit increase in scores for work to life conflict causes a 0.303 decrease in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service and a decrease in the score of work to life conflict will cause a 0.303 increase in the wellbeing of employees.

It is also important to statistically quantify how substantial the significant effect is and this can be done by assessing their effect size f squared (Henseler,2017). The effect size shows that work to life conflict causes a small statistically significant negative variance in the wellbeing of employees (f squared = 0.101). The predictive relevance score shows work to life conflict has

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a strong predictive relevance (q^2 = 0.042). This means that time-based work to life conflict accurately predicts a significant negative variance in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service as seen in the study.

Coefficient of Determination

Table 8: Coefficient of Determination

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Wellbeing	0.092	0.089

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The predictive capacity of the model is presented in Table 9. Results from Table 8 show that work to life conflict accounted for a weak variance in the wellbeing of employees (R-squared = 0.092) when all other factors not captured in this study but are affecting the wellbeing of employees of Ghana Prisons Service are statistically controlled for. Other factors not captured in the model could account for 90.8 variance in the well-being of employees. Thus, a small (9.2%) variation in the well-being of employees is attributed to changes in work to life conflict. The structural model is pictorially displayed on figure 2.

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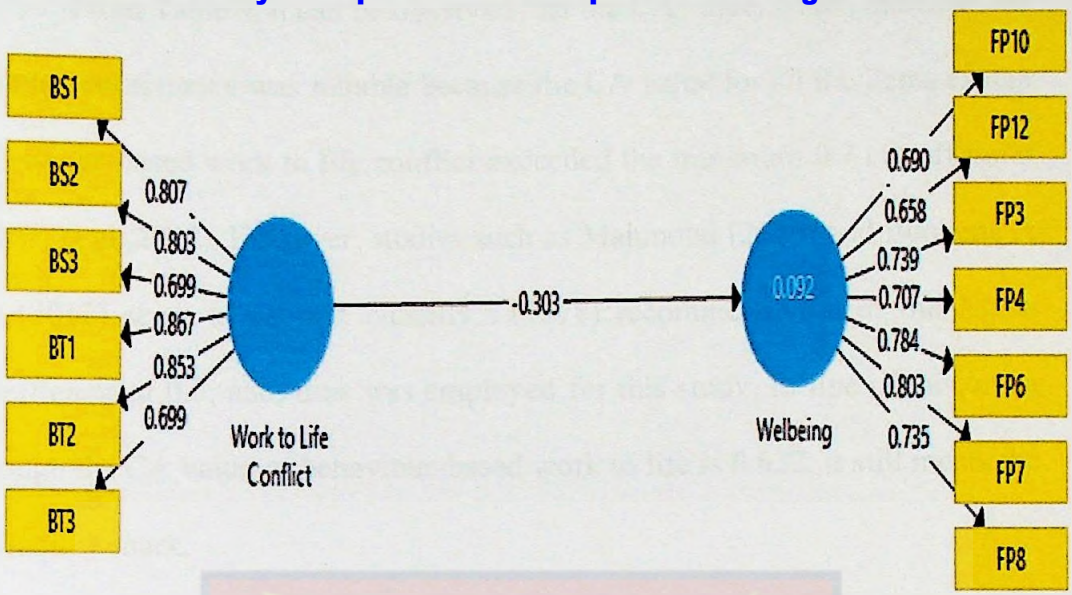

Figure 2: Structural Model showing the effect of work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees.

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The objective one also sought to look at how the individual dimensions of work to life conflict influence the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The findings are presented as follows:

Measurement Model

Construct Reliability and Validity

Table 9: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Behaviour-based WLC	0.622	1.423	0.800	0.667
Employee wellbeing	0.859	0.861	0.891	0.541
Strain-based WLC	0.813	0.882	0.882	0.715
Time-based WLC	0.811	0.999	0.878	0.706

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

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From Table 9, it can be observed that the CA value, which indicates the internal consistency was reliable because the CA value for all the items except behaviour-based work to life conflict exceeded the minimum 0.7 cut off point (Hair, et al.,2017). However, studies such as Mahmoud (2010) and Boohene et al. (2012) seem to support Nunally's (1978) recommendation of the Alpha coefficient of 0.5, and, thus was employed for this study. In line of this, even though the CA value of behaviour-based work to life is 0.622, it still meets the reliability mark.

It can be observed that all the constructs were reliable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019; Ringle, Wende & Becker,2015) because the constructs had CR scores higher than 0.7(Garson,2016; Hair, et al., 2014). The findings in the Table 9 also shows that all the constructs had a rho_A s higher than 0.7 hence it is concluded that all the constructs were highly reliable. Again, close observation for the AVEs for the constructs proves that they accurately measure the convergent validity (AVE>0.5).

Discriminant Validity

Table 10: Heterotrait-Montrait Ratio

	Behaviour-based WLC	Employee wellbeing	Strain-based WLC
Employee wellbeing	0.201		
Strain-based WLC	0.483	0.250	
Time-based WLC	0.335	0.313	0.914

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

Table 10 demonstrates that except for time-based work to life conflict and strain-based work to life conflict that had a little over 0.9 all the remaining constructs accurately measured discriminant validity. This, notwithstanding is

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acceptable in so far as the HTMT ratio is less than one (Benitez, et al., 2020; Gaskin, Godfrey & Vance, 2018; Henseler, 2017)

Collinearity Statistics (VIF)

Table 11: Inner VIF values

	Employee wellbeing
Behaviour-based WLC	1.101
Strain-based WLC	2.400
Time-based WLC	2.284

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

The VIF scores for the inner model (Table 11) therefore portray there is no common method bias for all the constructs because all the values for the VIF scores for the inner model did not exceed 5 (Kock, 2012).

Structural Model

Outer Loadings

Table 12: Indicator Loadings

	Loadings	T Statistics	P Values
BB2 <- Behaviour-based WLC	0.606	2.183	0.015
BB3 <- Behaviour-based WLC	0.984	4.847	0.000
BS1 <- Strain-based WLC	0.887	24.372	0.000
BS2 <- Strain-based WLC	0.854	16.694	0.000
BS3 <- Strain-based WLC	0.792	10.552	0.000
BT1 <- Time-based WLC	0.940	54.821	0.000
BT2 <- Time-based WLC	0.867	25.612	0.000
BT3 <- Time-based WLC	0.694	9.411	0.000
FP10 <- Employee wellbeing	0.722	18.418	0.000
FP11 <- Employee wellbeing	0.669	13.101	0.000
FP12 <- Employee wellbeing	0.710	14.512	0.000
FP3 <- Employee wellbeing	0.718	17.608	0.000
FP4 <- Employee wellbeing	0.667	13.557	0.000
FP6 <- Employee wellbeing	0.773	24.591	0.000
FP7 <- Employee wellbeing	0.740	21.232	0.000
FP8 <- Employee wellbeing	0.761	19.333	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

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From Table 12 it is observed that results from the factor loading show almost all the indicators had loadings of more than 0.7. This indicates that all the factors strongly measure the constructs they purport to measure especially as seen with their respective p-value. The p-values indicate the level of significant predictions of the indicators to accurately measure the respective constructs. The outer loadings were all statistically significant because they had $p<0.05$. Thus, in all instances, the T-statistics for the indicators were larger than 1.96.

Coefficients, Effect size and Predictive Relevance

Table 13: Co-efficient, Effect size and Predictive Relevance

	Beta	F-squared	T Statistics	P Values	Q squared
Behaviour-based WLC -> Employee wellbeing	0.255	0.070	2.957	0.002	0.0248
Strain-based WLC -> Employee wellbeing	-0.070	0.002	0.843	0.200	-0.0010
Time-based WLC -> Employee wellbeing	-0.318	0.053	4.087	0.000	0.0291

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The coefficient results (Table 13) indicate time-based work to life conflict made the strongest statistically significant unique negative contribution to causing the negative variance in the wellbeing of employees (Beta = -0.318; t = 4.087; p = 0.000: $p<0.05$). Thus, it can be expressed that a unit increase in scores for time-based work to life conflict causes a 0.318 decrease in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service and a decrease in scores

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for time-based work to life conflict will cause a 0.318 increase in the wellbeing of employees.

It is also important to statistically quantify how substantial the significant effects are and this can be done by assessing their effect size f squared (Henseler,2017). The effect size shows that time-based work to life conflict causes a small statistically significant negative variance in the wellbeing of employees (f squared = 0.053). The predictive relevance score shows that time-based work to life conflict has a small predictive relevance (q^2 = 0.0248). This means that time-based work to life conflict accurately predicts a significant negative variance in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service as seen in the study.

Similarly, the study proved that behaviour-based work to life conflict also made the next statistically significant positive contribution to causing a positive variance in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service (Beta = 0.255; t = 2.957; p = 0.002: p<0.05). Thus, it can be expressed that a unit increase in the scores for behaviour-based work to life conflict causes a 0.255 increase in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana prisons service.

The effect size shows that behaviour-based work to life conflict causes a small but statistically significant positive variance in the wellbeing of employees (f squared = 0.070). The predictive relevance score shows that behaviour-based work to life conflict has a small predictive relevance (q squared = 0.0291). This, therefore, confirms that behaviour-based work to life conflict predicts significant positive variance in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service as judged by the statistical lenses in the context of the study.

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Coefficient of Determination

Table 14: Coefficient of Determination

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Employee wellbeing	0.159	0.149

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The predictive capacity of the model is presented in Table 15. Results from Table 14 show that work to life conflict (as measured by time-based, stain-based and behaviour-based) accounted for a weak variance in the wellbeing of employees (R-squared = 0.159) when all other factors not captured in this study but are affecting the wellbeing of employees of Ghana Prisons Service are statistically controlled for. Other factors not captured in the model could account for 84.1 variance in the well-being of employees. Thus, a small (15.9%) variation in the well-being of employees is attributed to changes in work to life conflict. The structural model is pictorially displayed on figure 2.

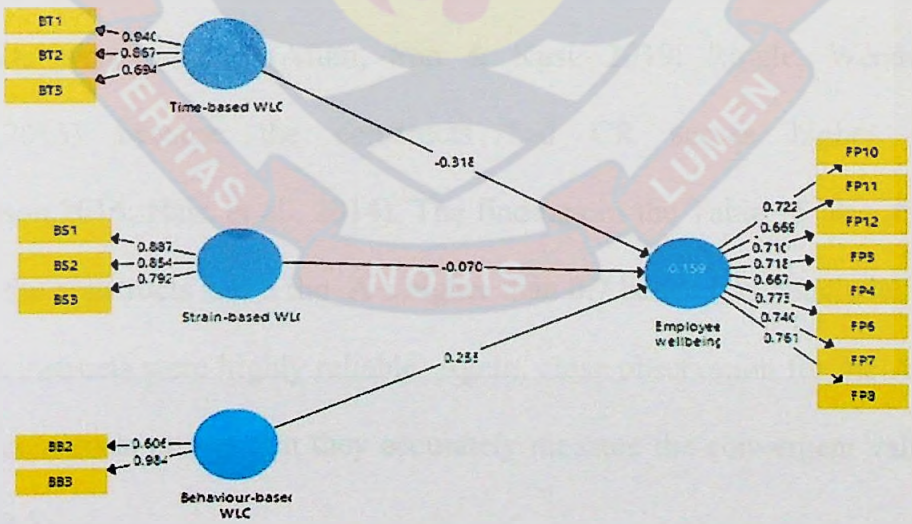

Figure 3: Structural Model showing the effect of the dimensions of work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees.

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

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Objective 2: Examine the effect of life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana prisons service

The second objective sought to examine the effect of life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The findings are presented as follows:

Measurement Model

Table 15: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Life to Work Conflict	0.794	0.869	0.849	0.532
Wellbeing	0.859	0.866	0.884	0.525

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

Table 15, shows that the CA value. which indicates the internal consistency was reliable because the CA value for all the items exceeded the minimum 0.7 cut off point (Hair, et al.,2017). It can also be observed that all the constructs were reliable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019; Ringle, Wende & Becker,2015) because the constructs had CR scores higher than 0.7(Garson,2016; Hair, et al., 2014). The findings in the Table 15 also shows that all the constructs had a rho_A s higher than 0.7 hence it is concluded that all the constructs were highly reliable. Again. close observation for the AVEs for the constructs proves that they accurately measure the convergent validity (AVE>0.5).

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Discriminant Validity

Table 16 : Heterotrait-Montrait Ratio

	Life to Work Conflict
Wellbeing	0.242

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

Table 16 demonstrates that all the constructs accurately measured discriminant validity because the value of the HMT ratio is below 0.9 (Benitez, et al., 2020; Gaskin, Godfrey & Vance, 2018; Henseler. 2017)

Collinearity statistics (VIF)

Table 17: Inner VIF values

	Wellbeing
Life to Work Conflict	1.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The VIF score for the inner model in Table 17 shows there is no common method bias for the constructs because the VIF scores for the inner model did not exceed the threshold of 5 (Kock, 2021).

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Structural Model

Outer loadings

Table 18: Indicator loadings

	Loadings	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
CS1 <- Life to Work Conflict	0.787	10.191	0.000
CS2 <- Life to Work Conflict	0.750	10.633	0.000
CS3 <- Life to Work Conflict	0.720	6.995	0.000
CT2 <- Life to Work Conflict	0.565	4.783	0.000
CT3 <- Life to Work Conflict	0.801	11.373	0.000
FP10 <- Wellbeing	0.745	7.648	0.000
FP12 <- Wellbeing	0.665	6.795	0.000
FP3 <- Wellbeing	0.665	5.964	0.000
FP4 <- Wellbeing	0.667	6.902	0.000
FP6 <- Wellbeing	0.814	8.775	0.000
FP7 <- Wellbeing	0.668	5.953	0.000
FP8 <- Wellbeing	0.824	9.893	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

From Table 18 it is observed that results from the factor loading show almost all the indicators had loadings of more than 0.7. The indicators with not less than 0.5 loadings were retained because their deletion could not improve CA and CR (Hair et al., 2014). This indicates that all the factors strongly measure the constructs they purport to measure especially as seen with their respective p-value. The p-values indicate the level of significant predictions of the indicators to accurately measure the respective constructs. The outer

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loadings were all statistically significant because they had $p<0.05$. Thus, in all instances, the T-statistics for the indicators were larger than 1.96.

Coefficients, Effects size and Predictive Relevance

Table 19: Coefficients, Effects size and Predictive Relevance

	Beta	F squared	T Statistics	P Values	Q squared
Life to Work Conflict -> Wellbeing	0.273	0.080	4.009	0.000	0.024

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The coefficient result (Table 19) indicates life to work conflict made a statistically significant positive contribution to causing a positive variance in the wellbeing of employees (Beta = 0.273; t = 4.009; p = 0.000: $p<0.05$). Thus, it can be expressed that a unit increase in the scores for life to work conflict causes a 0.273 increase in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service and a decrease in the score of life to work conflict will cause a 0.273 decrease in the wellbeing of employees.

It is also important to statistically quantify how substantial the significant effect is and this can be done by assessing their effect size, f squared (Henseler,2017). The effect size shows that life to work conflict causes a small statistically significant positive variance in the wellbeing of employees (f squared = 0.080). The predictive relevance score shows life to work conflict has a weak predictive relevance ($q^2 = 0.024$). This means that life to work conflict accurately predicts a significant positive variance in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service as seen in the study.

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Coefficient of Determination

Table 20: Coefficient of Determination

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Wellbeing	0.074	0.071

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The predictive capacity of the model is presented in Table 20. Results from Table 20 show that life to work conflict accounted for a weak variance in the wellbeing of employees (R-squared = 0.074) when all other factors not captured in this study but are affecting the wellbeing of employees of Ghana Prisons Service are statistically controlled for. Other factors not captured in the model could account for 92.6 variance in the well-being of employees. Thus, a small (7.4%) variation in the well-being of employees is attributed to changes in work to life conflict. The structural model is pictorially displayed on figure 4:

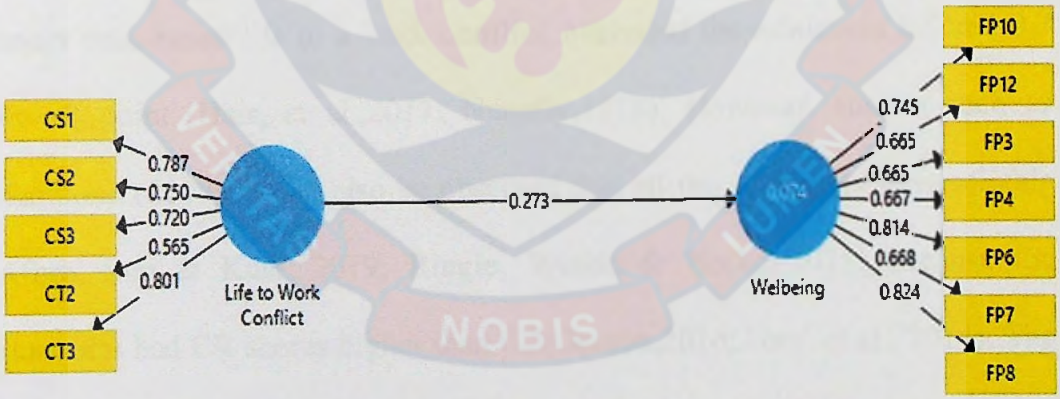

Figure 4: Structural Model showing the effect of life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees.

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The objective two also sought to look at how the individual dimensions of work to life conflict influence the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The findings are presented as follows:

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Measurement Model

Construct Reliability and Validity

Table 21: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	AVE
Behaviour-based LWC	0.741	7.976	0.814	0.697
Employee wellbeing	0.868	0.875	0.892	0.510
Strain-based LWC	0.773	0.787	0.869	0.689
Time-based LWC	0.585	1.589	0.776	0.649

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

From Table 21, it can be observed that the CA value, which indicates the internal consistency was reliable because the CA value for all the items except time-based life to a work conflict, exceeded the minimum 0.5 and 0.7 cut off point (Hair, et al.,2017; Nunally,1978). However, studies such as Mahmoud (2010). It can also be observed that all the constructs were reliable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019; Ringle, Wende & Becker,2015) because the constructs had CR scores higher than 0.7(Garson,2016; Hair, et al., 2014). The table shows all the constructs had a rho_A higher than 0.7 hence it is concluded that all the constructs were highly reliable. Again, close observation of the AVEs for the constructs proves that they accurately measure the convergent validity (AVE>0.5).

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Discriminant Validity

Table 22 : Heterotrait-Montrait Ratio

	Behaviour-based LWC	Employee wellbeing	Strain-based LWC
Employee wellbeing	0.155		
Strain-based LWC	0.457	0.230	
Time-based LWC	0.545	0.271	0.835

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

Table 22 demonstrates that all the constructs accurately measured discriminant validity because their values are below the 0.9 mark (Benitez, et al., 2020; Gaskin, Godfrey & Vance, 2018; Henseler, 2017).

Collinearity Statistics (VIF)

Table 23: Inner VIF values

	Employee wellbeing
Behaviour-based LWC	1.133
Strain-based LWC	1.398
Time-based LWC	1.462

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

The VIF scores for the inner model in Table 23 shows there is no common method bias for all the constructs because VIF scores for the inner model did not exceed the threshold of 5 (Kock,2012).

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Structural Model

Outer Loadings

Table 24: Indicator Loadings

	Loading	T Statistics	P Values
CB2 <- Behaviour-based LWC	0.630	2.166	0.015
CB3 <- Behaviour-based LWC	0.999	2.924	0.002
CS1 <- Strain-based LWC	0.870	10.386	0.000
CS2 <- Strain-based LWC	0.861	14.671	0.000
CS3 <- Strain-based LWC	0.754	6.318	0.000
CT2 <- Time-based LWC	0.579	3.283	0.001
CT3 <- Time-based LWC	0.982	18.487	0.000
FP10 <- Employee wellbeing	0.751	14.833	0.000
FP11 <- Employee wellbeing	0.716	12.360	0.000
FP12 <- Employee wellbeing	0.692	11.213	0.000
FP3 <- Employee wellbeing	0.653	10.011	0.000
FP4 <- Employee wellbeing	0.655	10.734	0.000
FP6 <- Employee wellbeing	0.782	19.815	0.000
FP7 <- Employee wellbeing	0.650	9.935	0.000
FP8 <- Employee wellbeing	0.798	21.319	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

From Table 24 it is observed that results from the factor loading show almost all the indicators had loadings of more than 0.7. This indicates that all the factors strongly measure the constructs they purport to measure especially as seen with their respective p-value. The outer loadings were all statistically significant because they had p values less than 5 ($p<0.05$). Thus, in all instances, the T-statistics for the indicators were larger than 1.96.

Co-efficient, Effect Size Predictive Relevance

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Table 25: Co-efficient, Effect Size Predictive Relevance

	Beta	F squared	T Statistics	P Values	Q squared
Behaviour-based LWC -> Employee wellbeing	0.047	0.002	0.459	0.323	0.0010
Strain-based LWC -> Employee wellbeing	0.073	0.004	0.864	0.194	0.0010
Time-based LWC -> Employee wellbeing	0.227	0.038	2.726	0.003	0.0134

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The coefficient results (Table 25) indicate time-based life to work conflict made the strongest statistically significant unique positive contribution to causing positive variance in the wellbeing of employees (Beta = 0.227; t = 2.726; p = 0.003: p<0.05). Thus, it can be expressed that a unit increase in scores for time-based life to work conflict causes a 0.227 increase in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons service.

The effect size shows that time-based life to work conflict causes a small statistically significant positive variance in the well-being of employees (f squared = 0.038). The predictive relevance score shows that time-based life to work conflict has a small predictive relevance (q^2 = 0.0134). This means that time-based work to life conflict accurately predicts a significant positive variance in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service as seen in the study.

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Coefficient of Determination

Table 26: Coefficient of Determination

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Employee wellbeing	0.085	0.075

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

Results from Table 26 show that life to work conflict (as measured by time-based, stain-based and behaviour-based) accounted for a weak variance in the wellbeing of employees (R-squared = 0.085) when all other factors not captured in this study but are affecting the well-being of employees of Ghana Prisons Service are statistically controlled for. Other factors not captured in the model could account for a 91.5 variance in the well-being of employees. Thus, a small (8.5%) variation in the well-being of employees is attributed to changes in life to work conflict. The structural model is pictorially displayed on figure 5.

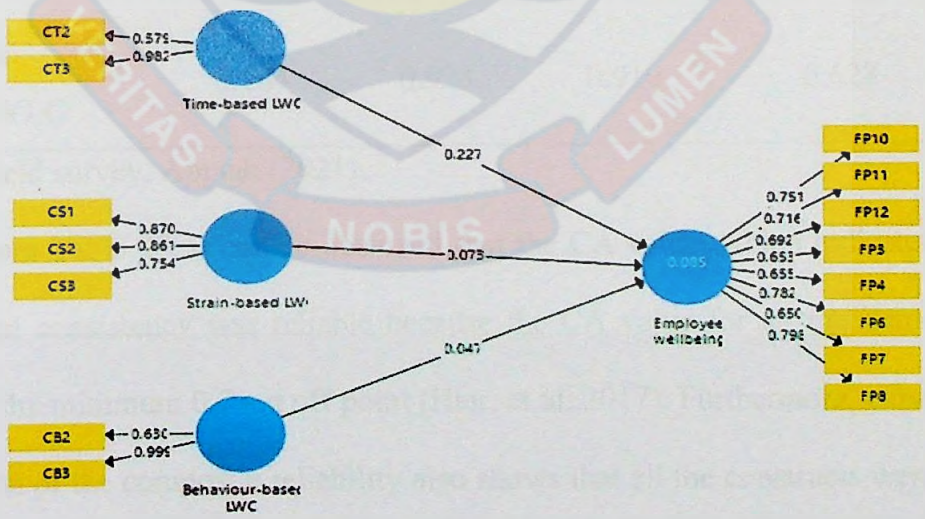

Figure 5: Structural Model showing the effect of the dimensions of life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees.

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

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Objective 3: Assess the Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Work to Life Conflict and Wellbeing Nexus

The third objective sought to assess whether the intervening effect of emotional intelligence can affect the strength and direction of the effect of work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The findings are presented as follows:

Measurement Model

Construct Reliability and Validity

Table 27: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	(AVE)
Emotional intelligence	0.883	0.887	0.907	0.549
Employee wellbeing	0.702	0.718	0.800	0.447
Moderating Effect 1	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Work-life conflict-WLC	0.884	0.923	0.910	0.628

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

From Table 27, it can be observed that the CA value, which indicates the internal consistency was reliable because the CA value for all the items exceeded the minimum 0.7 cut off point (Hair, et al.,2017). Furthermore, close observation of the composite reliability also shows that all the constructs were reliable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019) because the constructs had composite reliability scores higher than 0.7 (Garson, 2016; Hair, et al..2014). The rho_A results prove all the constructs were reliable because they all met the 0.7

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minimum criteria. Close observation for the AVEs (see Table 27) for the constructs also proves that they all accurately measured the convergent validity because AVE should be 0.5 or higher

Discriminant Validity

Table 28 : Heterotrait-Montrait Ratio

	Emotional intelligence	Employee wellbeing	Moderating Effect 1
Employee wellbeing	0.769		
Moderating Effect 1	0.154	0.184	
Work-life conflict-WLC	0.303	0.385	0.023

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

The findings in Table 28 demonstrates that all the constructs accurately measured discriminant validity because all the values are below the 0.9 mark (Benitez, et al., 2020; Gaskin, Godfrey & Vance, 2018; Henseler, 2017).

Collinearity Statistics (VIF)

Table 29: Inner VIF values

	Employee wellbeing
Emotional intelligence	1.127
Moderating Effect 1	1.023
Work-life conflict-WLC	1.103

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

An observation of the VIF scores for the inner model of the constructs shows all the VIF scores are less than 5. The VIF scores for the inner model (see

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Table 29) therefore portrays there is no threat of common method bias for all the constructs.

Structural Model

Outer Loadings

Table 30: Indicator Loadings

	Loadings	T Statistics	P Values
BS1 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.831	31.789	0.000
BS2 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.800	19.138	0.000
BS3 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.698	14.340	0.000
BT1 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.847	46.902	0.000
BT2 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.839	35.685	0.000
BT3 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.728	14.852	0.000
E1 <- Emotional intelligence	0.725	22.189	0.000
E10 <- Emotional intelligence	0.728	18.404	0.000
E11 <- Emotional intelligence	0.783	26.630	0.000
E13 <- Emotional intelligence	0.721	19.157	0.000
E15 <- Emotional intelligence	0.717	19.754	0.000
E2 <- Emotional intelligence	0.749	25.334	0.000
E3 <- Emotional intelligence	0.794	32.895	0.000
E9 <- Emotional intelligence	0.707	15.658	0.000
FJ1 <- Employee wellbeing	0.662	11.474	0.000
FJ3 <- Employee wellbeing	0.592	10.532	0.000
FL1 <- Employee wellbeing	0.786	27.759	0.000
FL2 <- Employee wellbeing	0.691	13.706	0.000
FL3 <- Employee wellbeing	0.594	7.825	0.000
Work-life conflict-WLC * Emotional intelligence <- Moderating Effect 1	1.178	18.325	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

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From Table 30 it is observed that results from the factor loading show almost all the indicators had loadings of more than the 0.7 mark. This indicates that all the factors strongly measure the constructs they purport to measure especially as seen with their respective p-value. The outer loadings were all statistically significant because they had p values lesser than 0.05 ($p<0.05$). Thus, in all instances, the T-statistics for the indicators were larger than 1.96.

Path Co-efficient, Effect size and Predictive Relevance

Table 31: Path Co-efficient, Effect size and Predictive Relevance

	Beta	F-Squared	T Statistics	P Values
Emotional intelligence -> Employee wellbeing	-0.314	0.104	14.400	0.000
Moderating Effect 1 -> Employee wellbeing	0.163	0.036	1.082	0.140
Work-life conflict-WLC -> Employee wellbeing	-0.165	0.030	3.278	0.001

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The coefficient results (Table 31) indicate emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between work-life conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana prisons service given its interaction effect (Beta= 0.163; t = 1.082; p = 0.140: $p<0.05$).

Coefficient of Determination

Table 32: Coefficient of Determination

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Employee wellbeing	0.458	0.452

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

Results from Table 32 show that work to life conflict together with emotional intelligence and its moderating effect accounted for a moderate

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variance in the wellbeing of employees (R-squared = 0.458) when all other factors not captured in this study but are affecting the wellbeing of employees in Ghana Prisons Service are statistically controlled for. Thus, 45.8% variance in the wellbeing of employees is attributed to changes in work to life conflict, emotional intelligence and its interaction effect. The structural model is presented pictorially in Figure 6.

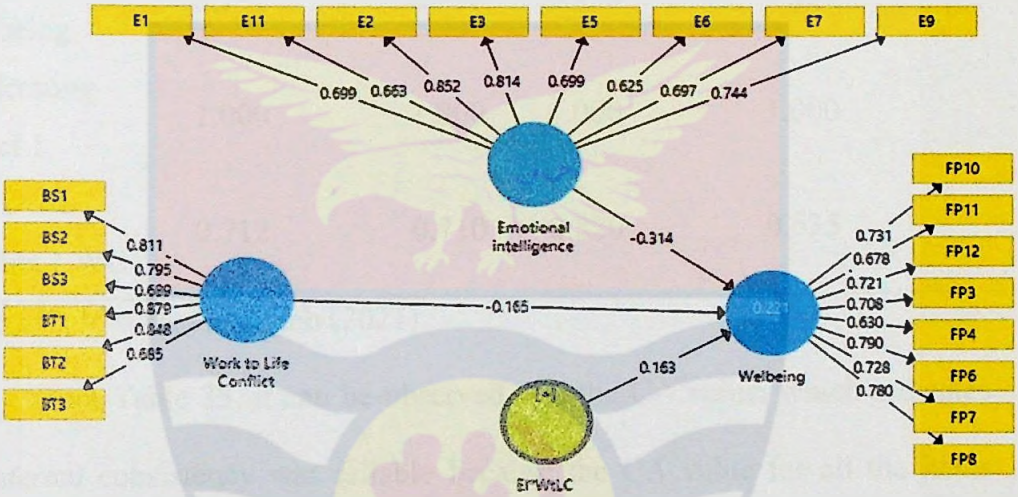

Figure 6: Structural Model showing the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the work to life conflict and wellbeing of employee's nexus. Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

Objective 4: Examine the Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Life to Work Conflict and Wellbeing Nexus

The fourth objective sought to assess whether the intervening effect of emotional intelligence can affect the strength and direction of the effect of life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The findings are presented as follows:

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Measurement Model

Construct Reliability and Validity

Table 33: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	AVE
Emotional intelligence	0.888	0.891	0.909	0.527
Employee wellbeing	0.752	0.751	0.836	0.507
Moderating Effect 1	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Work-life conflict LWC	0.712	0.710	0.820	0.535

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

From Table 33, it can be observed that the CA value, which indicates the internal consistency was reliable because the CA value for all the items exceeded the minimum 0.7 cut off point (Hair, et al.,2017). Furthermore, close observation of the composite reliability also shows that all the constructs were reliable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019) because they had scores higher than 0.7 (Garson, 2016; Hair, et al.,2014). The rho_A results prove all the constructs were reliable because they all met the 0.7 minimum criteria. Close observation for the AVEs (see Table 33) for the constructs also proves that they all accurately measured the convergent validity because all the AVEs had values of 0.5 or higher.

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Discriminant Validity

Table 34 : Heterotrait-Montrait Ratio

	Emotional intelligence	Employee wellbeing	Moderating Effect 1
Employee wellbeing	0.580		
Moderating Effect 1	0.285	0.173	
Work-life conflict LWC	0.172	0.416	0.201

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

The findings in Table 34 demonstrates that all the constructs accurately measured discriminant validity because their values are below the 0.9 mark (Benitez, et al., 2020; Gaskin, Godfrey & Vance, 2018; Henseler, 2017).

Collinearity Statistics

Table 35: Inner VIF values

	Employee wellbeing
Emotional intelligence	1.090
Moderating Effect 1	1.118
Work-life conflict LWC	1.040

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

An observation of the VIF scores for the inner model of the constructs shows all the VIF scores are less than 5. The VIF scores for the inner model (see Table 35) therefore portrays there is no threat of common method bias for all the constructs.

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Structural Model: Outer Loadings

Table 36: Indicator Loadings

	Loadings	T Statistics	P Values
CB1 <- Work-life conflict LWC	0.734	10.166	0.000
CB2 <- Work-life conflict LWC	0.825	11.465	0.000
CB3 <- Work-life conflict LWC	0.720	7.268	0.000
CT2 <- Work-life conflict LWC	0.634	6.338	0.000
E10 <- Emotional intelligence	0.723	17.572	0.000
E11 <- Emotional intelligence	0.756	24.491	0.000
E13 <- Emotional intelligence	0.742	19.137	0.000
E14 <- Emotional intelligence	0.706	13.157	0.000
E2 <- Emotional intelligence	0.721	19.225	0.000
E3 <- Emotional intelligence	0.780	24.928	0.000
E6 <- Emotional intelligence	0.683	16.148	0.000
E7 <- Emotional intelligence	0.706	18.934	0.000
E9 <- Emotional intelligence	0.710	14.327	0.000
FJ3 <- Employee wellbeing	0.611	11.252	0.000
FL1 <- Employee wellbeing	0.669	12.048	0.000
FL2 <- Employee wellbeing	0.739	14.859	0.000
FL3 <- Employee wellbeing	0.828	28.603	0.000
FL4 <- Employee wellbeing	0.695	12.531	0.000
Work-life conflict LWC * Emotional intelligence <- Moderating Effect 1	1.189	16.177	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

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From Table 36 it is observed that results from the factor loading show almost all the indicators had loadings of more than 0.7. This indicates that all the factors strongly measure the constructs they purport to measure especially as seen with their respective p-value. The outer loadings were all statistically significant because they had p values less than 0.05 ($p<0.05$) and T-statistics larger than 1.96.

Co-efficient, Effect size and Predictive Relevance

Table 37: Co-efficient, Effect size and Predictive Relevance

	Beta	F-squared	T Statistics	P Values
Emotional intelligence -> Employee wellbeing	0.461	0.279	7.970	0.000
Moderating Effect 1-> Employee wellbeing	-0.036	0.002	0.674	0.250
Work-life conflict LWC -> Employee wellbeing	0.261	0.094	4.324	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The coefficient results (Table 37) indicate emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana prisons service given its interaction effect (Beta= -0.036; t = 0.674; p = 0.250: $p<0.05$).

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Coefficient of Determination

Table 38: Coefficient of Determination

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Employee wellbeing	0.302	0.294

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

Results from Table 38 show that life to work conflict together with emotional intelligence and its moderating effect accounted for a moderate variance in the wellbeing of employees (R-squared = 0.302) when all other factors not captured in this study but are affecting the well-being of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service are statistically controlled for. Thus, 30.2% variance in the wellbeing of employees is attributed to changes in work to life conflict, emotional intelligence and its interaction effect. The structural model is presented pictorially in figure 7.

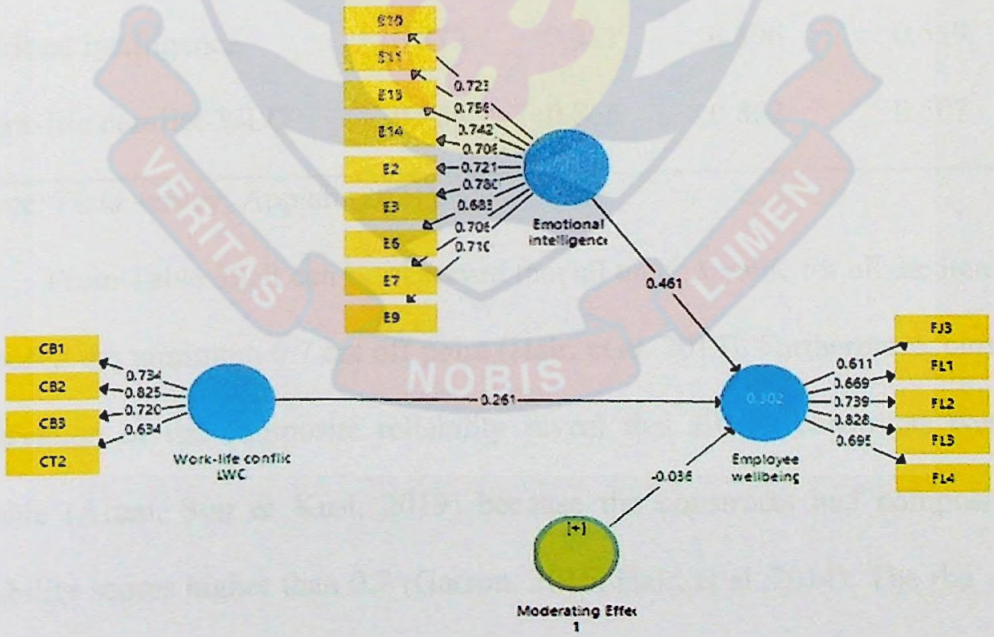

Figure 7: Structural Model showing the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the life to work conflict and wellbeing of employee's nexus. Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

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Objective 5: Analyze the Moderating Effect of Spiritual Intelligence on the Work to Life Conflict and Wellbeing Nexus

The fifth objective sought to assess whether the intervening effect of spiritual intelligence can affect the strength and direction of the effect of work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The findings are presented as follows:

Measurement Model

Construct Reliability and Validity

Table 39: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	AVE
Employee wellbeing	0.858	0.868	0.891	0.540
Moderating Effect 1	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Spiritual intelligence	0.872	0.911	0.896	0.519
Work-life conflict-WLC	0.856	0.866	0.862	0.507

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

From Table 39, it can be observed that all the CA value for all the items exceeded the minimum 0.7 cut off point (Hair, et al.,2017). Furthermore, close observation of the composite reliability reveal that all the constructs were reliable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019) because the constructs had composite reliability scores higher than 0.7 (Garson, 2016; Hair, et al.,2014). The rho_A results prove all the constructs were reliable because they all met the 0.7 minimum criteria. Close observation for the AVEs (see Table 39) for the

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constructs also proves that they all accurately measured the convergent validity with a value of 0.5 or higher

Discriminant Validity

Table 40 : Heterotrait-Montrait Ratio

	Employee wellbeing	Moderating Effect 1	Spiritual intelligence
Moderating Effect 1	0.175		
Spiritual intelligence	0.378	0.138	
Work-life conflict-WLC	0.266	0.101	0.199

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

The findings in Table 40 demonstrates that all the constructs accurately measured discriminant validity because their values are below the 0.9 mark (Benitez, et al., 2020; Gaskin, Godfrey & Vance, 2018; Henseler, 2017).

Common Method Bias

Table 41: Inner VIF

	Employee wellbeing
Moderating Effect 1	1.021
Spiritual intelligence	1.026
Work-life conflict-WLC	1.026

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

An observation of the VIF scores for the inner model of the constructs shows all the VIF scores are less than 5 which portrays there is no threat of common method bias for all the constructs.

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Structural Model

Outer Loadings

Table 42: Indicator Loadings

	Loadings	T Statistics	P Values
BB3 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.057	0.322	0.374
BS1 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.780	5.993	0.000
BS2 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.768	6.261	0.000
BS3 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.657	5.308	0.000
BT1 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.885	5.738	0.000
BT2 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.838	6.507	0.000
BT3 <- Work-life conflict-WLC	0.655	5.675	0.000
D14 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.732	17.148	0.000
Table 42 continued			0.000
D18 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.677	11.531	0.000
D20 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.723	15.104	0.000
D24 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.677	11.609	0.000
D4 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.717	17.037	0.000
D5 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.762	23.503	0.000
D8 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.724	13.274	0.000
FP10 <- Employee wellbeing	0.670	13.535	0.000
FP12 <- Employee wellbeing	0.709	14.229	0.000
FP3 <- Employee wellbeing	0.753	18.236	0.000
FP6 <- Employee wellbeing	0.793	31.979	0.000
FP7 <- Employee wellbeing	0.785	31.477	0.000
FP8 <- Employee wellbeing	0.773	23.843	0.000
FP9 <- Employee wellbeing	0.646	13.100	0.000
Work-life conflict-WLC * Spiritual intelligence <- Moderating Effect 1	1.176	17.225	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

From Table 42 it is observed that results from the factor loading show almost all the indicators had loadings of more than 0.7. This indicates that all

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the factors strongly measure the constructs they purport to measure especially as seen with their respective p-value. The outer loadings were all statistically significant because they had p values less than 0.05 ($p<0.05$) and a T-statistics value larger than 1.96.

Path Co-efficient, effect size and significance level

Table 43: Path Co-efficient, effect size and significance level

	Beta	F-squared	T Statistics	P Values
Moderating Effect 1 -> Employee wellbeing	-0.150	0.042	3.261	0.001
Spiritual intelligence -> Employee wellbeing	0.430	0.248	9.773	0.000
Work-life conflict-WLC -> Employee wellbeing	-0.313	0.132	3.567	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The coefficient results (Table 43) indicate spiritual intelligence moderated significantly in a negative manner the predictive relationship between work to life conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana prisons service given its interaction effect (Beta= -0.150; t = 3.261; p = 0.001: $p<0.05$).

Coefficient of Determination

Table 44: R-Squared

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Employee wellbeing	0.275	0.267

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

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Results from Table 44 show that work to life conflict together with spiritual intelligence and its moderating effect accounted for a weak variance in the wellbeing of employees (R-squared = 0.275) when all other factors not captured in this study but are affecting the wellbeing of employees in Ghana Prisons Service are statistically controlled for. Thus, 27.5% variance in the wellbeing of employees is attributed to changes in work to life conflict, spiritual intelligence and its interaction effect. The structural model is presented pictorially in figure 8.

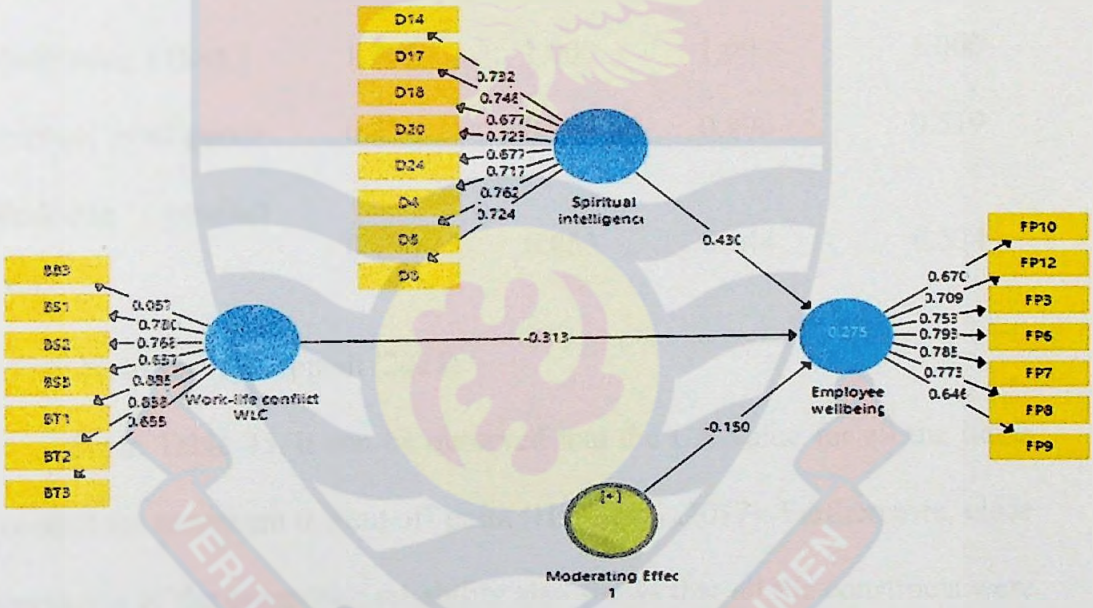

Figure 8: Structural Model showing the moderating role of spiritual intelligence on the work to life conflict and wellbeing nexus.
Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

Objective 6: Ascertain the Moderating Effect of Spiritual Intelligence on The Life to Work Conflict and Wellbeing Nexus

The sixth objective sought to assess whether the intervening effect of spiritual intelligence can affect the strength and direction of the effect of life to

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work conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The findings are presented as follows:

Measurement Model

Table 45: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Employee wellbeing	0.858	0.869	0.891	0.539
Moderating Effect 1	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Spiritual intelligence	0.872	0.913	0.896	0.519
Work-life conflict LWC	0.794	0.853	0.844	0.524

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

From Table 45, it can be observed that the CA value for all the items exceeded the minimum 0.7 cut off point (Hair. et al..2017). Furthermore, close observation of the composite reliability also shows that all the constructs were reliabl because the constructs had composite reliability scores higher than 0.7 (Garson, 2016; Hair, et al.,2014). The rho_A results prove all the constructs were reliable because they all met the 0.7 minimum criteria. Close observation for the AVEs (see Table 45) for the constructs also proves that they all accurately measured the convergent validity because their values were 0.5 or higher

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Discriminant Validity

Table 46 : Heterotrait-Montrait Ratio

	Employee wellbeing	Moderating Effect 1	Spiritual intelligence	Work-life conflict LWC
Employee wellbeing				
Moderating Effect 1	0.137			
Spiritual intelligence	0.378	0.090		
Work-life conflict LWC	0.222	0.090	0.304	

Source: Field survey, Appiah (2021).

The findings in Table 46 demonstrates that all the constructs accurately measured discriminant validity because their values are below the 0.9 mark (Benitez, et al., 2020; Gaskin, Godfrey & Vance, 2018: Henseler, 2017).

Collinearity statistics (VIF)

Table 47: Inner VIF

	Employee wellbeing
Employee wellbeing	
Moderating Effect 1	1.010
Spiritual intelligence	1.048
Work-life conflict LWC	1.048

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

An observation of the VIF scores for the inner model of the constructs shows all the VIF scores are less than 5 which indicates there is no threat of common method bias for all the constructs.

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Structural Model

Outer Loadings

Table 48: Indicator Loadings

	Loading	T Statistics	P Values
CS1 <- Work-life conflict LWC	0.778	3.933	0.000
CS2 <- Work-life conflict LWC	0.779	4.257	0.000
CS3 <- Work-life conflict LWC	0.699	3.240	0.001
CT2 <- Work-life conflict LWC	0.531	2.277	0.012
CT3 <- Work-life conflict LWC	0.797	4.663	0.000
D14 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.729	16.994	0.000
D17 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.749	21.447	0.000
D18 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.675	12.153	0.000
D20 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.722	15.259	0.000
D24 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.673	11.834	0.000
D4 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.717	17.238	0.000
D5 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.765	26.265	0.000
D8 <- Spiritual intelligence	0.728	14.107	0.000
FP10 <- Employee wellbeing	0.667	12.134	0.000
FP12 <- Employee wellbeing	0.709	14.194	0.000
FP3 <- Employee wellbeing	0.733	17.351	0.000
FP6 <- Employee wellbeing	0.805	32.677	0.000
FP7 <- Employee wellbeing	0.748	21.397	0.000
FP8 <- Employee wellbeing	0.796	27.514	0.000
FP9 <- Employee wellbeing	0.670	16.549	0.000
Work-life conflict LWC * Spiritual intelligence <- Moderating Effect 1	1.157	16.063	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

From Table 48 it is observed that results from the factor loading show almost all the indicators had loadings of more than 0.7. This indicates that all the factors strongly measure the constructs they purport to measure especially as seen with their respective p-value. The outer loadings were all statistically

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significant because they had p values less than 0.05 ($p<0.05$) and T-statistics larger than 1.96.

Co-efficient, Effect Size and Predictive Relevance

Table 49: Co-efficient, effect size and Predictive Relevance

	Beta	F-squared	T Statistics	P Values
Moderating Effect 1 -> Employee wellbeing	0.066	0.068	0.921	0.179
Spiritual intelligence -> Employee wellbeing	0.425	0.433	8.503	0.000
Work-life conflict LWC -> Employee wellbeing	0.263	0.277	3.347	0.000

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

The coefficient results (Table 49) indicate spiritual intelligence did not moderate the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana prisons service given its interaction effect (Beta= -0.066; t = 0.921; p = 0.179: $p<0.05$).

Coefficient of Determination

Table 50: Coefficient of Determination

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Employee wellbeing	0.217	0.208

Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

Results from Table 50 show that life to work conflict together with spiritual intelligence and its moderating effect accounted for a weak variance in

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the wellbeing of employees (R-squared = 0.217) when all other factors not captured in this study but are affecting the well-being of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service are statistically controlled for. Thus, 21.7% variance in the wellbeing of employees is attributed to changes in life to work conflict, spiritual intelligence and its interaction effect. The structural model is presented pictorially in Figure 9.

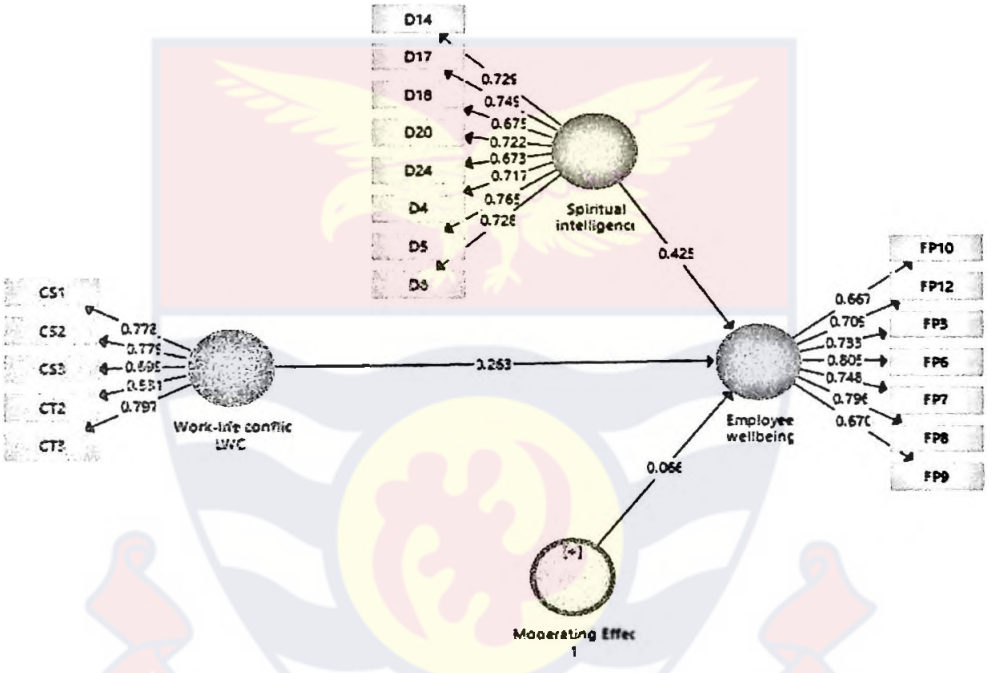

Figure 9: Structural Model showing the moderating effect of spiritual intelligence on the life to work conflict and wellbeing of employees' nexus. Source: Field Survey, Appiah (2021)

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented significant findings emanated from the study. The chapter discussed the profile of the respondents used for the study. Measurement and structural models were explored in order to examine the six main objectives for this study. The relationships among the constructs for the six objectives were explored through structural equation modelling. The next

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chapter will concentrate on the discussion of the significant findings highlighted in this chapter. However, the discussion will be limited to the six main objectives itemized for this study.

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CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter is an extension of the previous chapter which focused mainly on the presentation of the research findings. The current chapter will discuss the research findings according to the main aim of the study which sought to examine the relationship among work-life conflict, personal resources and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. In light of this aim, six research objectives were developed and will be addressed with the significant findings of the study.

Objective 1: To Determine the Influence of Work to Life Conflict on the Wellbeing of Employees in the Ghana Prisons Service.

Hypothesis one (H1, H1a, H1b and H1c) answers objective one of this study which was to determine the influence of work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Hypothesis 1 proposed that work to life conflict has a significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees. The results therefore revealed that, Work to life conflict was a significant predictor of the wellbeing of employees with a beta = -0.303; t = 6.023; p = 0.000: $p<0.05$. The implication of the result is that an increase in work to life conflict would result in a decrease in the wellbeing of employees. This means the Ghana Prisons service should take precautions to deal with work to life conflict if they want to protect the wellbeing of their employees.

The aforesaid results obtained support Braunstein-Berkovitz (2013) and Brauchli, Bauer and Hamming (2011), who indicated that the struggle to

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balance work and life can negatively affect one's well-being. The result is also in conformance with the conclusion drawn by Kinman. Clements and Harts (2016) and Lambert et al., (2006) that the idiosyncrasies of working in direct contact with an incarcerated population in a confined space add challenges to prison officers balancing the demands of their work with their personal life which in turn affects their wellbeing. Also, the findings are in agreement with the position of Akoensi (2018) that work to life conflict impairs prison officer's ability to fulfil their life responsibilities which consequently impairs their daily work and wellbeing.

Hypotheses (1a, 1b and 1c) proposed that time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based work to life conflict will have a significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees. This results from the dimensional level work to life conflict (Time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based) uncovered interesting pattern of relationships with the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Although a significant relationship was expected, Hypotheses 1a and 1c were supported whereas H1b was not supported. Time-based work to life conflict was a significant predictor of wellbeing with a beta = -0.318; t = 4.087; p = 0.000: $p<0.05$. The results indicated that as time-based work to life conflict increased, wellbeing decreased. Behaviour-based work to life conflict was also a significant predictor of wellbeing with a beta = 0.255; t = 2.957; p = 0.002: $p<0.05$. The results indicated that as behaviour-based work to life conflict increased, wellbeing increases.

These aforesaid results imply that time-based and behaviour-based work to life conflict had a significant effect on the wellbeing of the employees in a different direction, however, Hypothesis 1b, which proposed a significant effect

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of strain-based work to life on the wellbeing of employees was not supported. Well-being was modelled as a composite in this relationship. The results obtained at the dimensional level contradicted most of the empirical findings in the literature (e.g Kinman et al., 2013; Kinman. Clements & Harts, 2017: Armstrong, Atkin-Plunk & Wells, 2015; Aazami. Akmal & Shamsuddin, 2015; Charkhabi, Sartori & Ceschi, 2016; Lambert. Hogan. Camp & Ventura, 2006; Akoensi, 2018) which asserts that employees who experience certain dimensions of work-life conflict will have their wellbeing reduced.

Contrary to the researcher's expectation, behaviour-based work to life conflict had a statistically significant positive relationship with wellbeing. This implies that higher levels of behaviour -based work to life conflict is associated with higher levels of wellbeing ($\beta = 0.255$, $p = 0.002$). The results however contradict that of Armstrong, Atkin-Plunk and Wells (2015) who found rather a significant negative relationship between behaviour-based work to life conflict and wellbeing. Lambert et al. (2016) confirm this negative relationship between behaviour-based work to life conflict and wellbeing. Kinman et al.. (2017), have found a significant negative relationship between behaviour-based work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Prisons Service.

However, failure for the study to confirm a significant negative relationship between behaviour-based work to life conflict and the wellbeing linkage is expected due to the fact most researchers have focused less on the behaviour-based work-life conflict because it is considered to be irrelevant to most occupations (Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen, 2006). This result, on the other hand, supports a statement made by Edwards and Rothbard (2000), that behaviour-based conflict does not necessarily involve conflicting demands from

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multiple roles but simply entails some sort of behavioural interference when performing different roles.

The result however is in agreement with some Work-family/life studies that have addressed the positive side of role combination which suggest that role combination does not necessarily elicit conflict nor will it always be associated with detrimental outcomes. These studies have revealed that participation in multiple roles can be associated with enhanced well-being for individuals. Additionally, these studies suggest that employers do not need to fear that employees' involvement in and commitment to other life roles goes at the expense of work.

On the contrary, they indicate that the work domain can benefit from employees' participation in other roles. That is, challenging the scarcity perspective on human energy, individuals who were involved in a greater number of roles in their lives have been found to have better mental health and better physical health over time (Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992; Moen, Dempster-McClain, & Williams, 1992). Moreover, Kirchmeyer (1992) has established that when employees, besides their work role. spent more hours on home life roles (e.g., parenting roles, community roles) they reported higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These findings indicate that there is a positive side to participation in multiple roles as well and this was reflected in our result.

Contrary to the researcher's expectation, strain-based work to life conflict had no statistically significant negative effect on the wellbeing of employees even though the relationship was negative. This implies that although higher levels of strain-based work to life conflict is associated with

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lower levels of wellbeing (β = -0.070, p = 0.200), this relationship is not statistically significant at 5 per cent. The results however contradict that of Armstrong, Atkin-Plunk and Wells, (2015) and Kinman, Clements and Harts (2017) who looked at the relationship between strain-based work to life conflict and wellbeing among prison officers and found a statistically significant negative relationship.

However, failure for the study to confirm a significant negative relationship between strain-based work to life and the wellbeing linkage is expected due to the cultural differences of the settings where the studies were conducted and the construct's conceptualization. Strain-based work to life conflict arises when negative emotional reactions to work spill over to the personal domain. Kinman and Jones (2001), notes that working in a threatening or emotionally demanding environment can engender emotional exhaustion and anxiety and irritability outside work. However, in Ghana, a study conducted by Akoensi (2018) in the Ghana prisons service had a different conceptualization for strain-based work to life conflict. It was observed that a strong source of strain and frustration for prison officers was their accommodation situation and this contradicts the conceptualization used in this study and hence the result.

The result was also not surprising as Lambert and Hogan (2006) noted that staff in supervisory roles experience more strain-based work to life than those in the non-supervisory role. However, unlike our population, there were more employees in the non-supervisory role, hence the result. Working in custody positions might provide a buffer for dealing with strains and stresses of work. Custody officers generally form a collective group at many correctional facilities. In addition, many custody posts require staff to work with other

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custody staff. Such relations and interactions could provide social support, which has been reported as inversely linked with strain (Cherniss, 1980; Maslach, 1982; Neveu, 2007)

As expected, time-based work to life was significantly negatively related to wellbeing. That is, time-based work to life conflict reduces the level of employee's well-being when it's high and increases wellbeing when it is low. As noted by Cooper and Robertson (2001), the introduction of employee well-being at work endorses a healthy and happy workforce for an organization. The relationship between time-based work to life conflict and the well-being of employees can be seen as explained in the role conflict theory and the affective events theory. The significantly negative effect of time-based work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees can be explained by Xu and Cao, (2019) and Lin et al. 's (2013) notion that the repeated experiences of negative events at work disrupt the satisfaction level of individual's needs and could therefore negatively influence their job and life satisfaction and the psychological health. The prison job usually involves long working hours and irregular scheduling. Employees may experience difficulties in arranging time off from work, decreasing their ability to enjoy non-work life such as leisure time.

Triplett et al., (1999) also note that excessive working hours, frequent overtime and irregular shift work contribute to the experience of work-life conflict among prison officers. In essence, they claimed that time-based work to life conflict has a high prevalence among prison employees. The results support that of lambert et al., (2006), Brauchli, Bauer and Hammig (2011) and Kinman et al., (2017) who found out that as time-based work to life conflict increases wellbeing also declines. This result also supports that of Akonsi

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(2018), which showed that the work of prison officers produced time-based conflict which makes it difficult to discharge their family duties satisfactorily, hence decreasing their wellbeing. The result is also in support of the conclusions made by Lambert et al (2004; 2014a; 2014b) that employees with limited tenure, lower levels of education and the young experience more time-based work to life. This is evident in our population as the majority of the population have limited tenure, lower levels of education and are also young.

Objective 2: Examine the Effect of Life to Work Conflict on the Wellbeing of Employees in the Ghana Prisons Service

Hypothesis two (H2, H2a, H2b, and H2c) answers objective two of this study which was to examine the effect of life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Hypothesis 2 proposed that life to work conflict has a significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees. The results therefore revealed that, life to work conflict was a significant predictor of the wellbeing of employees with a beta = 0.273; t = 4.009; p = 0.000; $p<0.05$. The implication of the result is that an increase in life to work conflict would result in an increase in the wellbeing of employees.

On the dimensional level, Hypotheses (2a, 2b and 2c) proposed that time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based life to work conflict will have a significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees. The study's results uncovered an interesting pattern of relationships between life to work conflict (Time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based) and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Although a significant relationship was expected, Hypotheses 2a was supported whereas H2b and H2c were not supported. Time-based life to work conflict was a significant predictor of

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wellbeing with a beta = 0.227; t = 2.726; p = 0.003: $p<0.05$. The results indicated that as time-based life to work conflict increased, wellbeing increases. This implies that aside time-based life to work conflict that had a significant positive effect on wellbeing, behavior-based and strain-based life to work conflict had no significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees. Hence, hypothesis 2 and 2a were supported whilst 2b and 2c were not supported.

The results obtained support Reimann, Marx and Diewald (2019) and O'Driscoll et al., (2004) who indicated that the levels of life to work conflict are less present when dealing with the bidirectional nature of the work-life conflict. The results also support a body of research that indicates that the personal domain is more permeable to workplace demands, suggesting that work to life conflict is not only more frequent but also potentially more damaging than the life to work conflict (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering & Semmer, 2011; Grzywacz & Demerouti, 2013). This is also in confirmation with the result from a study conducted by Lambert and Hogan (2010) and Lambert et al., (2006), whereby work was considered a greater threat to the personal life of prisons officers than personal life to work. This was also confirmed by Hall and Richter (1988) who stated that the interface between work and life is asymmetric where work influences family more than life influences work. In addition, Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) reported that work interferes three times more with family than vice versa.

The result is also in support of a study by Akoensi (2018) who stated that, by the nature of the job of prison officers in Ghana, work-life conflict assumes mainly a unidirectional fashion from work to life with very little interference from life to work. He further explains that while the family domain

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of Ghanaian prison officers is easily permeable, that is not the case with the structure and nature of the prison work. That is the cultural endorsement of work commitment as a sacrifice for the family and a means of family survival via income, security and prestige provides the enabling environment for work to life conflict to flourish than life to work conflict.

The aforesaid result is expected based on the conclusion reached by Steptoe, Lundwall, and Cropley (2000) that participation in family roles helped individuals to relax rather than depleting them. Also important in this regard is the research by Ruderman et al. (2002), which concluded that individual's involvement in other life roles helped them to be more effective in their work role and had higher levels of general wellbeing. This finding again indicates that there is a positive side to participation in multiple roles which suggest that role combination does not necessarily elicit conflict nor will it always be associated with detrimental outcomes. This study has revealed that participation in multiple roles can be associated with enhanced well-being for individuals. On the contrary, the results obtained contradicted some empirical findings in the literature (e.g Armstrong, Atkin-Plunk & Wells. 2015; Namasivayam and Zhao, 2007; Abbas and Nadeem,2009, Akram and Hassaan, 2013) which had life to work conflict significantly affecting the wellbeing of employees negatively.

Objective 3: Assess the Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Work to Life Conflict and Wellbeing Nexus

Hypothesis three answers objective three of this study which was to assess the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the work to life and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana prisons service. Hypotheses 3 proposed that emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on the work to life

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and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana prisons service. From the result it indicated that emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana prisons service. The combined effects of emotional intelligence and work to life conflict on the well-being of employees were thus insignificant. This means the effects of the work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees did not depend on the emotional intelligence of employees. Thus, work to life conflict rather than emotional intelligence plays an important role in the wellbeing of employees.

The results obtained contradicted some empirical findings in the literature (e.g Gao, Shi, Niu and Wang, 2011; Lenaghan. Buda and Eisner, 2007; Salami,2011, Karimi, Cheng, Bartram, Leggat and Sarkeshik, 2014) who asserted emotional intelligence was a personal resource that weakened the negative effect that work to life conflict as a source of stress had on the wellbeing of employees.

Objective 4: Examine the Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Life to Work Conflict and Wellbeing Nexus

Hypothesis four answers objective four of this study which was to assess the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana prisons service. Hypotheses 4 proposed that emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on the life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The results indicate that emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees of the Ghana Prisons Service. The combined effects of emotional intelligence and life to work

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conflict on the well-being of employees were insignificant. This means the effects of the life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees did not depend on the emotional intelligence of employees. Thus, life to work conflict rather than emotional intelligence plays an important role in the wellbeing of employees. Therefore, emotional intelligence did not interfere with the interaction between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

The results obtained contradicted some empirical findings in the literature (e.g Gao, Shi, Niu and Wang, 2011; Lenaghan, Buda and Eisner, 2007; Salami, 2011, Karimi, Cheng, Bartram, Leggat and Sarkeshik, 2014) who asserted emotional intelligence is a personal resource that weakened the negative effect that life to work conflict as a source of stress had on the wellbeing of employees.

A potential reason for the lack of emotional intelligence as a moderator for objectives 3 and 4 may be because the self-reporting of emotional intelligence was inaccurate for this sample. The Emotional intelligence ratings were based on employees' evaluation of themselves, which required respondents to not only have good insight into their own minds, but to be honest about their thoughts and feelings. This sample might have viewed themselves more favorably, creating higher emotional intelligence scores that were not necessarily representative of their true emotional intelligence levels. Therefore, the measure of emotional intelligence in this study might have held biases which could have distorted the results. However, this interpretation is speculative. Although results of objectives 3 and 4 did not show emotional intelligence as a moderator of the relationship between work to life conflict or life to work conflict and wellbeing of employees, they showed that apart from work to life

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conflict, life to work conflict and emotional intelligence were all positively related to the wellbeing of employees.

Objective 5: Analyze the Moderating Effect of Spiritual Intelligence on the Work to Life Conflict and Wellbeing Nexus

Hypothesis five answers objective five of this study which was to analyze the moderating effect of spiritual intelligence on the work to life conflict and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Hypotheses 5 proposed that spiritual intelligence has a moderating effect on the work to life conflict and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana Prison Service. From table 30, the results indicate that spiritual intelligence moderated significantly in a negative manner the predictive relationship between work to life conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The combined effects of spiritual intelligence and work to life conflict on wellbeing were thus significant. This means the effect of work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees is affected by the presence of spiritual intelligence. Thus, work to life conflict and spiritual intelligence play an important role in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana prisons service. Therefore, spiritual intelligence interfered with the interaction between work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

The result is also in support of a study by Selvarajan, Singh, Stringer and Chapa (2020) who found daily spiritual experience moderating the relationship between the two directions of work-life conflict and wellbeing. They noted that their study underscored the importance of daily spiritual experiences as an important moderating factor in buffering the influence of conflict in the work–family interface. The patterns of results are consistent with

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researchers (eg. Faribors, Fatemeh, Hamidreza, 2010; Rostami and Gol, 2014; Korazija, Zizek and Mumel, 2016; Charkhabi, Mortazavi, Alimohammadi and Hayati, 2014) who have found a positive relationship between spiritual intelligence and well-being of employees. Spiritual intelligence has frequently been used as a predictor variable and seldom as a moderator.

Objective 6: Ascertain the Moderating Effect of Spiritual Intelligence on the Life to Work Conflict and Wellbeing Nexus

Hypothesis six answers objective six of this study which was to analyze the moderating effect of spiritual intelligence on the life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Hypotheses 6 proposed that spiritual intelligence has a moderating effect on the life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. From the results it indicated that spiritual intelligence did not moderate the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The combined effects of spiritual intelligence and life to work conflict on the well-being of employees were thus insignificant. This means the effects of life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees did not depend on the spiritual intelligence of employees. Thus, life to work conflict rather than spiritual intelligence plays an important role in the wellbeing of employees. Therefore, spiritual intelligence did not interfere with the interaction between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

Spiritual intelligence did not moderate the relationship existing between life to work conflict because of the direction of the relationship. Spiritual intelligence was proposed to buffer the negative relationship between thw life

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to work and wellbeing nexus, however, this relationship turned out to be positive, hence the non-moderation effect of spiritual intelligence.

The Decision on the Research Hypotheses

Upon successful discussion of the research findings. decisions about the hypotheses stemming from the research objectives were made and presented in Table 51.

Table 51: Summary of Hypotheses and their Decisions

Hypotheses	Decisions
H1 Work to Life conflict has a significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service	ACCEPT
H1a Time – based work to life conflict has a significant relationship with the well-being of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.	ACCEPT
H1b Strain – based work to life conflict has a significant relationship with the well-being of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.	REJECT
H1c Behaviour-based work to life conflict has a significant relationship with the well-being of employees in the Ghana Prison Service	ACCEPT
H2 Life to work conflict has a significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service	ACCEPT
H2a Time–based life to work conflict has a significant relationship with the well-being of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.	ACCEPT
H2b Strain–based life to work conflict has a significant relationship with the well-being of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.	REJECT
H2c Behaviour-based life to work conflict has a significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service	REJECT
H3 Emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on the relationship between work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.	REJECT
H4 Emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.	REJECT
H5 Spiritual intelligence has a moderating effect on the relationship between work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.	ACCEPT
H6 Spiritual intelligence has a moderating effect on the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service.	REJECT

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Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed in detail the research findings following the main aim of the study which sought to examine the influence of work-life conflict on the wellbeing of employees and the role of personal resources in moderating such a nexus. In light of the aforementioned aim, six research objectives were developed and addressed concerning the significant findings of the study. Finally, decisions on the hypothesis stemming from the research objectives were also made and presented in a table. The next chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations

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CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. The chapter is divided into six main segments. The first segment presents a summary of the study in three parts: the main and specific objectives of the study, aspects of the methodology, including the study area, research design, sampling procedures, fieldwork and instrumentation, data processing and analysis, and the main findings of the study. The second segment highlights the various conclusions drawn from the main findings, while the third segment offers several policy recommendations for addressing the personal resources needed to help deal with work-life conflict that will help improve the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The limitations of the study are highlighted in the fourth segment, while the fifth segment presents the contributions of the study to both knowledge and practice. The final segment identifies areas for further research.

Summary of the Study

The study set out to examine the moderating role that personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence have on the relationship between work-life conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana prisons service. To accomplish the general objective, six specific objectives were formulated: to determine the influence of work to life conflict (WLC) on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prison Service; examine the effect of life to work conflict (LWC) on the well-being of employees in

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Ghana Prison Service; assess the moderating effect of emotional Intelligence on the work to life conflict and wellbeing nexus; examine the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus; analyze the moderating effect of Spiritual Intelligence on the work to life conflict and wellbeing nexus, and ascertain the moderating effect of spiritual intelligence on the life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus.

The population for this study were employees of the Ghana Prison Service in the maximum and medium-security prison institutions in Ghana. The employees comprise both custodial and non-custodial employees at the various levels of the institution. The maximum and medium prisons were chosen because they hold the most aggressive, high sentence and incorrigible inmates and may place high work demands on employees. The total number of employees in the institutions was 769. The population was classified using the characteristics of the maximum and medium prison institutions

This study adopted the quantitative research method which is in line with the non-experimental design of ex post facto type because the researcher does not have direct control over the independent variable, hence, the intention to manipulate is not there. The reason for adopting this approach is that it is an appropriate means for arriving at statistical descriptions especially when the population is large. Moreover, the quantitative research approach allows defining the study variables and linking them together to frame hypotheses, which would subsequently be tested after the analysis of the collected data (Saunders et al., 2016:166).

Data were collected from employees of the Ghana Prison Service in the maximum and medium-security prison institutions in Ghana using survey

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questionnaires. The employees comprise both custodial and non-custodial employees at the various levels of the institution. Based on the table developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), with a population size of about 769 and to ensure a 5 per cent margin of error, the minimum sample size was 260. However, to ensure an increase in internal and external validity, a sample of 416 employees were selected for this study. The additional sample was gotten by calculating 60% of the minimum sample size. A simple random sampling was used. In all, a total number of 404 questionnaires representing a response rate of 97.12% were used for the analysis.

Data collected from the survey design was analyzed quantitatively using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The data collected was first edited to remove errors and then coded accordingly. The data obtained were analyzed using the computer software; Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS 17.0 version). The technique used to test the hypotheses in this study was Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and the Ordinary Least Square (OLS). The techniques employed from these tools are descriptive statistics, correlation, simple and multiple regressions. The descriptive statistics (frequency and percentages) was employed to determined data characteristics, while the others were used to analyze the study objectives/questions. The choice of the tools was based on their efficacy in examining the relationships between variables that were hypothesized in this study.

Summary of Major Findings

The study sought to examine the effect of work-life conflict on the well-being of employees and has identified some dimensions of work-life conflict that affect the well-being of employees and others that do not. The study also

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sought to determine if personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence have a moderating effect on the relationship between work-life conflict and the wellbeing of employees. The conclusions drawn from the study are discussed below.

For objective one, work to life conflict was a significant negative predictor of wellbeing. On the dimensional level, time-based work to life conflict was a significant negative predictor of wellbeing. Behaviour-based work to life conflict, on the other hand, was a significant positive predictor of wellbeing. However, strain-based work to life did not significantly predict wellbeing. Based on the findings, it was established that an increase in work to life conflict decreases the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. It was also established that an increment in time-based work to life conflict decreases the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. On the other hand, an increase in behaviour-based work to life conflict increases the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Interestingly, the results showed that employees of the Ghana Prisons Service did not experience strain-based work to life conflict. This means that even though time-based, behaviour base and strain-based are all dimensions of work to life conflict, they each influenced the well-being of employees in different directions.

For objective two, it was found that life to work conflict was a significant positive predictor of wellbeing. On the dimensional level, time-based life to work conflict was a significant positive predictor of wellbeing. On the other hand, behaviour-based and strain-based life to work conflict had no significant relationship with the wellbeing of employees. Based on the findings, it was established that an increment in life to work conflict increases the

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wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. On the other hand, time-based life to work conflict increases the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The result also shows that employees of the Ghana Prisons Service did not experience behaviour-based and strain-based life to work conflict. This means that even though time-based, behaviour-based and strain-based are all dimensions of life to work conflict, only time-based life to work conflict significantly influenced the wellbeing of the employees of the Ghana Prisons Service.

For objective three, it was found that emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service given its interaction effect. That is, the combined effects of emotional intelligence and work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees were thus insignificant. Thus, work to life conflict rather than emotional intelligence plays an important role in the wellbeing of employees. Therefore, emotional intelligence can indeed not interfere with the interaction between work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees. In relations to this same objective, emotional intelligence made a statistically significant positive contribution to causing a positive variation in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service, with a large effect size. Similarly, work to life conflict, made a statistically significant positive contribution to causing positive variation in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service, with a small effect size.

Objective four seeks to examine the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus. It was found that emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between life to work

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conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. This University of Cape Coast https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui means the effects of the life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees did not depend on the emotional intelligence of employees. Thus, life to work conflict rather than emotional intelligence plays an important role in the wellbeing of employees.

For objective five, the results indicate that spiritual intelligence moderated significantly in a negative manner the predictive relationship between work to life conflict and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The combined effects of spiritual intelligence and work to life conflict on wellbeing were thus significant. This means the effect of work to life conflict on the wellbeing of employees is affected by the presence of spiritual intelligence. Thus, work to life conflict and spiritual intelligence play an important role in the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. Therefore, spiritual intelligence can indeed interfere with the interaction between work to life conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

Finally, objective six seeks to ascertain the moderating effect of spiritual intelligence on the life to work conflict and wellbeing nexus. The results indicate that spiritual intelligence did not moderate the relationship between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The combined effects of spiritual intelligence and life to work conflict on the well-being of employees were thus insignificant. This means the effects of life to work conflict on the wellbeing of employees did not depend on the spiritual intelligence of employees. Therefore, spiritual intelligence can indeed not interfere with the interaction between life to work conflict and the wellbeing of employees.

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Conclusions

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The following conclusions were drawn from the findings of the study. The present study categorized work-life conflict into two domains that are work to life conflict (WLC) and life to work conflict (LWC). The results indicated that the level of WLC is higher compared to the level of LWC. All the two domains were measured using three dimensions; time-based, strain-based and behaviour – based. Conclusions from the study point to the fact that the three dimensions of work to life conflict influenced the well-being of employees in different directions. Interestingly, employees of the Ghana Prisons Service did not experience strain-based work to life conflict. In other words, the relationship between strain-based work to life conflict was insignificant. The population of the study were made up of more employees in the non-supervisory role, hence the result. Working in custody positions might provide a buffer for dealing with strains and stresses of work. Custody officers generally form a collective group at many correctional facilities. In addition, many custody posts require staff to work with other custody staff. Such relations and interactions could provide social support, which has been reported as inversely linked with strain (Cherniss, 1980; Maslach, 1982; Neveu, 2007)

The study also concluded that the Ghana Prisons Service personnel's only experience time-based life to work conflict. It is obvious that employees of the Ghana Prisons Service reported higher levels of work to life conflict than life to conflict. Interestingly, this study contributed to the expansionist views of scholars like Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) whom advocate that role accumulation has in fact many benefits to offer the individual, such as

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knowledge, skills, sense of fulfillment and purpose, and it does not necessarily contribute to strain nor will it always be associated with detrimental outcomes.

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Secondly, the study provided evidence that emotional intelligence has a significant effect on wellbeing of employees. It was concluded that emotional intelligence as a personal resource plays a critical role in enhancing the wellbeing of employees and needs to be taught and learnt in the Ghana Prisons Service.

Another conclusion drawn from the study is that spiritual intelligence interacted with the relationship between work to life conflict and wellbeing of employees. Additionally, spiritual intelligence had a positive influence on the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. This implies that the Ghana Prisons Service should make a radical shift and transformation to a new business model – a spirituality-based organization. That is spiritual intelligence among employees should be grown and developed with training, briefing and consulting.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn from the study, the following recommendations have been made:

It is found that similar to that of western cultures, Ghanaian prison officers are suffering from decreased wellbeing when they have work-life issues (Allen et al., 2000; Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002) and also have an increase in their wellbeing when they have work-life issues (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). That is, the results provide support for the recommendation that the Human Resource Department of the Ghana Prisons Service should be aware of the issue of work-life conflict among staff regardless of the location of the facility. It is

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generally recognized that working in a prison institution is stressful and that the nature of the job causes some degree of work-life conflict. Nonetheless, prison administrators must be aware that the workplace has a real and meaningful influence on the family and social lives of their employees and vice versa, and in turn, work-life conflict may impact the wellbeing of employees.

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The finding that both types of conflict affect the wellbeing of employees highlights the importance of interventions for policy makers of the Ghana prisons service. It is worth noting that the Ghana Prisons Service should foster the development of a culture and practices that promote work-life balance, allowing for the management of the balance between employees' work and life responsibilities (Poelmans et al., 2009). Providing a supportive work environment that recognizes the importance of the employee's family and social life could aid in reducing work-life conflict (Boles et al., 1997). Policies should be created to take special care of the employees of the Ghana Prisons Service to increase their wellbeing. The institution can adopt various family friendly policies such as flexible – working time and child – care facilities (Wilson, 1995). Family supportive programs such as childcare facilities and flexible schedules can help the employees to balance the competing demands of work and life.

While the prison institution always requires staffing around the clock for every day of the year, time-based conflict can be reduced. This can be done when employees are allowed greater say in scheduling jobs (job autonomy) and allowed more flexible use of leave time or annual working-time models (Frone, 2003). In addition, time management programmes and counselling sessions should be offered to help employees deal with all the forms of work-life conflict

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(time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based). That is, there should be evidence-based training for supervisory staff of the Ghana Prisons Service to maintain open, yet professionally driven, lines of communication between supervisors and their subordinates regarding family matters and work demands. The Ghana Prison Service should also focus on reducing role conflict and role overload, and provide employees with resources they need to meet the demands of their job. Thus, this study reinforces the need to have a balance between work and life for the harmony of employees to increase their emotional connection with the organization, which in turn, promotes a greater perception of their wellbeing.

Contrary, Hall and Richer (1988), for example, argued that employers should respect their employees' lives outside the work domain and provide employees with the time and resources to allow them to fulfill outside responsibilities themselves rather than offer to take over these responsibilities for them. The positive consequences of work-life conflict which were evident in this sample of employees of the Ghana Prisons Service adds support to their position. It seems that without involvement in both domains in the lives of employees, these individuals may be denied important sources of resource enrichment for their work.

Employers who assume that participation in nonwork domain acts as a positive force towards work may perceive their role as helping their employees to fully participate in outside activities, and respect the work-nonwork gap. For instance, if the time spent on leisure pursuits is not regarded simply as a period away from work, but rather as a period of revitalization, then employers in their scheduling of work may carefully consider employees' non-work needs. If

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community work is not regarded simply as a break from job duties, but rather, as an opportunity for administrative skill building, then employers may recognize volunteer service alongside the more traditional avenues of management development. If leave for parenting is not regarded simply as a career break, but rather, as a time to enrich one's overall life, including life at work, then employers may value parenting as an important career stage. This study has provided support for this line of thinking for the management of the Ghana Prisons Service.

The study also showed support for emotional intelligence as a personal resource that enhanced the wellbeing of the employees despite the fact that it did not moderate the relationship between work-life conflict and the wellbeing of employees of the Ghana Prison Service. Given the evidence that emotional intelligence plays a critical role of enhancing the wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service, it is recommended that, human resource managers of the Ghana Prisons Service have an enormous opportunity to improve the wellbeing of the prison officers. That is, the human resource managers of the Ghana service through the human resource management functions can support the development of emotional intelligence skills among the prison officers.

The prison officers need to receive some form of emotional intelligence training that will enhance their ability to deal with the emotional demands of their job. Emotional intelligence is a critical skill for prison officers in their day-to-day work and is a skill that can be successfully taught and learnt. It is also recommended that emotional intelligence tools should be used during the recruitment and selection process, and as part of the performance management process. The use of emotional intelligence tools as part of the aforementioned

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human resource functions may offer new insights into the effective recruitment, development and education of prison officers. Even in situations where hiring decisions cannot be made on the basis of applicants' emotional intelligence, an organization can still help employees with lower levels of emotional intelligence through training, mentoring, critical support and other tactics to increase the positive influence on wellbeing. It is also critical that emotional intelligence skills be developed into job descriptions and employee specifications and assessed as part of the performance management of prison officers.

By helping the prison officers effectively deal with the inherent emotions of handling life and work domains, the Ghana Prison institution benefits as well. Employees are more dedicated, according to Cappelli (2003), when they perceive their employer is concerned about their well-being. Furthermore, organizations that help employees improve their emotional intelligence profit by lowering the dysfunctional behavior that often occurs when people are stressed. Employees who are striving to satisfy demands in both domains are looking for ways to get help and relief from this never-ending dance between work and life. Organizations that are able to effectively provide training in the abilities that underlie the concept of emotional intelligence will have more dedicated employees in the long run. This study has provided support for this line of action for the management of the Ghana Prisons Service.

The study also showed support for spiritual intelligence as a personal resource that enhanced the wellbeing of the employees and also as a moderator on the relationship existing between work-life conflict and the wellbeing of employees of the Ghana Prison Service. Zohar and Marshall (2004) proposed

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that spiritual intelligence could be regarded as the soul's intelligence. In other
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words, Fry and Wigglesworth, (2010) suggested spiritual intelligence to be a core competence that embraces and guides other sort of intelligences. Based on the results above, it is recommended that the Ghana Prisons Service can launch interventions aimed at psycho-spiritual training of employees. That is spiritual intelligence among employees should be grown and developed with training, briefing and consulting. Thus, the service should formulate strategies for developing and increasing employees' spiritual intelligence.

Since individual spirituality is a highly personal and abstract concept, organizational caution in developing employee spirituality is a must. Moreover, growing diversity in the organization also implies that there are numerous spiritual expressions in the workplace (Cash and Gray 2000). The authors note that these spiritual needs vary. Since the success of any organization is a function of its people, it is mandatory for organizations to realize the importance of a workforce with diverse spiritual characteristics.

It is also a fact that the awareness about spiritual intelligence will permit one to witness things in a distinct manner, not only in personal life but also at the workplace. It is also believed that spiritual intelligence helps boost the serenity and strength that will help better control situations and shrink the level of existing stress. Given this, the human resource department of the Ghana Prisons Service should also assess the spiritual intelligence of their job applicants to recruit the best candidates. They should do the same throughout employees' careers so they can adjust training and education to their spiritual needs. That is, the department should lighten the knowledge of spiritual

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intelligence and employees must be aware of the fact that spiritual intelligence is not only related to personal lives but also working life.

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Limitations of the Study

This study has a set of limitations that must be acknowledged. The first is related to the evaluation tool used. The questionnaire used is a self-assessment, and the responses may be subject to bias (Ciarrochi et al., 2002). Thus, the responses obtained may contain errors of social desirability and may be underestimated or overvalued; therefore, the results should be interpreted with caution.

Another limitation of this study is related to the fact that it is a cross-sectional study, i.e., the data were collected in a single moment in time. Therefore, it is not possible to make conclusions regarding the causal relationships between the variables and the results are only indicative of nature (negative or positive) of these relationships.

Another limitation is that the study is limited to the scope of the moderators examined. From a stress-coping perspective. Wang (2007) suggested resources can be categorized in many ways such as physical resources, financial resources, social resources. cognitive resources, emotional resources and motivational resources. The current study only concentrated on cognitive resources. Lastly, the study is limited in scope as the participants work in the same sector.

Contribution to Knowledge and Practice

A review of the literature on work-life conflict and wellbeing has shown that all the studies that investigated the interconnectivity of these variables at

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the organizational level concentrated on the direction of work-life conflict (i.e., life to work conflict; work to life conflict) (Stoevaet al., 2002) or on the form of work-life conflict (time, strain, behaviour) (Carlson, 1999): examination of conflicts between work and family and the role of other variables aside dispositional variables in the relationship between work-life conflict and wellbeing. No attempt was made to empirically collect data to establish the proposition that dispositional variables such as emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence can reduce the effect that both the direction and form of work-life conflict has on the wellbeing of employees.

The main contribution of this study, therefore, is the collection of primary data for analyzing the relationship between both the direction and forms of work-life conflict and the wellbeing of employees. While not discrediting the significance of previous studies that focused mainly on either the direction or forms of work-life conflict, according to Frone et al., (1992) and Greenhaus & Beutell (1985), to fully understand the work-life interface, both directions and forms of work-life conflict must be considered (Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Another contribution of this study is that the study goes beyond the mere examination of conflicts between work and family, which would obscure the fact that people occupy multiple roles in addition to their role as an employee and a parent. People are usually involved in multiple roles outside their family life, for instance, in leisure or community roles (Derks, Bakker, Peters & Van Wingerden, 2016). Hence, this study widens the focus in the broad nonwork domain. Therefore, our key concept is labelled "work-life conflict" (WLC) and can also be applied to people outside traditional family roles.

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In addition, this study contributes to the role of dispositional variables in the relationship between work-life conflict and wellbeing. Researchers such as Carlson have called for additional study of personality variables to provide further insight into the underpinnings of work-life conflict. This study answers this call by examining specifically, the role of personal resources in the form of emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence in the work-life conflict and wellbeing nexus. For many, work-life conflict has become a persistent stressor in their working lives and therefore every factor that might decrease its detrimental effects on wellbeing should be investigated (Dettmers, 2017; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). It is argued that individual resources may be especially important in the absence of other family-friendly resources, either at work (e.g., Organizational support) or home (e.g., supportive partner) (Wayne, Lemmon, Hoobler, Cheung, & Wilson, 2017). Specifically, the study establishes spiritual intelligence as a personal resource that mitigates the harmful effects of work-life conflict on the well-being of employees.

This study also contributes to theoretical knowledge by challenging the dominant scarcity theory which states that fulfilling multiple roles will inevitably lead to experiencing role conflict which relates to higher levels of stress and decreased wellbeing. However, this study contributed to the expansionist views of scholars like Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) who advocate that role accumulation has in fact many benefits to offer the individual, such as knowledge, skills, sense of fulfillment and purpose, and it does not necessarily contribute to strain nor will it always be associated with detrimental outcomes. Marks (1977), considered human energy and attention to be abundant and expandable and he proposed that participation in one role not necessarily

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takes away from the energy available for another role. Thus, the expansionist University of Cape Coast https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui view supports that participation in multiple roles can be associated with enhanced wellbeing for individuals, and this was evident in this study. The study also builds on the perspective of COR theory by recognizing the moderating role of personal resources in ensuring individual well-being.

Areas for Future Research

Based on the findings, conclusions and limitations of the study, further research could be conducted in

the following areas:

- Assessment of work-life conflict, personal resources and wellbeing of employees using a longitudinal study approach.
- Assessment of work-life conflict, personal resources and wellbeing of employees in other industries or sectors of the economy to transversely confirm the analyzed dimensions.
- In this study, following Wang et al. (2011), we characterized emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence as important cognitive resources. Future studies could extend the current study by investigating how other kinds of resources could help employees to better handle their work-life issues. In this way, conservative resource theory can be tested and extended more comprehensively and thoroughly.

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APPENDIX

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

QUESTIONNAIRE ON WORK LIFE CONFLICT, PERSONAL RESOURCES AND WELLBEING OF EMPLOYEES IN THE GHANA PRISON SERVICE

Dear Sir/Madam

I am Salomey Ofori Appiah, a PhD student in Business Administration (HRM Option) at the School of Business, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast. As part of the requirement for the award of the degree, I am supposed to conduct research in the area of study. In respect of this, you are invited to participate in a research project entitled; ***Work life conflict, personal resources and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service.*** The main aim of this study is to examine the relationship among work life conflict, personal resources and wellbeing of employees in the Ghana Prisons Service. The exercise is solely for academic purposes and therefore guided by all relevant ethical standards of research.

You are personally assured of total anonymity and confidentiality of your responses. Under no circumstances will they be used for any purpose other than stated. Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. The questionnaire should take about 30 minutes to complete.

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Please provide your candid responses to the questions as they relate to you.

Thank you for your time.

PART A: BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

A: RESPONDENT PROFILE

Please **tick** (√) the most appropriate box applicable in each question

1. Name of Institution.....

2. Please specify your role in the institution

   Custodian ☐

   Non-custodian ☐

3. Please indicate your gender

   Male ☐

   Female ☐

4. Which of the following age brackets are you in?

☐ Up to 30 ☐ 31 - 40 ☐ 41 - 50 ☐ 51 - 60

4. What is your highest education qualification achieved?

☐ HND/Diploma

☐ Basic education certificate ☐ Degree

☐ Senior Secondary/Technical School Certificate ☐ Postgraduate

5. Length of service: 1 – 5 ☐ 10 1☐5 16 – 20 ☐

Above 20 ☐

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SECTION B: WORK TO LIFE CONFLICT

Please indicate by ticking your level of agreement with the following statements on the scale provided below. There are no right or wrong answers, simply provide your perspective on your work and family life. Please answer the questions below using a scale of 1 to 5, with **1** indicating "Strongly Disagree," **2** indicating "disagree," **3** indicating "Neither Agree or Disagree," **4** indicating "Agree" and **5** indicating "Strongly Agree."

Time-Based Work Life Conflict (WL1 – WL3)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. My work keeps me from my personal life activities more than I would like.					
2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in my personal life responsibilities and activities.					
3. I have to miss personal life activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.					

Strain-based Work Life Conflict (WL4 – WL6)

4. When I get home from work, I am often too frazzled to participate in personal life activities and responsibilities.					
5. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my personal life.					

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6. Due to all the pressures at work, I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy in my personal life.					

Behavior-based Work life Conflict (WL7 – WL9)

7. The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems in my personal life.					
8. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive in my personal life.					
9. The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me be a better person in my personal life.					

SECTION C: LIFE TO WORK CONFLICT

Please answer the questions below using a scale of 1 to 5, with **1** indicating "Strongly Disagree," **2** indicating "disagree," **3** indicating "Neither Agree or Disagree," **4** indicating "Agree," and **5** indicating "Strongly Agree." Family Work Conflict Scale:

Time-based Life Work Conflict (LW1-LW3)]

	1	2	3	4	5
1. The time I spend on my personal life responsibilities often interferes with my work responsibilities.					

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2. The time I spend with my personal life often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.					
3. I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on personal life responsibilities.					

Strain-based Life Work Conflict (LW4 – LW6)

4. Due to stress in my personal life, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.					
5. Because I am often stressed from life responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.					
6. Tension and anxiety from my life often weakens my ability to do my job.					

Behavior-based Life Work Conflict (LW7 – FW9)

7. The behaviors that work for me in life do not seem to be effective at work.					
8. Behavior that is effective and necessary for me in life would be counterproductive at work.					
9. The problem-solving behavior that works for me in life does not seem to be as useful at work.					

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SECTION D: SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE

The Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory (SISRI-24).

The following statements are designed to measure various behaviours, thought processes, and mental characteristics. Read each statement carefully and choose which one of the five possible responses best reflects you by circling the corresponding number. If you are not sure, or if a statement does not seem to apply to you, choose the answer that seems the best. Please answer honestly and make responses based on how you actually are rather than how you would like to be. The five possible responses are:

0 indicating "Not at all true of me," **1** indicating "Not very true of me," **2** indicating "Somewhat true of me," and **3** indicating "Very true of me," and **4** indicating "Completely true of me."

	0	1	2	3	4
1. I have often questioned or pondered the nature of reality.					
2. I recognize aspects of myself that are deeper than my physical body					
3. I have spent time contemplating the purpose or reason for my existence.					
4. I am able to enter higher states of consciousness or awareness.					
5. I am able to deeply contemplate what happens after death.					
6. It is difficult for me to sense anything other than the physical and material.					

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7. My ability to find meaning and purpose in life helps me adapt to stressful situations.					
8. I can control when I enter higher states of consciousness or awareness.					
9. I have developed my own theories about such things as life, death, reality, and existence.					
10. I am aware of a deeper connection between myself and other people.					
11. I am able to define a purpose or reason for my life.					
12. I am able to move freely between levels of consciousness or awareness.					
13. I frequently contemplate the meaning of events in my life.					
14. I define myself by my deeper, non-physical self.					
15. When I experience a failure, I am still able to find meaning in it.					
16. I often see issues and choices more clearly while in higher states of consciousness/awareness.					
17. I have often contemplated the relationship between human beings and the rest of the universe.					
18. I am highly aware of the nonmaterial aspects of life.					

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SECTION E: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)

Here is a short 16-item measure of emotional intelligence, developed for the use in management research and studies. These items on the Wong and Law Emotional intelligence Scale (WLEIS) is based on the ability model of emotional intelligence. A list of statements is provided below, and to complete this questionnaire, mark the extent to which you agree or disagree to each of the statements. Please answer the questions below using a scale of 1 to 7, with **1** indicating "Strongly Disagree," 2 indicating "Disagree," **3** indicating "Slightly disagree," **4** indicating "Neither Agree or Disagree," **5** indicating "Slightly agree," **6** indicating" Agree" and **7** indicating "Strongly Agree."

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I have a good sense of why I feel certain feelings most of the time.							
2. I have a good understanding of my own feelings							
3. I really understand what I feel							
4. I always know whether I am happy or not							
5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.							
6. I am a good observer of other emotions							
7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others							

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8. I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me							
9. I always set goals for myself and try my best to achieve them							
10. I always tell myself I am a complete person							
11. I am a self-motivating person							
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best							
13. I am able to control my temper so that I can handle difficulties rationally							
14. I am quite capable of controlling my emotions							
15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry							
16. I have good control of my emotions.							

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SECTION D: WELLBEING OF EMPLOYEES (LIFE SATISFACTION, JOB SATISFACTION AND PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH

Life Satisfaction

Please answer the questions below using a scale of 1 to 7, with **1** indicating "Strongly Disagree," **2** indicating "Disagree," **3** indicating "Slightly disagree," **4** indicating "Neither Agree or Disagree," **5** indicating "Slightly agree," **6** indicating" Agree" and **7** indicating "Strongly Agree."

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. In most ways my personal-life is close to my ideal							
2. The conditions of my personal-life are excellent							
3. I am satisfied with my personal life							
4. So far, I have got the important things I want in my personal-life							
5. If I could live my personal-life over, I would change almost nothing							

Job Satisfaction

1. Generally speaking, I am very happy with my work							
2. I frequently think of leaving this job							
3. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in my job							

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Psychological Health

Using the 1-4 scale please indicate your agreement with each item by ticking the appropriate box with **1** indicating "Better than usual," **2** indicating "Same as usual," **3** indicating "Worse than usual," and 4 indicating "Much worse than usual."

	1	2	3	4
1. Been able to concentrate on what you are doing?				
2. Lost much sleep over worry?				
3. Felt you are playing a useful part in things?				
4. Felt capable of making decisions about things?				
5. Felt constantly under strain?				
6. Felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?				
7. Been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?				
8. Been able to face up to your problems?				
9. Been feeling unhappy or depressed?				
10. Been losing confidence in yourself?				
11. Been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?				
12. Been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?				

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