Individual Work-Family Coping Types: Gender Differences in Their Use and effectiveness

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Individual Work-Family Coping Types: Gender Differences in their Use and Effectiveness

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Statement of Originality

This work has not previously been submitted for a degree or a diploma in any University. To the best of my knowledge or belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

Signed…….

Date……

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Abstract

The purpose of this thesis was to investigate gender differences in the use and effectiveness of individual work-family coping types.

Social changes in western society since the 1970s have resulted in large numbers of people with responsibilities both at work and at home. Coping with work-family conflict is thus a major issue for men and women in Australia as in other Western societies. Employees develop their own strategies for dealing with conflicts, but little research has been conducted in this area. One particular aspect of work-family coping research that has not been well investigated is in the use and effectiveness of individual coping strategies.

Individual work-family coping is defined as "actions taken by an employee to reduce or eliminate the work-family role strain (a form of stress) associated with work-family conflict" (Voydanoff, 2002, p. 46). An issue preventing the thorough investigation of individual work-family coping strategies is the absence of a currently accepted coping taxonomy and measure. Recent work-family research has been conducted using outdated literature or measures that are often not specific to work-family coping. In order to progress research in this area, a taxonomy and measure of individual work-family coping were developed as a part of this thesis.

Study 1 applied a qualitative methodology to develop a taxonomy of individual work-family coping. 30 participants from a large Queensland transport organisation were interviewed using a convergent interviewing approach. After the interviews were transcribed, the data were content analysed. Study 1 identified eight coping types including Partner Support, Support from Family Members (other than partner), Relatives,

and Close Friends, Supportive or Family-Friendly Organisational Conditions, External Support Services, Tension Reduction, Active Cognitive Restructuring, Active Role Management, and Compartmentalism. The coping types typically consisted of two or three coping strategies. The names of some of these coping types were modified later in the research.

In the first part of Study 2 the new taxonomy was used to develop the Individual Work-Family Coping Scale (IWFCS). A pool of items was developed for each coping type based on the qualitative data of Study 1, and existing reliable scales reported in the wider psychological literature. A questionnaire consisting of 74 coping items and demographical information was developed and distributed through contacts of the researcher. 267 usable questionnaires were returned for analysis. Almost half of the participants had a university undergraduate or postgraduate degree. The questionnaire data were subjected to a principal components analysis (PCA) to determine the factor structure and items with the highest loadings. Cronbach alphas were then conducted to estimate internal reliability coefficients.

In the second part of Study 2 gender differences in the use of work-family coping types were examined. Statistical analyses, including a MANOVA and ANOVAs, determined that female participants used four of the coping types significantly more than male participants. These coping strategies were Friend and Relative Support, Partner Support, Direct Role Management, and Workplace Support.

Study 3 applied the IWFCS to investigate gender differences in the use and effectiveness of the work-family coping types. The sample included professional, clerical, and field staff from a shire council. First, a MANOVA assessed gender

differences in coping type use. Contrary to the findings in Study 2, the only gender difference was in the use of Workplace Support. Women used this coping type more frequently than men.

Second, hierarchical multiple regression analyses assessed gender differences in coping type effectiveness. Separate analyses were carried out for each of the criterion variables: job, partner, and family satisfaction. In the hierarchical regression analyses, interactions were evident for the coping types Cognitive Restructuring and Direct Role Management in predicting family satisfaction, and Cognitive Restructuring and Reducing Personal Role Demands in predicting partner satisfaction. This finding indicated that gender was a moderating variable for the three coping types. Assessing males and females separately, further regression analyses were conducted to determine the nature of the interactions. Gender differences in effectiveness were evident for Direct Role Management and Cognitive Restructuring.

In addition to gender differences in coping effectiveness, Partner Support and Workplace Support were effective for both men and women in predicting one or more types of satisfaction. Unexpectedly, Tension Reduction and Friend and Relative Support negatively predicted aspects of life satisfaction. Despite the fact that this finding cannot be explained through previous research, there are a number of possibilities. First, if a person turns readily to external family for support, the other partner may feel there is a too heavy reliance on others. This could lead to a reduction in partner satisfaction. Second, if an employee increases the amount of Tension Reducing activities to combat work-family conflict, they may become unhappy at work if their work begins to interfere with their time for relaxation activities.

It was concluded that there are gender differences in the use of work-family coping types, and in their effectiveness in predicting family and partner satisfaction. A small number of coping types are effective in predicting satisfaction regardless of gender, and a minority of coping types are negatively linked to satisfaction.

Limitations of the research include the use of only one organisation and the absence of "blue-collar" staff in the qualitative study, the interview method which may result in the omission of less socially desirable coping strategies, and the use of a "non-applicable" option in the questionnaire which was overused by participants.

Further research opportunities derived from this thesis include investigation of "blue-collar" populations and coping type use and effectiveness, comparisons between different educational samples in the use and effectiveness of coping types, the use of different methods to address less socially desirable coping responses, the use of different outcome measures to assess coping effectiveness, a more detailed examination of each of the coping types and strategies, and the inclusion of other family structures in coping research samples (e.g., families with a "carer" component such as looking after a sick or disabled parent).

CHAPTER 1: THE SOCIAL CONTEXT OF WORK-FAMILY RESEARCH

Chapter Overview

This introductory chapter explores the relevance of the work-family topic and its social context in modern society. It provides a summary of the problem explored in the thesis, an overview of the thesis chapters, and the background to the research problem.

Relevance of Work-Family Research to Modern Society

The domain of "work and family" research emerged in the research literature in the 1960s and the 1970s (Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000). During the 1970s research on work and families began for the first time to reflect an open-systems approach (Katz & Kahn, 1978), in which researchers assumed that what happened at work affected what happened at home and vice versa (Cambell-Clark, 2000). This was in contrast to earlier research that treated work and family as both physically and temporally separate (e.g., Parson & Bales, 1955). Such early research reflected the view that work and family systems functioned independently because the man was the breadwinner and the woman was the homemaker. However, significant changes in society from the 1970s resulted in an increased number of individuals with significant responsibilities both at work and at home.

Research into the interdependencies between work and home life stemmed from growing interest in the following social trends (Brief & Nord, 1990): an increase in divorce rates leading to a higher proportion of single parents, the diversity of family structures (Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2001), the growing participation of women and mothers in the labour force (Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997; Kirchmeyer & Cohen,

1999; Paden & Buehler, 1995), increased demand for part time work, greater mobility of workers reducing their access to family support, the increased interest in enhancing life outside work, and the increasing value of the father's role within the home (Levine & Pittinsky, 1997). In addition, a national study in the U.S.A cited by Rau and Hyland (2002) indicated that work-life balance was among the most important factors considered by job seekers when accepting a new position.

Although the majority of research on work and family has been done in the American context, work-family conflict and coping are just as pertinent in Australia (e.g., Muller, 1999; Smith, 2000). As with other Westernised countries, recent trends in Australian society, such as the number of mothers in the workforce and the prevalence of dual-earner/career couples, underscore the need for work-family coping research (Australian Bureau of Statistics [ABS], 2002). Regardless of age, most families have both adult partners in employment. In 2000, 63% of Australian families with two parents and at least one child had both parents working (ABS, 2002). This is consistent with American findings that the typical family pattern in the U.S.A. is the "dual-earning couple" or "dual-career couple" (Aryee, Luk, Leung, & Lo, 1999), in which both partners are in the workforce (Voydanoff, 1987). Such couples often remain at work throughout the period of time they are raising children. The traditional family, with the man as the breadwinner and the woman as the homemaker, is rapidly becoming the family structure of the past (O'Driscoll, 1996).

The literature distinguishes between "dual-earner" and "dual-career" couples (Aryee et al., 1999). The dual-career couple has been the most widely emphasised in the literature and refers to couples who are employed in professional occupations.

Alternatively, dual-earner couples are members of the workforce in which neither partner is employed in a professional or managerial position. While the terms are very similar, Pleck (1987) commented that dual-earner couples tend to have the more severe economic problems if the female partner leaves the workforce, fewer resources to cope with work-family conflict, and weaker bargaining power with employers. Some authors refer to the situation in which one partner maintains a career, while the other has a job but is likely to take primary responsibility for the household (e.g., Becker & Moen, 1999).

As a consequence of the increase in dual-career/earner couples and mothers in the workforce, employees are increasingly having to create balance between their work and family roles (e.g., parent, spouse, employee). This not only becomes an issue for the employees themselves, as the ramifications extend to their families, the organisations for which they work, organisational psychologists, health professionals, and policy makers. Although positive outcomes have been found to result from multiple roles for individuals, the family, and organisations (e.g., Barnett, 1999; Cooksey, Menaghan, & Jekielek, 1997; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Rodin & Ickovics, 1990), several studies indicate problematic consequences (e.g., Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987; O'Driscoll, 1996; Thompson, 1997).

While individuals have always devised various strategies to manage stress, work-family conflict is a relatively new area of stress brought about by rapidly changing social norms (Moen & Yu, 2000). Social structures aimed at assisting families to cope are failing to keep up with this rapid social change. For example, while childcare is commonly used by working parents, the current availability of childcare places does not meet the demand. Furthermore, working parents are seeking out a variety of forms of day

care which are simply not available. Theorists describe this situation as a period of "structural lag" (Riley & Riley, 1994) in which institutionalised customs and practices persist despite changing social realities. Society, including the majority of organisations, still operates on the premise that a family consists of a male breadwinner with children and a wife who does not work (Berry & Rao, 1997). Such a lag makes it difficult for working families to rely on the organisations for which they work to help them achieve work-family balance.

A critical factor exacerbating the difficulties in work-family coping is the perception, deeply rooted in organisational culture, that success at work is equated with time spent at work (Moen & Yu, 2000). There is evidence that employees are putting in increasingly more work hours (Hobson, Delunas, & Kesic, 2001; Jacobs & Gerson, 1998) and are experiencing a feeling of being overworked (Robinson & Godbey, 1997). Work expectations and the structural lag mean that employees are increasingly pressured to identify and put into action individualised and often creative coping strategies to manage their conflicting work and family demands.

The Problem Addressed in the Thesis

Coping with work-family demands is a major issue for Australian men and women. While employees have to identify and put into action their own individualised work-family coping strategies, there has been little research conducted in this area. It is difficult to eliminate many work and family stressors, but more emphasis needs to be placed on investigating the coping mechanisms of individuals (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999). While studies have acknowledged the stress-reducing properties of other forms of

coping, there is a lack of research specifically addressing the particular stressor of work-family conflict (Rotondo, Carlson, & Kincaid, 2003).

Early research focused on female professionals who were mothers (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972) and made the assumption that women, rather than men, experienced work-family conflict. Two models of work-family coping were developed. Hall (1972) used one of these models to evaluate the effectiveness of the coping strategies used. However, research was only conducted on women and the results were inconsistent. Later research has focused more heavily on how working couples cope as a dyad (e.g., Stanfield, 1998; Wiersma, 1994). Almost none of this research identifies how effective various strategies are in influencing well-being. Much of the work-family coping literature is now outdated, and recent literature neglects the possibility of a variety of differing family structures to focus solely on working couples. As a consequence, very few studies have addressed how men and women individually cope with their work-family conflict, including an assessment of gender differences in the coping strategies used and their effectiveness in enhancing well-being.

The current research investigates work-family coping strategies. It determines some of the work-family coping strategies currently used by Australian workers, and develops a measure of coping. Male and female employees were included in all studies, and gender differences in the use and effectiveness of coping strategies were explored.

Thesis Structure

Chapter 2 focuses on the work-family coping literature, firstly identifying definitions of work-family conflict and its negative and positive implications for psychological well-being. The importance of the work-family coping research is then

discussed, and areas for development in the literature identified. Taxonomies and measures of work-family coping are reviewed.

Chapter 3 focuses on research investigating gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping strategies. It highlights the importance of evaluating such differences. Literature pertaining to this area is then reviewed, followed by an exploration of gender differences in the work-family experience.

Chapter 4 explores the methodological issues involved in the research program. This includes an argument for combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies, and a summary of the three studies that make up the thesis. Important considerations for each study are discussed, such as interview techniques, qualitative and quantitative analysis, dependent variables, and covariates.

Chapters 5 to 8 report the three studies making up the research program. These include one qualitative and two quantitative studies. Two of the studies include the development of research tools (a work-family coping taxonomy and measure), which enable investigation of the research question. Two of the studies directly investigate gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping strategies. Chapter 9 provides an overall discussion of the research findings, theoretical and practical implications, and avenues for future research.

CHAPTER 2: COPING WITH WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Chapter Overview

This chapter explores the work-family coping literature in greater detail. Work-family conflict is explained with its relevance to work-family coping. Both the importance and limitations of current work-family coping research is discussed, followed by a review of work-family coping taxonomies and measures. It is argued that updated research is required to further explore work-family coping. To do this, it is proposed that a new taxonomy and measure of individual work-family coping are required which relate to both male and female employees.

Work-Family Conflict

The main focus of the body of work-family literature has been "work-family conflict" (e.g., Aryee et al., 1999; Higgins & Duxbury, 1992; Stoeva et al., 2001), which is the term given to the experience of simultaneously conflicting demands from work and family (Coverman, 1989). Work-family conflict has also been called work-home conflict (Weirsma, 1994), job-family role strain, work-family tension, family/work role incompatibility, and inter-role conflict (Higgins & Duxbury, 1992). The authors of a meta-review on the subject define work-family conflict as: "..a form of conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Although older literature treated work-family conflict as a global bi-directional process, some of the more recent literature talks of family-to-work conflict and work-to-family effects as

linked but distinct processes (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). In this thesis, the concept is used in a way consistent with the majority of work-family coping literature, that is as a bi-directional construct.

Role strain theory identifies two forms of conflict resulting from multiple role demands: overload and interference (Kirchmeyer, 2002, p. 143). Overload occurs when "the total demands on time and energy associated with the prescribed activities of multiple roles are too great to perform the roles adequately or comfortably" (Kirchmeyer, 2002, p. 143). Interference, on the other hand, exists when "conflicting demands make it difficult to fulfill the requirements of multiple roles. This may be due to contradictory expectations or conflicts in the scheduling of demands" (p. 143). Hall (1972) distinguished between two forms of role conflict, "inter-role" and "intra-role" conflict. Intra-role conflict results from conflicting expectations within a particular role, whereas inter-role conflict arises from the demands of multiple roles, such as conflicting time commitments. Work-family conflict is a form of inter-role conflict and examples of roles impacting on this form of conflict discussed in the literature include the parent, spouse/partner, self, and employee roles.

In his research on dual-career couples, Wiersma (1994) argued that work-family conflict is derived from two sources: role overload and role quality. Role overload is thought to occur when individuals are unable to balance out their work, domestic, and childcare roles. The types of conflict arising from role overload include making time for domestic duties, maintaining a social life, friendship, and social ties, as well as making decisions regarding when to start a family, taking career into consideration. A reduction of role quality is thought to occur when reality fails to coincide with an individual's self

concept of how things should be. For example, work-family conflict is generated when women with strong work ambitions experience guilt for spending too little time with their children. Although the research was restricted to dual-career couples, it provides some insight into the fact that work-family conflict may occur due to an individual's need to decrease role overload and increase role quality.

Work-family conflict increases the stress and strain placed on an individual, resulting in negative consequences for the individual, their spouse, and family (Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997), as well as for the organisation within which they work. Although some researchers have found evidence for positive outcomes resulting from multiple role participation (e.g., Barnett, 1999; Cooksey, Menaghan, & Jekielek, 1997; Rodin & Ickovics, 1990), negative consequences of multiple role participation have also been noted (e.g., Brough & Kelling, 2002; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Hobson, Delunas, & Kesic, 2001; O'Driscoll, 1996). A meta-analysis (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000) identified three categories of consequences associated with work-family conflict: work-related (e.g., job dissatisfaction, lowered organisational commitment), non-work related (e.g., life dissatisfaction, family dissatisfaction), and stress-related outcomes (e.g., psychological strain, increased anxiety). As a result of the negative consequences of work-family conflict, there has been interest in the literature regarding the coping strategies that people use to manage their work-family conflict (O'Driscoll, 1996).

The Importance of Work-Family Coping Research

Issues of work-family conflict and the need for strategies to cope with this are not likely to change in the near future because men's and women's involvement in both work and family roles are rapidly becoming the norm. It is unlikely that men and women will return to their traditional roles as breadwinner and homemaker respectively (Higgins, Duxbury, & Lee, 1994). Furthermore, work and family issues are no longer restricted to women. Social norms and expectations, or the "culture of fatherhood" (LaRossa, 1988, p. 451), are gradually changing as many fathers take greater responsibility for home and childcare, and thus increase the likelihood that they too are experiencing work-family conflict. Voydanoff (2002) observed that "it is no longer sufficient to view work/family issues as women's issues that affect men only as the husbands of working women" (p. 99). The chronic nature of work-family conflict will continue to cause men and women to have to develop and activate methods of coping on a highly regular basis (Rotondo et al., 2003). As a result, it is critical that society creates and adopts better methods of coping with work-family conflict. Paden and Buehler (1995) stressed that it is the increased vulnerability to physical and emotional problems that highlights the need to study coping strategies that may diffuse or eliminate the negative effects of work-family conflict.

From an organisational perspective, a number of authors have argued that it is critical to develop an understanding about factors outside the organisation itself that are influencing employee behaviour, attitudes, and satisfaction (e.g., Hobson et al., 2001; O'Driscoll, 1996). O'Driscoll argued that factors influencing staff from outside the organisation need to be considered when developing human resource management policies and practices. Consideration of these factors could lead to reducing business

costs by optimising the use of human resources, for example, by reducing the costs of absenteeism and increasing organisational commitment.

Despite the increasing relevance of work-family conflict to modern organisations, only a limited number of organisations have implemented coping support mechanisms for their employees (Aryee et al., 1999; Burley, 1995). Support in the form of "family-friendly" working conditions, such as child-care facilities, flexible working hours, and parental or family leave, are often not readily available to employees (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). However, there is some recent evidence that a growing number of progressive organisations in the United States (e.g., Motorola & Hewlett-Packard) are implementing work-family strategies and initiatives (Hobson et al., 2001). Such strategies are typically in the form of family-friendly policies and programs. Nevertheless, there is little evidence that such programs and policies are widespread.

Another issue is that employees from smaller companies are not provided with many of the work-family support options made available to staff in larger organisations (Rotondo et al., 2003). For example, flexitime, on-site day care, and parental or family leave are used less often in smaller workplaces. Such issues leave the individual to develop his or her own individualised coping strategies to meet role demands (Aryee et al., 1999; Rotondo et al., 2003). Despite the necessity to develop personalised work-family coping strategies, only a small body of literature has investigated this issue. Further research is required to fully develop an understanding of work-family coping and effective coping strategies.

Areas for Development in the Work-Family Coping Literature

Relative to the amount of research dedicated to understanding the prevalence, predictors, and outcomes of work-family conflict, only a small number of researchers have empirically examined individual coping strategies that people use in an attempt to ameliorate stressful work and family conditions (Frone, 2003; Muller, 1999; O'Driscoll, 1996; Parasuraman & Cleek, 1984). This research has focused almost exclusively on women, and has not yet addressed the effectiveness of work-family coping strategies (O'Driscoll, 1996).

More attention needs to be paid to assessing how potential conflict can best be alleviated or avoided. The research which has been done has concentrated almost exclusively on women (Burley, 1995; Moen & Yu, 2000), and has not been updated despite rapid changes in society (e.g., Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Gray, 1983; Yogev & Brett, 1985). Only in the past decade are males being included in research on coping (e.g., Higgins et al., 1994; Levine & Pittinsky, 1997; Paden & Buehler, 1995; Wiersma, 1994). In the past, the omission of males has been justified on the premise that men are more responsible for the financial welfare of their families, while the woman's domain is primarily the up-keep of the household and welfare of her family (Gutek, Klepa, & Searle 1991; Wiley, 1991). It has been assumed in previous literature that women taking on work outside the home are likely to experience conflict resulting from competing roles. Some research has indicated that managerial women in particular have to balance high work demands as well as non-work responsibilities, above and beyond their male counterparts (O'Driscoll, 1996).

Research on married women has predominated in the literature with particular emphasis on how their work roles impact on their homemaker, wife, and mother roles (e.g., Hall, 1972; Gray, 1983; Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Amatea, Cross, Clark, & Bobby, 1986; Burke & Greenglass, 1987). In contrast, little attention has been given in the literature to how males experience and cope with work-family demands, although some attention has been given in the recent literature to men in dual-career couples (e.g., Becker & Moen, 1999; Schnittger & Bird, 1990; Wiersma, 1994).

A second issue that warrants further study on work-family coping is the relevance of populations on which most work-family studies have been conducted. Research has often focused on American males and females who are students or who are from professional populations, particularly members of a university faculty staff (e.g., Brems & Johnson, 1989; Gilbert & Holahan, 1979; Gilbert & Holahan, 1982; Hobfall, Dunahoo, Ben-Porath, & Monnier, 1994; Nezu & Nezu, 1987; Ptacek, Smith, & Zanas, 1992). It is unlikely that many students have experienced the same multiple role demands of an older employed population, while university faculty staff may not represent other employees outside the university environment. Hertz (1986) also noted that much of the work-family research is focused on elite dual-career families who are only a small group of employed families. Single parents as well as dual-earner clerical and blue-collar staff remain largely un-represented in the research. Work-family conflict is thus considered only a potential problem in dual-earner couples (Boles & Babin, 1996).

There is a need to investigate work-family coping as working populations currently experience it. In addition to the increase in women in the paid labor force and the number of dual-career/earner couples, there have been other changes in society over

the past decades that are likely to affect the coping strategies that employees use to manage their work and family conflict. For example, the 1990s stand out as a time of technological (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000) change. The growing use of information technology and other modes of communication means, that for some employees, work can be carried out from places other than the office. Work practices enabling greater home-life balance such as telecommuting in some instances have become possible and have been readily investigated in the literature (e.g., Belanger, 1999; Chapman, Sheehy, Heywood, Dooley, & Collins, 1995; Lim & Teo, 2000; Solomon & Templer, 1993).

One of the conclusions from a meta-review of work-family literature was that gender similarities and differences with regard to male and female work-family issues need to be addressed (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). Lambert (1990) suggested that both sexes need to be included in studies to assess gender differences and similarities. Some early studies discussed the possibility that gender differences may exist but did not pursue this further (e.g., Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; LaCroix & Haynes, 1987). More recently, some attention has been given to gender differences in work-family coping (e.g., Paden & Buehler, 1995; Scherer, Owen, Petrick, & Brodzinsky, 1991; Schnittger & Bird, 1990; Smith, 2000).

An important gap in the literature which hinders further research is the absence of a recent quantitative measure of work-family coping (Muller, 1999). Skinner and McCubbin (1981) developed the Dual Employed Coping Scales (DECS) to identify coping behaviours spouses find effective in managing the work-family interface. This scale has been used for research purposes, but it is now over 20 years old. In the absence of scales other than the DECS studies of work-family-coping have used scales developed

in the counselling literature such as the Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1988) and the Ways of Coping Checklist (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980) (see for example, Alpert & Culbertson, 1987; Brink & de la Rey, 2001). More recently, Rotondo et al. (2003) applied a coping inventory based on four coping styles: direct action, help-seeking, positive thinking, and avoidance/resignation. Such coping styles were derived from Folkman and Lazarus (1980). Although these scales are of some use, a questionnaire specific to work-family coping would provide more specific information.

Definition of Work-Family Coping

There have been inconsistencies in the conceptualisation of work-family coping, and these are reflected in models of work-family coping discussed in the next section. As such, there is no clear definition of work-family coping.

Despite the lack of definition for work-family coping, more recent research refers to "work-family adaptive strategies" as opposed to coping strategies. Despite the differing terminologies, the concepts appear to be the same. Work-family adaptive strategies are explained as "Actions taken on the part of individuals and families to reduce the work-family role strain associated with work-family conflict" (Voydanoff, 2002, p. 46). Voydanoff proposed that "viewed from the perspective of stress theory, work-family adaptive strategies are comparable to coping strategies, responses, or behaviours on both the individual and family level" (p. 146). The concept of work-family-adaptive strategies has been accepted by a number of authors (e.g., Barnett, 1998; Moen & Worthington, 1992), and it is adopted here.

Individual Taxonomies of Work-Family Coping

Two forms of work-family coping taxonomies can be distinguished in the literature: individual coping taxonomies and dual-career/earner taxonomies. The focus of individual coping taxonomies is how an employee seeks to cope with his or her work-family conflict, typically on a day-to-day basis (e.g., Hall, 1972; Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987). Alternatively, the focus of dual-career/earner taxonomies varies, depending on the model. Some models tend to focus on day-to-day strategies (e.g., using child-minding), others focus on strategic coping (e.g., role cycling where one partner takes primary responsibility for a role for a period time and then the other takes over), and some models include both (e.g., Haddock et al. 2001; Wiersma, 1994).

In recent years some studies of work-family coping have turned to the investigation of how dual-career couples cope as a dyad or as a family (e.g., Granrose, Parasuraman, & Greenhaus, 1992; Paden & Buehler, 1995; Stanfield, 1998; Wiersma, 1994). The shift away from individual coping recognised a gap in the literature, and was driven by the need to determine why families cope more or less effectively (Moen & Yu, 2000; Stanfield, 1998). Although determining how dyads or families cope, the recent focus on couple coping has meant that individual coping has been neglected in recent years.

Although models of dual-career/earner coping are useful for exploring the ways in which families cope, their use is restricted to couples in which both members are in paid employment. Such models are not relevant to other family structures, such as couples with one partner at home, single parents, or couples who do not live together. A meta-review of the work-family research during the 1990s concluded that in future studies

samples should vary in terms of their family structure (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). A variety of family structures are becoming more prevalent in society (ABS, 2002). As such, research should be more inclusive of alternative family structures, rather than focusing solely on families where both partners are in paid employment.

Because of the lack of recent literature involving work-family coping models, the focus of the current research is individual coping. Individual models are reviewed in detail followed by a brief summary of recent dual-career/earner models.

Hall (1972) pioneered individual work-family coping research with his development of a coping taxonomy for professional women. His has been the most widely cited model in the literature (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Burley, 1995; Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Gilbert, Holahan, & Manning, 1981; Harrison & Minor, 1978; Parasuraman & Cleek, 1984, Raskin, Kummel, & Bannister, 1998; Wiersma, 1990). The model proposed three coping mechanisms, termed Structural Role Redefinition (Type I), Personal Role Redefinition (Type II), and Reactive Role Behaviour (Type III). The types were drawn from a theoretical model of role process by Levinson (1959), which indicated three such stages.

Table 2.1

Concepts Distinguishing Coping Types I, II, and III (from Hall, 1972)

Types	Distinguishing features
Type I - Structural Role Redefinition	Altering incoming demands by reducing, reallocating, and rescheduling.
	Directly managing structurally imposed demands through negotiation with role senders.
	Implies internal locus of control – deals with situational reality as opposed to subjective feelings.
Type II - Personal Role Redefinition	Changing personal concept of role demands.
	Can involve prioritising.
	Can involve accepting conflict in the hope that it will decrease over time.
Type III - Reactive Role Behaviour	Striving to improve the quality of role performance so that all demands can be better satisfied.
	Acceptance that role demands are unable to be altered.
	Passive or reactive orientation towards roles.
	Women using this strategy are often described as trying to be "super-mothers"

Hall (1972) explored coping strategies classified under the three types. Using a questionnaire and qualitative analytic methodology, Hall derived 16 coping strategies from information requested from research participants (See Appendix A).

Although not strictly a model of work-family coping, a theory developed by Folkman and Lazarus (1980) has been widely cited in the psychological literature and integrated into some work-family theory (e.g., Alpert & Culbertson, 1987; Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Aryee et al., 1999; Brink & de la Rey, 2001). The model refers to

two forms of coping behaviour: problem focused and emotion focused. Problem focused coping involves cognitive and behavioural efforts directed at changing the source of stress, while emotion focused coping is directed towards a person's own emotional reaction to the stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1987) applied Folkman and Lazarus's (1984) model to draw out various strategies which could be used in the work-family context. Possible problem focused strategies identified in the workplace were: changing the work environment to clarify performance expectations, seeking out practical help with demanding work tasks, and modifying levels of responsibility. Problem focused strategies, which centered around non-job roles, were: seeking support for household and child care responsibilities, negotiating a more suitable division of labor, eliminating some roles, and working to improve communication. Emotion-focused coping with work-family role conflict included mechanisms such as seeking out emotional support, redefining one's own performance standards, reassessing the importance of a person's job or career success, recognising one's own inability to achieve perfection across all roles, and prioritising. The authors also included a strategy of Symptom Management, which involves strategies that assist the person to maintain a healthy lifestyle while working to reduce excessive levels of stress and strain. Management techniques include the use of exercise, relaxation, and various forms of psychological focusing techniques (e.g., yoga, meditation).

A few attempts have been made to combine Hall's (1972) and Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theories to better describe women's coping behaviour in the work-family literature (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette 1987; Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Gilbert &

Holahan, 1982). Amatea and Fong-Beyette provided the most comprehensive approach to integrating the theories in an attempt to provide a more adequate conceptualisation of women's coping.

Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987) also selected coping concepts suggested by Billings and Moos (1981), further classifying coping in terms of whether the method used is active or passive. Active attempts to deal with stressors involve doing or thinking something to manage the problem, whereas passive attempts use avoidance behaviours to ignore or put off having to deal with the problem. Using the combination of the two models and Billings and Moos' concepts, the authors described four types of coping, which are detailed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Four Types of Coping Proposed by Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987)

Form of coping	Explanation	Example
Active Emotion Focused	Trying to see the positive side of the situation or drawing on past experience.	Reminding oneself of the benefits of all their roles.
Active Problem Focused	Attempts to resolve the problem through overt behavioural actions.	Trying to find out more about the situation in order to fix the problem.
Passive Emotion Focused	Reducing tension through the denial of the seriousness of the situation, suppression of negative feelings, and displacement of negative feelings on someone or something else.	Telling oneself that the problem will probably go away by itself, and if not it can be dealt with at a later date.
Passive Problem Focused (defense mechanism)	Attempts to avoid the problem.	Thinking about something else and pretending the problem doesn't exist.

The authors used these coping types to further develop and reorganise Hall's (1972) typology (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987). Professional females employed at an American university were involved in the research to develop the model (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987). Questionnaire responses were classified into 9 coping types including 17 coping strategies (See Appendix B). However there has been no published attempt by these authors, or other researchers, to apply the model in further research.

Limitations of Individual Work-Family Coping Taxonomies for Use in the Current Research

Because the models were developed in the 1970s and 1980s, they do not include more modern forms of coping behaviours. For example, organisational support (e.g., "family-friendly" policies, supervisory support, and work conditions) are not included in either model, but they are discussed in recent research articles (e.g., Caputo, 2000; Fredrikson & Scharlach, 1999; Golden, 2001). There has also been reference in current literature to employee role negotiation (Miller, Jablin, Casey, Lamphear-Van Horn, & Ethington, 1996; Miller, Johnson, Hart, & Peterson, 1999), which may be a more recent form of coping behaviour that extends to work-family issues. Role negotiation occurs when at least two people consciously communicate with the purpose of influencing and altering the others' expectations about their work role (Miller et al., 1996).

A second coping strategy not as widely explored in the literature is that of child-minding and home maintenance services. Although using external support services in the form of a babysitter is included by both authors in their coping models (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972), and external support services in the form of someone to help around the house in one model (Hall, 1972), additional resources such as home

maintenance services (e.g., gardener, housekeeper) and other forms of child-minding are not included. There are also other modes of care used by Australian families such as day care, family day care [registered provider who takes care of a small group of children in her home (Muller, 1999)], and before or after school care (ABS, 2002). Although "Formal Care" (child care provided by a party other than the parent's personal network) is not widely discussed in the literature, the Australian Bureau of Statistics reported that Formal Care is attended by 23% of Australian children (ABS, 2002). This is an increase of 20% since 1996, and as such it is unlikely that women would have used such a method of coping very frequently in the 1970s and early 1980s. Although some other forms of household assistance (e.g., gardener, housekeeper) are not widely discussed in the literature, they are mentioned in some of the recent coping literature (e.g., Muller, 1999).

Rather than presenting a coping taxonomy, Muller (1999) reported a number of domestic management strategies (Muller, 1999). These strategies support or extend the work of the earlier researchers, but also give support to the notion that a taxonomy of work-family coping will need to include more modern types of coping.

Management strategies (Muller, 1999) that are similar to concepts identified by Hall (1972) and Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987) include themes such as the division of domestic tasks between husband and wife, emotional partner support, the use of hired help, lifestyle such as relaxation and recreation, prioritising between roles, aspects of cognitive reappraisal, and planning and organising. Despite the similarities across the research, Muller commented on a number of strategies that are not reported in earlier research. These include more organisationally focused strategies such as selecting a career with flexible options, seeking out organisational support from the supervisor, and

negotiating working conditions (e.g., working from home, flexibility in work hours). The research also highlights other forms of support not strongly emphasised in the previous literature, such as practical assistance from the extended family, and emotional support from friends, particularly via telephone and email. The author also mentions more modern forms of childcare than babysitting such as childcare centers, kindergartens, and family day care.

Dual-Career/Earner Taxonomies of Work-Family Coping

A substantial amount of recent research has focused on dual-career families (e.g., Moen & Yu, 2000; Stanfield, 1998). From this literature there are four taxonomies of dual-career/earner work-family coping that detail coping strategies (i.e., Becker & Moen, 1999; Haddock et al., 2001; Skinner & McCubbin, 1981; Wiersma, 1994). Unlike individual models, dual-career/earner models of coping vary markedly. Some focus on strategic longer-term coping, others focus on day-to-day coping behaviours, and some include both (e.g., Wiersma, 1994). Although it is difficult to draw comparisons among the taxonomies, the dual-career models provide valuable information about work-family coping strategies relevant to the current research. This section briefly overviews relevant dual-career literature and makes comparisons with the individual work-family coping taxonomies.

Skinner and McCubbin (1981) developed a taxonomy of dual-career work-family coping, when developing a measure of work-family coping. It included four factors or coping patterns. These patterns are defined in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3

The Coping Patterns Represented on the Dual Employed Coping Scale (Skinner & McCubbin, 1981)

Coping pattern	Definition
Maintaining Family System	Behaviours focused on restructuring roles and maintaining the family system
Procurement of Support	Developing meaningful and supportive relationships outside the family, as well as securing outside support, goods, and services
Modifying Roles and Standards	Behaviours focused on attempting to accommodate work to family and family to work
Maintaining Perspective, Reducing Tension	Behaviours focused on reducing the perceived stress and demands of the present of the present situation, and believing in the value of the lifestyle

Two more recent taxonomies of dual-career work-family coping do not build on the earlier work of Skinner and McCubbin (1981), but use two different methodological approaches to arrive at two distinct models (i.e., Haddock et al., 2001; Wiersma, 1994). Haddock et al. used flyers and advertisements to attract participants and then conducted 90-minute semi-structured interviews to gather data. They then developed their model using a content analytic approach identifying concepts first, and then broader themes. Similarly, Wiersma (1994) conducted 24 interviews with males and females from dual-career couples. The Critical Incident Technique was used, which involved the participant recalling an incident in which they are asked to describe the circumstances, behavioural solutions applied, and the consequences of their actions. Data analysis involved categorising information into areas of conflict identified in a literature review.

Rather than looking generally at coping with role conflict, Wiersma (1994) developed his taxonomy based on six aspects of role conflict derived from past research (Rappaport & Rappaport, 1976). These included domestic chores, maintaining social relations, role cycling, competition, social pressure, and job mobility. Coping strategies were based on each aspect of role conflict. Haddock et al. by comparison used a qualitative interview methodology to identify adaptive strategies for work and family balance. The aspects of coping in both studies reflected every day problems (e.g., domestic chores) and more longer-term issues (e.g., role cycling, job mobility). This is in contrast to individual models of coping which mostly reflect every day problems.

The similarities between the strategies identified in the individual and dual-career taxonomies are identified in Table 2.4. Coping strategies that had similarities across a number of work-family coping taxonomies included cognitive reappraisal, various social support strategies, recreational activities, and strategies aimed at combating the problem itself.

Table 2.4

Thematic Similarities Across Individual and Dual-Career Work-Family Coping Taxonomies

Coping theme	Researchers identifying theme	Strategy indicating theme/aspects of theme
Cognitive Reappraisal	Hall (1972)	Personal Role Redefinition (Type II)
	Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	Cognitive Reappraisal
	Muller (1999)	Realism or Awareness
	Skinner & McCubbin (1981)	Maintaining Perspective and Reducing Tension
	Haddock et al. (2001)	Maintaining a sense of the bigger picture for the family
	Wiersma (1994)	Cognitive Reappraisal (referring to Domestic Chores only)

Table 2.4 Continued

Coping theme	Researchers identifying theme	Strategy indicating theme/aspects of theme
Partner, Friend, and Relative Support – practical and/or emotional	Hall (1972)	Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)
	Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	Social Support
	Muller (1999)	The division of domestic tasks between husband and wife, emotional partner support, practical assistance from the extended family, emotional support from friends
	Skinner & McCubbin (1981)	Procurement of Support
	Wiersma (1994)	Spending Time with Partner, Divide Chores amongst Family Members
	Haddock et al. (2001)	Striving for partnership
External Support Services	Hall (1972)	Structural Role Redefinition (Type I)
	Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	External Role Redefinition
	Muller (1999)	Use of hired help, childcare
	Skinner & McCubbin (1981)	Procurement of Support
	Wiersma (1990)	Hire Outside Help
Organisational Support	Muller (1999)	Selecting a career with flexible options and seeking out organisational support from the supervisor and in the form of working conditions
	Haddock et al. (2001)	Negotiating Work Limits with Employers
Recreation and Relaxation	Hall (1972)	Develop Own Interests
	Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	Tension Reduction
	Skinner & McCubbin (1981)	Maintaining Perspective and Reducing Tension.
	Muller (1999)	Lifestyle
	Haddock et al. (2001)	Striving for Partnership, Prioritising Family Fun
Prioritising	Hall (1972)	Personal Role Redefinition (Type II)
	Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	Internal Role Redefinition
	Muller (1999)	Prioritising between roles
	Haddock et al. (2001)	Prioritising
	Wiersma (1994)	Prioritising (with relevance to domestic chores only)
Planning and Time Management	Hall (1972)	Reactive Role Behaviour (Type III)
	Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	Increased Planful Role Behaviour
	Muller (1999)	Planning and organising
	Skinner & McCubbin (1981)	Maintaining Family System
	Haddock et al. (2001)	Valuing Time
Compartmentalism	Hall (1972)	Personal Role Redefinition (Type II)
	Skinner & McCubbin (1981)	Maintaining Family System
	Haddock et al. (2001)	Compartmentalism
Defense Mechanisms	Hall (1972)	Reactive Role Behaviour (Type III)
	Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	Reactive Role Behaviour & Intrapsychic Defense Response

Work-family Coping Measures in the Literature

Not only is there an absence of an up-to-date individual work-family coping taxonomy, a relevant measure also does not exist. Such a measure is critical to continued investigation in this area of research.

Each of the five work-family coping scales that have been reported in the literature (i.e., Gilbert & Holahan, 1982; Kirchmeyer, 1993; Lang & Markowitz, 1986; Schnittger & Bird, 1990; Skinner & McCubbin, 1981) have limitations when applied to contemporary samples. Most were published 10 or more years ago, or have been developed applying older literature such as Hall's (1972) coping typology. Second, many of the researchers developed their scales for their research purposes only and did not place an emphasis on the questionnaire development methodology. Some of the measures include scales with reliability estimates below .7, which is generally considered unreliable for research purposes (Nunnally, 1994). For example, Gilbert and Holahan reported scales with reliabilities of .59, .61, .63, and .69, while Kirchmeyer used scales with reliabilities of .39 and .46. Furthermore, most of the scales were not published in their entirety. With such limitations there is a need for a new measure of individual work-family coping. The following section reviews existing measures in more detail.

The most recent scale is that of Kirchmeyer (1993), who developed a 16-item scale for her research. The measure was based on Hall's (1972) coping typology. The scale was judged as not useful for the present research because two of the scales have poor internal consistency. A factor analysis of the measure revealed three main factors. Eight items loaded on the first factor, which the author labeled as Good Personal Organisation and Attitude. This factor had a reliability of .76 and included the following

items: concentrate on meaningful activities, overlap roles, establish personal priorities, separate roles, develop positive attitudes, consider demands fulfilling, increase efficiency, and work hard to do everything. The remaining factors had weak internal consistency (.46 and .39 respectively). Four items that loaded together included hire others, arrange with others, ask others, and rotate attention. Three items that loaded together included change others, reduce standards, and eliminate involvement. Factor names were not provided by the author.

A scale developed in 1982 by Holahan and Gilbert also included concepts from Hall's (1972) taxonomy. Questionnaires were firstly administered to undergraduates, and then to professional women, before being subjected to factor analyses. Nine scales consisting of 32 items emerged, including Perspective Taking, Problem-Solving, Recognition of Societal Influence, Expression of Feelings, Ask Others to Change, Lessen Self Demands, Calling Time Out, Depression, and Short-Term Tension Reduction. Five of Gilbert and Holahan's nine scales had Cronbach's alphas less than 0.7, rendering many of the scales unreliable for research purposes (Nunnally, 1994).

Table 2.5

Gilbert and Holahan's (1982) Scales of Work-Family Coping: Reliabilities and Examples

Scale	Reliability	Example item
Perspective-Taking	.76	I put things in perspective and focus on the big picture.
Problem-Solving	.63	I try to make sense of things on my own.
Recognition of Societal Influence	.61	I realise the role of society's expectations.
Expression of Feelings	.75	I express my feelings about things.
Ask others to Change	.72	I ask the other people involved to change their demands on me.
Lessen Self-Demands	.63	I lessen the demands on myself by changing what I expect of myself.
Calling Time Out	.59	I withdraw from the situation temporarily.
Depression	.69	I become depressed.
Short-Term Tension Reduction	.72	I exercise more.

Lang and Markowitz (1986) also developed their own scale to represent a modified version of Hall's (1972) taxonomy. Four factors emerged from a factor analysis. The reliabilities for each scale were all greater than .73, indicating sufficient internal reliability. The population used to develop the measure was 104 employed students who were mostly single. Such a sample is unlikely to be representative of a working population who live with other family members.

Table 2.6

Scales on the Lang and Markowitz (1986) Measure of Coping

Coping scale	Definition	Number of items	Example item
Cooperative Task Reduction	Role senders reduce demands, or other individuals doing some of the tasks	4	Got an extension of time by successfully negotiating with others
Unilateral Task Reduction	Reduce demands for performance, lessen quality, or leave some demands unmet	7	Decided not to do some of the things I'd planned to do
Reactive Task Management	Leaving the workload unchanged and employing strategies such as working harder, reducing tension, and giving up	15	Tried to meet all demands by doing everything expected of me
Planned Task Management	No definition provided by authors	2	Scheduled, organised, and planned very carefully

Skinner and McCubbin (1981) devised the most comprehensive measure of work-family coping, using a factor analytic approach. Four coping patterns emerged which are documented earlier (see Table 2.3). All reliabilities were estimated by the original authors to be above 0.7. However, as the measure was developed in 1981, coping patterns and corresponding items may not accurately reflect coping strategies used by current employed populations. For example, now outdated items such as "Using modern equipment (e.g., microwave oven, etc) to help out at home" are included in the scale.

Table 2.7

Skinner and McCubbin's (1981) Dual-Employed Coping Scales: Coping Patterns and Example Items

Coping pattern	Example items
Maintaining Family System	Deciding I will do housekeeping tasks at a regular time each week.
	Believing that my working has made me a better parent than I would otherwise be.
Procurement of Support	Eating out frequently
	Hiring help to care for the children
Modifying Roles and Standards	Using modern equipment (e.g., microwave oven, etc) to help out at home.
	Buying convenience foods that are easier to prepare at home.
Maintaining Perspective, Reducing Tension	Ignoring comments of how we "should" behave as men and women (e.g., women shouldn't work; men shouldn't clean house)
	Believing that we are good "role models" for our children by our both working.

Schnittger and Bird (1990) developed a coping measure for their research which incorporated concepts identified by Skinner and McCubbin (1981) and other work-family coping literature from the 1970s and 1980s (e.g., Bird & Bird, 1986; Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Rappaport & Rappaport, 1976). 44 items were subjected to a principal components analysis, with seven coping strategies emerging. As this scale was developed in 1981, and contained items that may not be relevant to a modern population, it was evaluated as being inappropriate for the present research.

Table 2.8

Coping Factors and Example Items on Schnittger and Bird's (1990) Work-Family Coping Scale

Coping factor	Example items
Cognitive Restructuring (Focusing on the advantages of the dual-career lifestyle)	Believing that our family life is better because both of us are employed.
	Believing that my career has made me a better wife/husband that I otherwise would be.
Delegating (delegating responsibilities such as household tasks and child care)	Delegating tasks to other family members.
	Encouraging our children to be more self-sufficient.
Limiting Avocational Activities (Limiting involvement in the community and cutting back on leisure activities)	Eliminating certain community activities.
	Cutting back on leisure activities.
Subordinating Career (Prioritising family over work)	Planning the time I spend at work.
	Planning career changes around family needs.
Compartmentalising	Making better use of time at work.
	Separating my work life from family life so I can concentrate my effort on one area at a time.
Avoiding Responsibility	Postponing certain tasks until the pressure to do them subsides.
	Finding legitimate excuses to keep from fulfilling obligations I dislike.
Using Social Support (Relying on family members for encouragement and making friends with other dual-career couples – includes both emotional and instrumental support)	Arranging for childcare so my husband/wife and I can spend time together.
	Relying on extended family members for support and encouragement.

This brief review has sought to indicate that none of the measures reported in the literature is adequate for use with contemporary samples, either because of item content

or psychometric shortcomings. The development of a new measure was therefore considered an important requirement of the research program.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has introduced the concepts of work-family conflict and coping and the importance of work-family coping research. Dual-career/earner and individual taxonomies were summarised, and main coping themes in the literature were identified. Existing work-family coping measures were also reviewed.

The literature review presented in this chapter enabled areas for development to be identified. More research into individual work-family coping strategies and their effectiveness is required. Such research needs to include both men and women from a variety of job types (e.g., professional, blue-collar) and family structures (e.g., married, single parent). Future research would also be facilitated by the development of a new taxonomy and quantitative measure of work-family coping.

CHAPTER 3: WORK-FAMILY COPING AND GENDER DIFFERENCES

Chapter Overview

This chapter explores what is known about gender differences in the use and effectiveness of individual work-family coping strategies. It highlights the importance of such research and provides a review of the relevant work-family literature. It is argued that while there appears to be gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping, further research is required for a more thorough investigation.

The Importance of Evaluating Gender Differences in the Effectiveness and Use of Work-Family Coping Strategies

Voydanoff (2002) proposed that work-family coping strategies are effective in three different ways: preventing the work-family conflict from occurring or continuing, providing a therapeutic response to work-family role strain caused by conflict, and buffering the relationship between conflict and outcomes. Many strategies are also thought to have "feedback effects" in that they can modify work or family characteristics so that work-family conflict is reduced and role balance is enhanced. For example, reducing work hours may facilitate the improvement of the family role for an employee.

Despite the suggestion that work-family coping strategies reduce the negative effects of work-family conflict (Cohen & Wills, 1985; McCubbin & Patterson, 1982), the effectiveness of work-family coping strategies is not well explored in the literature (Aryee et al., 1999; Moen & Yu, 2000; Paden & Buehler, 1995). The research to date has focused on simply cataloging work-family coping strategies in taxonomies or models (Frone, 2003) and these were reviewed in Chapter 2. Such research does not include an

understanding of strategies, and whether they are in fact effective in producing positive outcomes.

A specific gap in the research is that of gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping strategies. A thorough investigation of this question is critical if research is to inform individuals and their families, organisations, and health professionals about what can be done to lessen the negative consequences of work-family conflict and improve well-being. Although the literature does not include an investigation of gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping, many studies indicate that men and women have differing work-family experiences (e.g., Higgins et al., 1994; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). Such differences may lead to differing work-family coping behaviours.

Gender differences in the use of work-family coping and gender differences in their effectiveness have thus far been studied separately in the literature. It is argued here that these concepts should be studied together. From a practical standpoint, there is little value in identifying that certain strategies are effective for women and other strategies are effective for men without assessing the relative use of these strategies. For example, Organisational Support may be found to be very effective in predicting job satisfaction for both genders, but men may be using this strategy significantly less frequently than women. Such a finding might suggest the need to provide additional support services to men, or to train male employees in seeking such support. As such, the current research aims to assess gender differences in both the use and effectiveness of work-family coping strategies.

Because researchers to date have studied these concepts separately, this chapter separates the sections on coping strategy effectiveness and coping strategy use.

Gender Differences in the use of Work-Family Coping Strategies

Studies on gender differences in the use of individual work-family coping strategies are sparse (Skues & Kirby, 1995). This is in contrast to the abundance of research in the wider psychological literature that tends to indicate gender differences in various forms of coping (e.g., Hobfall et al., 1994; Porter, Marco, Schwartz, & Neale, 2000; Ptacek, Smith, & Dodge, 1994). Nevertheless, a small amount of literature indicates that there are likely to be gender differences in the coping strategies that men and women use to manage their work-family conflict (e.g., Schnittger & Bird, 1990). The majority of such research does not include an investigation of gender differences in the effectiveness of coping strategies.

Apart from the small amount of literature addressing gender differences, men's individual coping behaviours have been largely ignored, possibly because of the assumption that work-family conflict is a women's issue (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001). Although men have been included in research over the past decade, studies have focused on the coping behaviours of dual-career/earner couples rather than men as individuals (e.g., Stanfield, 1998; Wiersma, 1994). The lack of research contrasts with the growing interest in fatherhood (Berry & Rao, 1997) and recent evidence which indicates that men may be as likely as women to experience work-family conflict (Hill et al., 2001).

An early study based on Hall's (1972) typology found that there were differences in the types of work-family coping strategies used by individuals (Gilbert & Holahan,

1982). Using a female only sample, the authors developed a work-family coping measure using a factor analytic methodology. This measure was reviewed in Chapter 2 (see p. 28-29). The scale was then administered to a small sample (28 males and 57 females) of older-than-average students at a State university. Females reported a higher endorsement of emotion-focused strategies than men, including Depression, Expression of Feelings, Perspective-Taking, Recognition of Societal Influences, and Asking Others to Change. The authors suggested that the first three strategies are likely to reflect women's socialisation, in that women are encouraged to express their feelings and emotions. They further suggested that the remaining two strategies are indicative of the current changes in attitude to men's and women's roles, and women's awareness of this. Although this study was conducted over 20 years ago, gender differences and Gilbert and Holahan's explanations of them may still be relevant in modern society.

Later research by Kirchmeyer (1993) also applied Hall's (1972) typology to her work-family coping and gender research. However, the findings were different from those of Gilbert and Holahan (1982) in that men and women reported essentially the same use of coping strategies. Included in the research were 143 male and 78 female managers who completed a battery of questionnaires, including a coping strategy measure developed by the author (Kirchmeyer, 1993). This measure was reviewed in Chapter 2 (see p. 27-28). Although there were no significant differences between the genders on coping strategy use, there is some question about the interpretability of such results on two of the factors with less than adequate reliability (The factors were not named but see p. 27-28 for items on these factors). It is also noted that differences between the two studies in terms of coping strategy use and gender differences may have been attributable

to the samples. Gilbert & Holahan's sample consisted of students, and Kirchmeyer's was managers.

Other research has moved away from Hall's (1972) typology and demonstrated gender differences on more specific work-family coping strategies. Schnittger and Bird (1990) applied a work-family coping measure adapted for their research to provide evidence that women use a greater range of strategies than do men. The measure included the coping scales of Cognitive Restructuring, Delegating, Limiting Avocational Activities, Subordinating Career, Compartmentalising, Avoiding Responsibility, and Using Social Support (see Table 2.8 for example items). The finding that women use a greater range of strategies than do men is also mirrored by Paden and Buehler (1995). While their research focus was the effectiveness of work family coping, they determined that wives used four of the five coping mechanisms more often than their husbands. The authors determined that women coped significantly more often than did men by using the strategies of Delegating, Social Support, Cognitive Restructuring, and Limiting Avocational Activities. Although Delegating was the strategy used most frequently by men and women, females used it significantly more often. The authors suggested that Delegating is more likely to be used by women because they still take primary responsibility for the home and family roles. It is the female who is more likely to implement task delegation and sharing. Such propositions are supported by other literature (e.g., Bird et al., 1984; Pleck, 1985). The authors also suggested that Cognitive Restructuring (changing perceptions and attitudes toward role expectations) and Limiting Avocational Activities are more likely to be used by women in order to validate their multiple roles. Such women are likely to receive social disapproval for choosing to work

full time and be a parent. Earlier literature is consistent with this view (e.g., Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis & Gruin, 1986; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978).

Using emotional and instrumental social support, which includes relying on family members for encouragement and making friends with other two-career couples, is also thought by Schnittger and Bird (1990) to be predominantly a female strategy. The authors suggested that females use the strategy because the dual-career lifestyle challenges traditional role expectations. Women seek out support to cope with and normalise their behaviours. The suggestion that women are likely to employ social support strategies more readily than men is consistent with a large amount of literature on social support in both the organisational, counselling, and clinical literature (e.g., Bird & Bird, 1986; Greenglass, 2002; Rappaport & Rappaport, 1976).

Research conducted using a support-seeking inventory is consistent with the finding that women use social support more readily than do men. The Proactive Coping Inventory (PCI) consists of two core forms of coping: Instrumental or Emotional Support Seeking (Greenglass, 2002). Instrumental Support Seeking includes obtaining advice, information, and feedback from individuals within the social network, whereas emotional support seeking regulates emotional distress by discussing feelings, seeking empathy, and friendship. The only component of Instrumental Support Seeking identified by other authors (e.g., Muller, 1999) that is not included in the scales is practical assistance from the social network (e.g., minding children). Research using the PCI indicates that women use both instrumental and emotional support seeking significantly more often than men. Thus, when coping with stress, women are more likely than men to seek advice and information, practical assistance, and emotional support from their social network. Such a

finding is consistent with the gender role socialisation of women who are taught and expected to be more sensitive than men and relate well to others (Greenglass, 2002).

Research Hypotheses – Gender Differences in the use of Work-Family Coping Strategies

The sparse amount of literature investigating gender differences in the use of work-family coping strategies makes it difficult to identify specific hypotheses. This is also compounded by the variety in the coping measures used. Nevertheless, the hypotheses documented below are generated as far as possible on the review of literature. Hypotheses relating to gender differences in the effectiveness of work-family coping strategies will be outlined later in this chapter. More specific hypotheses for the use and effectiveness of work-family coping will be provided in Chapter 6. These more specific hypotheses will be based on the literature reviewed in Chapters 1 to 3, but will be made relevant to the findings in the initial studies. The hypotheses based on the literature review are listed here along with a brief argument for each.

Hypothesis 1. Women use work-family coping strategies to a greater extent than men. In the studies reviewed it was found that women reported greater coping strategy use than did men. In no study have men been reported to use coping strategies more frequently than women.

Hypothesis 2. Women seek practical and emotional social support to a greater extent than men.

In the studies reviewed it was found that women reported using practical and emotional support strategies more than did men. Examples include Expression of Feelings, Asking Others to Change (Gilbert & Holahan, 1982), and Delegating (Paden & Buehler, 1995).

Hypothesis 3. Women use strategies that involve actively changing or modifying their cognitions to a greater extent than men.

A number of the studies report the use of a strategy that involves changing or modifying cognitions. The studies suggest that women use these types of strategy more frequently than men, for example, Perspective-Taking (Gilbert & Holahan, 1982) and Cognitive Restructuring (Paden & Buhler, 1995).

Hypothesis 4. Women use Recognition of Societal Influences to a greater extent than men.

One of the studies found that women used Recognition of Societal Influences more frequently than men (Gilbert & Holahan, 1982). However, this coping strategy was not defined or described in any further detail. The paper implies that the strategy involves women recognising how societal pressures impact on their attitudes towards being working mothers, and separating others viewpoints from their own.

Hypothesis 5. Women use Limiting Avocational Activities to a greater extent than men. One of the studies found that women used Limiting Avocational Activities more frequently than men (Paden & Buehler, 1995). This strategy involves the person reducing his or her involvement in community or leisure activities in an effort to spend more time on their work and family demands.

Gender Differences in the Effectiveness of Work-Family Coping Strategies

The next section in this chapter reviews the literature on the effectiveness of work-family coping and gender differences. It consists of two parts. The first component reviews early literature, mainly applying Hall's (1972) typology, that demonstrated that some strategies seem to be more effective for women, Type III (Reactive Role Behaviour) (see p. 18) or defense mechanisms are ineffective, and that certain methodological and conceptual issues need to be considered in any further research. The second part reviews more recent literature. It demonstrates that while a small amount of research indicates gender differences in work-family coping strategies, much of the research still focuses on women, and lacks the application of a modern coping taxonomy.

The Effectiveness of Work-Family Coping Strategies for women using Hall's (1972) Typology

A number of early research papers applied Hall's (1972) typology to assess the relative effectiveness of coping types on various outcome measures. These studies were mostly restricted to samples of female professionals. Nevertheless, such early studies provide some insight into the following: strategies that resemble defense mechanisms are typically unsuccessful, and some specific strategies seem to be more important than others for women.

Coping strategy effectiveness for women using Hall's (1972) typology has been evaluated in a variety of ways. The most common of these is assessing the individual's satisfaction with the coping strategies they use (e.g., Gilbert et al., 1981; Gray, 1983; Hall, 1972; Shachar & Gilbert, 1983) or by assessing their overall life satisfaction (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987). Other measures of effectiveness have included self-esteem (Shachar & Gilbert, 1983), intensity of work-family conflict (Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble, & Zellman, 1978), and satisfaction with the mothering role (Harrison & Minor, 1984). In all cases the assumption is that an effective strategy is one that leads to (or is at least correlated with) an increase in satisfaction or a decrease in conflict.

The majority of early research employed a qualitative questionnaire method, which included open-ended questions regarding role conflict and coping strategies (e.g., Shachar & Gilbert, 1983). Content analysis was the typical mode of data analysis in which Hall's (1972) types were applied. The analysis for most studies also involved two raters, which thus provided a level of inter-coder reliability. However, such processes were not described in detail. Outcome measures were assessed by either a single question or a Likert scale. Such methodologies mirror the process that Hall used in his original 1972 analysis.

The Ineffectiveness of Hall's Type III Strategies

Most of the early research determined that Hall's (1972) Type I strategies, or a combination of Type I and Type II strategies, were rated by participants as being the most effective (e.g., Gray, 1983; Hall, 1972; Schachar & Gilbert, 1983) (see p. 18 for a definition of Hall's 1972 coping types). Although this research typically found that Hall's Type III strategies were rated as ineffective (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Beutell

& Greenhaus, 1983), a small number of studies reported that in some situations Type III strategies were the most endorsed by participants (e.g., Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Harrison & Minor, 1978), or that there was no difference in the effectiveness of the strategies (e.g., Gilbert et al., 1981).

Studies that endorsed either Type I or a combination of Type I and Type II strategies have typically also reported the ineffectiveness of Type III strategies in predicting more positive responses on outcome measures (e.g., Hall, 1972; Schachar & Gilbert, 1983). Such a finding indicates that the most effective coping strategy for married women entails "actively altering incoming demands while at the same time not actively changing one's role performance" (Burke & Greenglass, 1987, p. 298). Hall suggested that Type I coping may be the most superior strategy as it allows for a "win-win" outcome. A win-win outcome is one in which the satisfaction of neither the recipient nor the sender of the role demand (e.g., husband, employer) is compromised. Strategies that benefit all parties are likely to have the most enduring effects. An example is when a mother negotiates to leave work early to pick up her son from school, but takes some work home to complete while her son is occupied with his homework. In this manner, the needs of both the mother and the employer are being met adequately. Hall also suggested that a person using such strategies is able to act on the aspects of her identity that are most salient to her by prioritising her role activities and negotiating effectively with role senders.

Contrary to expectations, not all studies using Hall's (1972) typology found that Type I and Type II strategies were more effective than Type III. Gilbert et al.(1981) combined Type I and Type II behaviours and labeled them Role Redefinition. Using a

questionnaire, respondents were asked to describe conflicts between their professional and maternal roles, as well as how they dealt with the conflict. They also rated themselves in terms of their self-esteem, professional life role satisfaction, and maternal life role satisfaction. Two coders independently rated the coping responses in terms of Role Redefinition (combination of Type I and II) and Role Expansion (defined as "meeting all the role demands experienced") (Gilbert et al., 1981, p. 421). The results indicated that neither strategy was more effective in predicting self-reports of coping effectiveness. However, it is unclear from the paper what information was provided to the raters about the differences between the strategies. One limitation of this study may be that the definition of Type III coping provided to coders does not adequately describe all of Hall's Type III strategies.

Harrison and Minor (1984) found that the effectiveness of certain strategies depended on whether a mother is married or single. The authors reported that married mothers were more likely to use Type II coping, whereas single mothers were more likely to use Type III coping, and that there were no significant interactions between marital status and coping strategy on satisfaction with the mother role or worker role. Such a finding indicates that women with different roles may require different work-family coping strategies to enhance role satisfactions. This finding may also be relevant when addressing gender. As men and women have differing roles and role identities, it is possible that effective work-family coping strategies will differ depending on gender.

The Effectiveness of more Specific Coping Strategies for Women

Rather than focusing solely on the coping types (Hall, 1972), two early studies indicated that there were more specific work-family coping strategies, which may be

more successful than others for women (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Gray, 1983). However, both research papers seemed to be more exploratory, rather than aiming to present findings based on rigorous methods. Both research projects employed a questionnaire to gather qualitative data regarding which coping strategies were used, followed by simple statistical analyses to further investigate the effectiveness of strategies. The outcome measure used in both studies was the perceived effectiveness of coping strategy used. Gray also conducted a follow-up interview.

Strategies found by Gray (1983) to have a positive relationship with satisfaction for women were having Family Members Share Household Tasks, Reducing Standards within Roles, Scheduling and Organising, Having Family Members Help Resolve Role Conflicts, and Considering Personal Interests Important. Ineffective strategies included Eliminating Roles, Keeping Roles Entirely Separate, Attempting to Meet the Expectations of All, Overlapping Roles, and having No Conscious Strategies to deal with role conflicts. Additional information from a small number of follow-up interviews indicated additional strategies that were linked with satisfaction. These included having Emotional Support from Significant Others, Avoiding Competition with the Husband, Hiring Household Help, Being Determined to Succeed, and having an Optimistic Outlook.

Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987) found that while there were statistically significant differences in reported satisfaction among the women using the different coping strategies, there were only small numbers of respondents (ranging from 1 to 39) for the categories. Nevertheless, the authors noted that the highest levels of satisfaction were reported from women using active response strategies that involved others (i.e.,

Social Support and External Role Redefinition), whereas the lowest levels of satisfaction were reported by respondents using Type III or Reactive Role Behaviour (or defense mechanisms).

Both studies provide an early indication that for women some work-family coping strategies may be more effective than others. Although a number of effective strategies were mentioned by the authors of both studies, gaining support from others was found to be most critical for women when coping effectively with work-family conflict. In contrast, both authors agreed that passive attempts to work harder and faster, having no conscious strategy at all, and trying to please everyone are ineffective. Such a finding regarding ineffective coping behaviours supports previous arguments that such strategies do not assist people to cope with work-family conflict.

Although the early research demonstrated that certain work-family coping behaviours may be more effective than others for women, none of this research included males in the participant samples. The more recent research on coping effectiveness, which is discussed in the next section, has provided some indication that gender differences are likely to exist.

Work-Family Coping Strategy Effectiveness – More Recent Research

More recent research has begun to assess the effectiveness of work-family coping strategies in a variety of ways. However, support is mixed for the effectiveness of such strategies in combating the negative outcomes of work-family conflict (Kirchmeyer, 2002), and very few research papers have extended their research to investigate gender differences. A variety of coping strategies have been applied in the literature, which is most likely due to the lack of a respected modern taxonomy of work-family coping.

Authors have used problem and emotion-focused concepts (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), Hall's (1972) taxonomy, and coping concepts and scales that they developed themselves. The result is that it is difficult to compare and contrast outcomes across studies.

Matsui, Ohsawa, and Onglatco (1995) used only one of Hall's (1972) types, Structural Role Redefinition (Type I), and the authors identified two forms of it. Work Role Redefinition consists of women consulting with supervisors to change the content or the nature of their work in order to have the work role accommodate the family role. Family Role Redefinition involves women removing some domestic duties in order to have the family-role accommodate the work role. The assessment of coping strategy effectiveness was a part of larger research that included 131 Japanese full-time female employees. Coping strategy effectiveness was determined by assessing the buffering relationship between work-family conflict and life strain. Coping strategies were assessed by two scales developed by the authors to assess Structural Role Redefinition. Scale items are outlined in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Research Items used by Matsui et al. (1995)

Scale	Items provided by the authors
Work Role Redefinition	Altering work activities to meet family roles; for example, asking the supervisor to change the contents or the way of work and so forth.
	Changing the expectations of members of the workplace that you cannot accomplish the work activities as fully as would a single woman and so forth.
Family Role Redefinition	Removing some domestic activities; for example, hiring a housemaid to delegate a part of domestic chores and so forth.
	Changing the expectations of the family members about your domestic activities; for example, persuading the family members that you cannot accomplish domestic activities as fully as would a full-time homemaker.

Family-Role Redefinition was found to be used significantly more often and more effectively than Work-Role Redefinition. Although the relevance of such a finding to Australian women is questionable, it may indicate that women use home-related strategies more often and more effectively as they have greater control at home than they do at work.

While Matsui et al. (1995) conducted the only recent study applying aspects of Hall's (1972) typology, a few studies have applied other coping strategies and outcome measures to assess relative effectiveness and fewer still included an assessment of gender differences. Aryee et al. (1999) investigated the moderating effects of problem and emotion-focused coping for dual-earner men and women living in Hong-Kong. The authors hypothesised that these two forms of coping would moderate the effects of overload and interrole conflict and result in higher levels of job, family, and life satisfaction. The authors also investigated partner support but only as a moderator between work and parental overload and interrole conflict. The rationale for the research

was that a lack of institutionalised supports had resulted in employees having to devise their own work-family strategies, and there was little research on the effectiveness of such strategies in mitigating the negative effects of work-family conflict on aspects of well-being. While the study is relevant to the present research, comparisons should be made with caution due to social differences between Hong Kong and Western cultures.

The authors used a reliable 8-item measure of problem and emotion-focused coping (e.g., “Tried to be organised so I could get on top of things”, “Tried to see the positive side of the situation”) that was developed for the study based on previous research. Outcome measures consisted of reliable scales from the literature. Facets of coping were not found to operate in the same way when moderating the relationship between interrole conflict and well-being (Aryee et al., 1999). The ability to regulate distressing emotions resulting from the appraisal of stressors (emotion-focused coping) and attempts to remove or reduce negative impacts of a stressor (problem-focused coping) positively influenced job and family satisfaction. However, only emotion-focused coping positively impacted on life satisfaction. One explanation provided for this finding was that problem-focused coping strategies are more effective when a person feels that he or she has some control over the situation. Such a strategy can be better directed toward specific strategies. Emotion-focused strategies additionally help to reduce stress in areas that cannot be readily controlled.

The authors identify a number of limitations of their research including the broad nature of the two types of coping behaviour (Aryee et al., 1999). They suggest that future research could include more specific forms of emotion-focused and problem-focused coping strategies. Additional limitations not identified by the authors, but relevant to the

current research, are that gender differences were not investigated, and that the coping strategies examined were not specific to work-family research.

These limitations specific to the present research were also reflected in a more recent study on work-family coping style effectiveness. Rotondo et al., (2003) investigated the effectiveness of four coping styles in lowering four dimensions of work-family conflict. They found that coping styles differ in their effectiveness when predicting four aspects of work-family conflict. Although gender differences were not investigated, this finding is relevant to the current research as it provides recent evidence that certain types of coping styles do affect different outcomes.

The four coping styles assessed were Direct Action, Help-Seeking, Positive Thinking, and Avoidance Resignation (Rotondo et al., 2003). These styles were not specific to work-family coping research as they were based on work done by Folkman and Lazarus (1984). The four dimensions of work-family conflict were time-based family interference with work (not having enough time to meet work demands due to family demands), time-based interference with family (not having enough time to meet work demands due to family demands), strain-based family interference with work (not being able to meet work demands due to family-related strain), and strain-based work interference with family (not being able to meet family demands due to work-related strain).

Using a sample of 173 male and female full-time employees from a variety of organisations, participant's coping styles and work-family conflict were assessed via a questionnaire (Rotondo et al., 2003). Stepwise hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for each dependent variable (the four aspects of work-family conflict). The

findings demonstrated that the styles of coping are not equally effective in managing work-family conflict. The results are summarised in Table 3.2. It should be noted that, although gender differences were not analysed, the authors reported that work-family conflict scores were significantly higher for women. Gender was partialled out in the first step of the hierarchical regression analyses.

Table 3.2

The Effect of Four Coping Styles on Aspects of Work-Family Conflict

Coping style	Effect on work-family conflict
Help-seeking coping style used at home	Lower FIW conflict levels
Direct-action coping style used at home	Lower time and strain based FIW conflict
Avoidance/resignation coping style used at work	Higher WIF conflict
Avoidance/resignation coping style used at home	Higher FIW conflict
Positive-thinking coping style	No effect on work-family conflict

Paden and Buehler (1995) conducted research that investigated the effectiveness of more specific work-family coping strategies, as well as gender differences. Using an adapted version of a dual-career work-family coping scale (Schnittger & Bird, 1990) reviewed in Chapter 2, the authors assessed the moderating effects of work-family coping strategies on physical symptoms and emotional affect. Outcome measures included physical symptomology within the last month (e.g., nervousness, allergies, moody spells, back pain) and emotional affect, using the Bradburn Affect Balance Scale (Bradburn cited in Paden & Buhler, 1995). Coping strategies included Planning, Seeking Support

through Talking, Withdrawing, Cognitive Restructuring, and Limiting Job Responsibilities. Examples of items provided by the authors are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Example Items from Paden and Buehler's (1995) Research

Coping strategy	Example items provided by authors
Planning	Making definite plans for organising and accomplishing necessary tasks
Seeking Support through Talking	Seeking understanding from someone
Withdrawing	Postponing certain tasks until the pressure to do them subsides
Cognitive Restructuring	Remembering that I have handled similar problems in the past
Limiting Job Responsibilities	Limiting my involvement on the job

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the moderating effects of coping on the relationship between role overload and role conflict, on the one hand, and physical symptomology and emotional affect on the other. The data for husbands and wives were separately analysed. The findings indicated that coping strategies moderated the relationships between role overload and role conflict on physical symptomology and emotional affect (Paden & Buehler, 1995). Furthermore, the research found that specific coping variables moderated the effects of role overload and role conflict differently for men and women. Cognitive Restructuring had the most pervasive moderating effects. The relevant results are summarised in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

The Moderating Effects of Coping for Men and Women on Physical Symptomology and Emotional Affect

Coping strategy	Males	Females
Planning	No significant effect	Buffered the influence of role overload and role conflict on physical symptomology and emotional affect
Social Support by Talking	Exacerbated the effects of role overload on positive affect	No significant effect
Withdrawing	Buffered effect of role conflict on physical symptomology	No significant effect
Cognitive Restructuring	Buffered the relationship between role conflict and physical symptomology	Buffered the influence of role overload and role conflict on physical symptomology and emotional affect
Limiting Job Responsibilities	No significant effect	No significant effect

The study provided a clear indication that gender differences exist in coping strategy effectiveness. Some information was provided by the authors to explain unexpected results. While it was expected that Cognitive Restructuring and Planning would be effective strategies, the finding that Withdrawing was effective for men was unexpected (Paden & Buehler, 1995). The authors cited research to suggest that, with the help of a supportive wife, Withdrawing may help husbands to “return to normal” after a difficult day at work. Although such a strategy may assist in the short term, it is likely to affect the marriage negatively in the long term (Gottman, 1994).

It was also a surprise that Social Support by Talking exacerbated the effects of role overload on positive affect for men. By way of explanation the authors noted that social interaction can also be a source of stress because not all interactions will be positive. Men tend not to be as comfortable or experienced as women when it comes to communication, and therefore such interactions may not be beneficial (Thoits, 1991). Furthermore, while the authors did not include the questions on the Social Support scale, their definition implies that the scale was based on emotional support concepts (e.g., communicating, empathising, supporting to reduce stress). Men may be more likely than women to benefit from more practical forms of support provided by their partner or others, including friends or the organisation for which they work.

The authors noted that Limiting Job Responsibilities was not greatly used by the participants to combat role strain (Paden & Buehler, 1995). They suggested that spouses with young children, in particular, are reluctant to use such a strategy for fear of being viewed as uncommitted employees. Earlier research has suggested that mothers with young children are unlikely to reduce either their work or their family roles (Schnittger & Bird, 1990).

Paden & Buehler (1995) concluded by suggesting that future research should further consider comparisons between husbands' and wives' role strain, coping, and emotional well-being.

Earlier research also applied a coping strategy measure to determine the effectiveness of two coping strategies for men and women: Role Reduction and Cognitive Restructuring (Guelzow, Bird, & Koball, 1991). The data were collected in 1986 from 163 women and 149 men, all college educated and in dual-career marriages. The

researchers conducted a path analysis to determine the impact of a number of factors, including the two coping strategies, on distress, which was measured using items referring to emotional stress and physical symptomology. The emotional stress items representing professional, marital, and parental roles were derived from a review of the literature. Example items were not included. An existing measure of physical distress was also used. Examples included asking participants how often during the past week they had experienced difficulty falling or staying asleep, changes in normal appetite, and tension-related aches and pains. Coping strategies were assessed using items from two scales of a measure developed by Schnittger and Bird (1990). An example item for Cognitive Restructuring is: "Believing there are more advantages than disadvantages to our lifestyle". An example item for Role Reduction is: "Cutting back on leisure activities".

The results indicated differences in the effectiveness of the coping strategies for men and women (Guelzow et al., 1991). More frequent use of Cognitive Restructuring was found to be related to lower marital, professional, and parental stress for men, lower professional stress for women, and lower physical distress for both. However, the authors noted that such coping responses did not significantly reduce the impact of role strain. For example, Cognitive Restructuring was useful to female participants only when role strain was low.

Consistent with Paden and Buehler (1995), such a finding indicates that Cognitive Restructuring is a critical coping component when managing work-family stress. This was particularly relevant to men in the earlier study who had achieved reduced stress across a number of different roles when using this strategy. Furthermore, Role Reduction

strategies in both studies did not appear to be a particularly effective strategy for mitigating work-family stress. As shown by Paden and Buehler's findings, there are gender differences in coping strategy effectiveness. While Cognitive Restructuring is related to reduced stress for men across all facets, it is only effective for women in mitigating professional role stress and physical distress. The authors concluded that future research should include additional coping strategies because omission of influential variables could lead to spurious outcomes.

Only one of the studies directly measuring coping strategy effectiveness included any measure of social support. Other research has, however, considered this factor.

Social Support as a Coping Resource

Cohen and Wills (1985) presented a model linking stress and well-being. A critical component of the model is that the presence of social support is expected to play a significant role in reducing the impact of work-family conflict on well-being. Social support has received considerable research attention in the work-family coping literature, despite the relative neglect of other coping resources. Two forms of social support are usually distinguished: emotional and instrumental or practical. Emotional support is defined as "the perceived availability of thoughtful, caring individuals with whom one can share personal thoughts and feelings". Instrumental or practical support is defined as "the tangible or direct assistance received from others" (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999, p. 103). Although there are a number of different forms of social support, there has been a research has emphasised forms of partner support (Instrumental and Emotional) and forms of organisational support (e.g., Supervisory Support, Work Conditions, Family-Friendly Policy).

There are subtle differences in the ways in which Social Support has been measured. Consistent with the Cohen and Wills (1985) model, the majority of research has assessed whether well-being is enhanced by actually having social support (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999; Matsui et al., 1995). Fewer research papers have investigated whether well-being is related to an individual seeking out social support (e.g., Paden & Buhler, 1995). The current research focused on seeking out social support as a coping strategy, rather than simply having social support. This is consistent with the coping strategies identified in individual work-family coping models developed by Hall (1972) and Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987).

While there is a great deal of literature consistently emphasising the importance and benefits of having forms of social support (e.g., Aryee et al., 1998; Greenberger & O'Neil, 1993; Perrewe & Carlson, 2002; Warren & Johnson, 1995), few studies actually address the link between seeking out forms of social support and well-being. For the purposes of the present research, emotional support is "an employee's efforts to seek out thoughtful, caring individuals with whom one can share personal thoughts and feelings". Instrumental support is "an employee's efforts to seek out tangible or direct assistance from others" (Paden & Buehler, 1995).

Despite the lack of research on the relationship between seeking out support and well-being, it is still to be expected that individuals who actively seek out social support are more likely to both gain access and benefit from it. As women are more likely than men to seek out social support, and tend to be more effective communicators (Paden & Buehler, 1995), women may benefit more readily from such a strategy. However, there is no direct evidence to support the inference. Alternatively, if some forms of support are

unavailable to women, then seeking them out may result in frustration. For example, some women may require more extensive organisational support when they have young children. However, if such forms of support are unavailable to them, seeking out organisational support may result in higher levels of job dissatisfaction. In fact, there is some evidence to suggest that men receive more support than women in the workplace (Perrewe & Carlson, 2002).

A recent study showed that gender differences exist in the impact of social support on aspects of life satisfaction (Perrewe & Carlson, 2002). While this study focused on individuals actually having support, it may still provide some indication as to what strategies may be most effective for men and women. Perrewe and Carlson noted that, while it is clear that there are positive benefits to social support, little research has examined gender differences in the benefits of seeking out social support. They proposed that gender was likely to impact on the extent to which social support mitigates work-family conflict, resulting in enhanced life satisfaction. To test their proposal, the authors examined the moderating role of gender in the relationship of social support with conflict and life role satisfactions.

A series of hierarchical multiple regressions indicated that, whereas men were more likely to report social support in the family domain, women benefited more than men from both work and family support (Perrewe & Carlson, 2002). Support at work resulted in greater increases in work satisfaction for women than for men. Women were more satisfied with their work environment when they received workplace support. However, social support at home resulted in greater increases in family satisfaction for women than for men. The relevance of these findings in the context of the current

research is that, given workplace or family support is available, seeking out such support may be more effective for women than for men in achieving greater satisfaction. The authors suggested that women are better able to use social support. Conversely, if such support is unavailable to women then seeking out forms of support may be frustrating and disheartening which may result in low satisfaction. Among other recommendations, the authors proposed that more research be conducted on how different sources of support (e.g., supervisor, spouse, children) may differentially affect males and females.

Conclusions from the Coping Effectiveness Research

It is difficult to draw firm conclusions from the coping effectiveness research because of the different outcome measures and coping strategies used. This lack of consistency seems at least partially driven by the absence of an appropriate work-family coping taxonomy on which to base research. Even research using the same coping scale or model has focused on different aspects of coping, or has modified the model itself prior to the investigation (e.g., Guelzow et al., 1991; Paden & Buehler, 1995). Consistency was evident only in the early research applying Hall's (1972) typology.

The conclusions that can be reached from the literature are that (a) there are gender differences in the effectiveness of work-family coping strategies, and (b) women find some strategies more effective than others. More tentative conclusions are, first, that coping strategies that resemble defense mechanisms (e.g., Hall's Type III strategies) are likely to be ineffective in influencing well-being. In some cases they may even be detrimental to an individual's well-being. Second, a number of strategies do seem to enhance well-being for men and women. Early research indicated the effectiveness of Type I and Type II strategies, but such strategies are very broad and conclusions about

more specific aspects of the coping types cannot be made. For example, is support from an employee's partner more effective than support from friends in promoting an aspect of life satisfaction? Although some research did highlight the importance of instrumental and emotional support for women, no male samples were included in the early research and therefore no gender comparisons were made. Later research did include gender comparisons and it seems likely that, while there were similarities, gender differences were more marked in what and how strategies were effective. Cognitive Restructuring features as a critical strategy for both men and women in influencing aspects of well-being, while Limiting Job Responsibilities seems to have few positive effects. Other possibly effective strategies include Planning and Organising for women, and Withdrawing for men. Talking as a form of Social Support may have detrimental effects for men.

Clearly, further research is required to determine gender differences in work-family coping strategy effectiveness.

Research Hypotheses – Gender Differences in the Effectiveness of Work-Family Coping Strategies

Similar to the hypotheses discussed earlier in the chapter (see p. 40-42), differences in the coping and outcome measures used by authors make it difficult to identify specific trends in the research. Nevertheless, the hypotheses documented below are generated as far as possible on the review of literature. The hypotheses based on the literature review are listed here along with a brief argument for each. The general term of "effective" is used for each hypothesis as there is not enough evidence in the existing literature to link each coping strategy to specific outcome measures.

Hypothesis 6. Seeking forms of social support are more effective work-family coping strategies for women than for men.

Very little research has examined gender differences in the benefits of seeking out social support specifically to manage work-family conflict. However, one study has demonstrated that women benefit more than men from both work and family support (Paden & Buehler, 1995; Perrewe & Carlson, 2002). It is suggested that women may be more effective in seeking out such forms of support.

Hypothesis 7. Planning is a more effective work-family coping strategy for women than for men.

Paden & Buhler (1995) have conducted one of the few studies, which directly investigates gender differences in the effectiveness of work-family coping strategies. They identified that while Planning had no significant effect for men, it was effective for women in buffering the negative effects of role overload and conflict. While the concept of Planning is not well defined in the paper, the research implies that it involves organising tasks and making plans with relevance to work-family demands.

Hypothesis 8. Withdrawing is a more effective work-family coping strategy for men than for women.

Withdrawing is another strategy investigated by Paden & Buhler (1995). The authors identified that while it had no significant effect for women, it buffered the negative effects of role conflict for men. The concept of Withdrawing is not well explored in the

paper, but the research implies that it involves communicating less and postponing tasks until the person feels less pressured.

Hypothesis 9. Gender differences do not exist in the effectiveness of actively changing or modifying cognitions. This strategy is effective for both men and women.

Two studies found that a strategy labeled Cognitive Restructuring was effective for men and women (Guelzow et al., 1991; Paden & Buehler, 1995). However there is some suggestion that the strategy may be effective in influencing different outcomes (see p. 54 and 56-57).

Gender Differences in the Work-Family Experience

Despite the sparse amount of literature on gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping strategies, there is indirect evidence to indicate that such gender differences are likely. Such evidence comes from research indicating that the experience of work-family conflict is different for men and women (e.g., Gutek, Klepa & Searle, 1991; Higgins, Duxbury, & Lee, 1994; Probert, 1995; Thompson, 1997). Different experiences may lead men and women to adopt and find effective different work-family coping strategies. A case for this is argued in the following sections.

A number of frameworks have been adopted in the literature to explain the relationship between gender and work-family conflict (Higgins et. al., 1994). These include the rational model (Higgins et al., 1994), socialisation theory (Ptacek, Smith, & Zanas, 1992), and identity theory (Stryker, 1987). More recent literature also refers to the gender perspective (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). Such theories have particular emphases but are all based on the concept that traditional gender role expectations and socialised

behaviours still prevail despite rapid social changes (Higgins et al., 1994; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; O'Driscoll, 1996; Schwartz, 1992). Gender role expectations and socialised behaviours influence how men and women conceptualise and perceive their roles (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000), and typically result in women experiencing greater work-family conflict. Gutek et al. (1991) argued that "despite the many changes in gender roles for the past twenty years, tradition prescribes a different emphasis between work and family for men and women" (p. 561).

Socialisation Theory and the Gender Perspective

Socialisation theory (Ptacek et al., 1992; Rosario, Shinn, Morch, & Huckabee, 1988) proposes that males and females are brought up in society to manage stressors in different ways. The work-family literature from the 1970s and 1980s indicated that men were socialised to deal actively and instrumentally with stress; women were taught to express emotion, act in a passive manner, and seek social support (Mainero, 1986; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978; Rosario et al., 1988). Seeking out emotional support was encouraged in women but not in men (Stokes & Wilson, 1984). The socialisation hypothesis predicts that, even when faced with similar stressors, men favour problem-focused strategies and women emotion-focused strategies.

A study by Burley (1995) with university students supported socialisation theory by demonstrating that people's future expectations of how they will cope with work-family conflict are largely influenced by their gender socialisation. Before the students had even commenced employment, they already had gendered concepts as to how they would manage their work-family demands. The results indicated significant gender differences in the expected use of three out of four coping strategies: Reducing Tension,

Increasing Efficiency, Modifying Roles and Standards, and Procuring Support (Skinner & McCubbin, 1981). Women expected that they would use the first three strategies more than men. Contrary to most reports, women did not expect Procuring Support to be more important to work-family coping than it was for men.

In terms of the socialisation process, it is likely that men and women develop different skills and therefore find different strategies more effective. For example, if men have fewer skills than women in seeking out appropriate forms of support, then they are unlikely to find such support effective. As a consequence, they may avoid using such a strategy in the future.

Socialisation also impacts on the value men and women attribute to particular roles. The identity theory perspective (Stryker, 1987) proposes that the self is made up of a collection of identities that are linked to a person's role relationships. Such role identities are hierarchically organised depending on their salience and the commitment that a person has to a particular identity. The greater the commitment, the more likely an individual will exhibit behaviours that confirm that identity. Gender socialisation influences the salience of and commitment to a particular role identity for an individual. A range of roles make up male and female identities; the emphasis for many women is family, whereas for many men it is work.

One important way in which socialised role identities influence experiences of work-family differently for men and women is in terms of the overlap between work and family roles that males experience (Wiley, 1991). While dual-career/earner couples are becoming the norm, research demonstrates that most men still occupy the "breadwinner" role (Smith, 2000). In contrast to most women, being the primary earner remains an

important component of both a man's work and family identities (McLean & Lindorff, 2000; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). By going to work, a male employee is fulfilling his work role and a substantial component of his family role, which is to provide financially for his family. Although both roles will compete for a man's time, the overlap of these roles is thought to be mutually supportive (Barnett & Baruch, 1987).

In support of this assertion, it has been found that there is a discrepancy between men's actual involvement in their family and their self-reports of psychological involvement with their family. In other words, despite little participation in house-tasks and child care, the majority of men report being more psychologically involved with their families than they are with their occupations (Pleck, 1985). This apparent contradiction may be a result of men perceiving their breadwinner role to be inextricably linked to their family role. In more recent research, one study investigating the transition to parenthood for dual-earner couples demonstrated that there are substantial differences between the definitions of what a parent actually does (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). More than 50% of males asserted that providing income was their primary responsibility as a parent.

In contrast, a woman's work role has little to do with her traditional socialised role as the mother and homemaker (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). Therefore her roles are not mutually supportive (Barnett & Baruch, 1987). While men are able to achieve a degree of simultaneous control over their work and family roles, a woman is not able to experience this same level of control.

As a result of these gendered roles, researchers have suggested that males with high job involvement are acting in accordance with societal expectations, whereas women with high job involvement are likely to experience guilt and anxiety. As Glenn

(1987, p. 500) asserted "women are virtually equated with family. Their existence is so fused with and embedded in the family that it has been difficult to extract them as individuals, as persons not only acting within the family, but outside it. While men are seen as actors in a variety of settings, women are seen only in relation to this one context".

Due to the mutually supportive relationship between work and family for men, and the lack of overlap in roles for women, there are likely to be gender differences in the coping strategies selected. For example, organisational support mechanisms (e.g., supervisor support, taking advantage of family-friendly policy) and external support services may be used more readily by women as they are equated most highly with family. Alternatively, there is some indication that men avoid using forms of organisational support for fear of being viewed as uncommitted to their work (Berry & Rao, 1997; Hall, 1990; Hyde, Essex, & Horton, 1993). For example, men may be more likely to take a day of recreation leave to take care of a sick child than use policies such as family leave.

There are also likely to be differences in the strategies that men and women find effective. For example, if women are less able than men to separate work and family then compartmentalism is likely to be an ineffective strategy. Trying to compartmentalise work and home may in fact cause a woman greater stress if she is forced to prioritise one over the other at any given time. For example, if she has allocated from 9am to 5pm as work time, but her child is sick, then attempts to compartmentalise in this situation may exacerbate her stress.

Socialisation and differences in the salience of identities is also the basis of the gender perspective (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000; Milkie & Petola, 1999), which proposes that men and women have differing real and perceived work-family expectations and demands. This perspective emphasises that it is the way in which men and women "construct and give meaning to their roles" (Smith, 2000, p. 990), which has the power to provide both positive and negative influences over individual and family functioning (Ferree, 1990). The gender perspective further suggests that women's demands are higher overall (Milkie & Peltola, 1999) because of socialised expectations, and that they have less power and control in both work and family spheres (Mirowsky & Ross, 1995; Pearlin, 1989). Higher demands lead to greater role overload, role conflict, and psychological distress (e.g., Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994; Hughes & Galinsky, 1994).

The Rational View

Research has typically demonstrated that women do have higher demands overall, as well as greater levels of work-family conflict (e.g., Duxbury et al., 1994). The "rational view" of work-family conflict suggests that conflict will invariably increase along with the increased hours spent on work and family demands (Gutek et al., 1991). Recent Australian evidence demonstrates that despite the rapid increase in the number of females in the workforce, women are still typically managing the bulk of home and family responsibilities (Muller, 1999). Australian men are not doing significantly more in the household that they did during the 1980s (Probert, 1995), and do not tend to adjust their home time in response to their partners' work demands (Milkie & Petola, 1999). An Australian study conducted on "coprenerial couples" (couples who run a business together) found that, even when both partners were spending equal time in the business,

the female still assumed the major responsibility for the children and for domestic duties such as housework and cooking (Smith, 2000). Other research indicates that, while men are becoming more involved in family activities, it is typically the less stressful prescheduled events for which they take greater responsibility. Their female partners remain responsible for more stressful situations such as emergencies and childcare situations, e.g., picking up the child when the child becomes unwell (Berry & Rao, 1997).

The presence of children appears to further increase the division of workload (paid and unpaid) between men and women (Noor, 2002). One study demonstrated that, in families with three or more children, women's total workload was about 90 hours per week in comparison to men's 70 hours, which is a mean gender difference of about 2.5 hours a day (Lundberg, Mardberg, & Frankenhaeuser, 1994). In addition to the increase in work hours, women's control over home and household work decreases with the presence of children.

If women experience greater conflicting demands and higher levels of work-family conflict, they will need more frequent use of, or different types of coping. Such a view is supported by research which determined that women tend to use more and a greater range of coping strategies than men (Scherer, Petrick, Brodzinsky, & Goyer, 1991; Schnittger & Bird, 1990). This finding is consistent with the wider psychological literature (Thoits, 1991). Such higher demands may also increase the effectiveness of work-family coping strategies such as Cognitive Restructuring or Tension Reduction that help to mange the perception of the situation. When the problem itself is too difficult to manage effectively, such strategies may result in more positive well-being. Alternatively,

as men have more control over their work and family demands, problem-focused strategies, which directly address the problem, may be more feasible and effective.

The Nature of Unpaid Work and its Impact on Coping

Some research suggests that in addition to the increased hours that women spend on work-family demands, it is the nature of women's unpaid work that contributes to their greater workload (Dressel & Clark, 1990). This is of particular relevance to a lack of flexibility in the tasks that need to completed (Milkie & Petola, 1999) and greater chance of unexpected interruptions. For example, typical women's tasks such as planning meals, cooking, and taking care of children cannot be postponed, whereas typical men's tasks such as repair work or mowing can often wait until time allows. In addition, women's responsibility for the care of children and other family members (e.g., elderly parents) results in greater unexpected interruptions to paid work or leisure roles (Hochschild, 1989). As a consequence, men are able to adapt their schedules more often than do women.

Duxbury et al. (1994) hypothesised in their research that while mothers experience more interference of work by family demands, fathers conversely experience more interference of family by work demands. Contrary to expectations, they found that women experienced higher levels of interference in both directions. This was partly explained by the inflexibility of the mothering role. For example, mothers are more likely than fathers to take responsibility for preparing and taking children to various childcare or schooling arrangements at the beginning of the day, as well as collecting them in the afternoon or evening. As a consequence, the inflexibility of women's roles is likely to result in the need for greater numbers and types of coping strategies.

The differences in flexibility of demands on men and women is likely to have implications for the coping strategies that they use and find effective. Milkie and Petola (1999) suggested that when women confront increasing inflexible demands, they tend to make trade-offs such as reducing or renegotiating their paid labor (e.g., telecommuting, working part time), or accessing external support mechanisms such as cleaning services. Alternatively, men may find it easier to compartmentalise their work and family roles. Wiley (1991) suggested that men are more likely than women to compartmentalise their roles because it is expected that many men will dedicate their days to work demands without family interference. Conversely, there is an expectation that women will give primary concern to family demands even when at work. Research indicates that when men become involved in family activities, they take much greater responsibility for prescheduled events (e.g., taking a child to sport on the weekend) as opposed to unscheduled (e.g., emergencies and child care situations) (Berry & Rao, 1997). Such involvement is likely to demonstrate that men either have a greater ability to compartmentalise their roles, or are in a situation that enables compartmentalising. As men are believed to have more control over their work-family demands, such a strategy is likely to be more effective than it is for women. For women, attempts to separate work and family may result in increased stress under certain circumstances. For example, a mother trying to compartmentalise her roles may find it very difficult if she has to stay home with a sick child, or is required to pick up her child early from day-care after he or she has been injured.

A further possibility is that women may use, and find effective, emotion-focused strategies or tension reduction more than do men to cope with situations that are

unmanageable in a practical sense. Such forms of coping may assist women to at least relieve their concerns and frustrations without having to deal with the problem itself. Alternatively, men may be able to use, and find effective, practical strategies more so than women as their demands are more predictable and able to be planned.

Gender differences may also occur as a result of the coping behaviours that are practiced by men and women. Because they tend to engage in different role tasks, gender differences in coping may be partly attributed to the types of stressful experiences that they encounter (Hobfall et al., 1994). This is referred to as the Structural Hypothesis (Ptacek et al., 1992). The hypothesis states that certain situations and events elicit certain types of coping strategies. Because men and women are likely to experience dissimilarities in the situations they encounter, they will use different coping strategies. For example, women tend to encounter stressors involving their health and families, while men report more stressors related to work and finances. Using certain coping strategies in most situations may also result in the person continuing to use these strategies across all situations, because they have practiced them and are most familiar with them. In many situations, strategies that are practiced are more likely to result in a more positive outcome.

While an abundance of literature demonstrates that men and women experience work-family roles and conflict differently, some research indicates that the situation is changing, with men taking a more active involvement in childcare and household chores (Hill et al., 2001). One study found differences in men's and women's work-family role experiences (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001), but, in this study, men reported greater

work-family conflict than did women. The authors explained this as due to greater time commitments at work, and the desire to have more time at home.

Although there is a focus on women having the greater work-family demands, the majority of authors do not operationalise "household chores" and there remains a question as to whether this includes typically male oriented house and family duties, such as home maintenance (e.g., fixing broken household items, mowing, maintaining the car) and financial matters (e.g., paying bills, doing the tax). Only a small number of studies distinguish between stereotypical male and female chores (Hochschild, 1989; Milkie & Petola, 1999; Robinson & Godbey, 1997). Women report cooking, cleaning, childcare, and shopping as stereotypical female chores, whereas men report traveling to the store, shopping, cooking, and doing repairs as male chores. The past and current work-family literature focuses on the household tasks that women tend to carry out. It may be that men are doing just as much for the household but that this has not been included in research.

Regardless of some of the inconsistencies in the literature, it is clear that the majority of men and women still have differing experiences of the work-family interface. Such differences are likely to prompt differences in the number and type of coping strategies adopted, as well as their relative effectiveness.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature relevant to gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping strategies. While some specific studies are examined, only a small amount of literature directly addresses gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping strategies. To develop an argument that gender differences are likely to exist, relevant theory is discussed including socialisation

theory, the gender perspective, and the rational view. While studies to date provide some indication that gender differences do exist, it is clear that further research is required. The aim of this thesis is to further research gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping strategies. Hypotheses were provided within the chapter.

CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

Chapter Overview

This chapter provides a rationale for the overall research design of the thesis, and outlines methods selected within the research program. A more detailed discussion of each method will be provided in Chapters 5, 6, and 7.

This chapter firstly identifies the overall rationale for the research design, followed by a discussion of the purpose of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. It then provides an explanation of the methods selected for Studies 1, 2, and 3.

The Overall Research Design

The central research question of the thesis was: Are there gender differences in the use and effectiveness of individual work-family coping strategies? Because of a series of gaps in the work-family coping literature, a number of preliminary steps were required before this question could be addressed. First, a new taxonomy of individual work-family coping strategies was required based on both male and female employees. A second requirement was the development of an individual work-family coping measure so that the research question could be investigated quantitatively. With a measure available based on a newly developed taxonomy the project would then proceed to the research question.

Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Research

The majority of work-family coping literature does not combine qualitative and quantitative approaches. This may be because of differing perspectives on the benefits of the two research methods, or the complexity and time-consuming nature of combining such methods. Contrary to existing practice, the current research program combined

qualitative and quantitative methods to provide a more satisfactory answer to the research question.

Although the debate about qualitative or quantitative methods has not been specifically addressed in the work-family literature, it has been contested in other psychological literatures (Rabinowitz & Wesseen, 2001). In psychology, qualitative methods are still viewed by some with skepticism, because they are seen as less valuable, valid, and as a "soft" option (Griffin & Phoenix, 1994). Conversely, some researchers argue that a rigid reliance on quantitative methods can be limiting and counterproductive in the pursuit of knowledge that is relevant and useful (Harding, 1991). However, many researchers now see the usefulness of multiple methods, and have become more inclined to integrate both methodological approaches (McKeganey, 1995; Ponterotto & Grieger, 1999), recognising that each has its strengths and weaknesses (Griffin & Phoenix, 1994). Rather than debate whether one method is better than the other, the view emerging is that qualitative and quantitative approaches should be selected based on which will best suit the research question being asked. The researcher who can apply a number of methods is better able to understand the complexity of the phenomenon under study (Ponterotto & Grieger, 1999). Many researchers in the wider psychological literature have successfully integrated both methods in a single research project (e.g., Blustein, Phillips, Jobin-Davis, Finkelberg, & Rourke, 1997; Jick, 1983).

In the present research program, the combination of methods was considered most appropriate to answer the research question. Because of the limitations of previous models and taxonomies, an initial study was required to identify the salient research variables. The lack of an up-to-date individual work-family coping taxonomy made it

impossible to simply apply existing research. Qualitative research enables the researcher to develop exploratory research questions, collect and interpret initial data, develop tentative hypotheses, refine them, and develop more specific hypotheses. In addition, as the second study in the thesis was to develop a coping measure, a research process that converts qualitative descriptions into quantitative scales strengthens the validity and credibility of the findings that result from those scales (Patton, 1990).

One argument against qualitative research is that it lacks scientific rigor, including processes to assess reliability and validity (Merrick, 1999). As such, qualitative methods may not be always appropriate in isolation. Quantitative research methods were adopted for Studies 2 and 3 to develop a measure of individual work-family coping, and to assess gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping. Such research enables the researcher to collect, analyse, and interpret data, and determine whether hypotheses are supported or refuted (Ponterotto & Grieger, 1999). Quantitative research was selected for Studies 2 and 3 because of its usefulness in developing reliable measures and testing specific hypotheses.

Only a small number of studies of work-family coping has applied a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (e.g., Behson, 2002; Berry & Rao, 1997). Even when such methods are combined, research papers do not discuss the methods in detail. This is possibly because of space restrictions on work that is published rather than poor research documentation. That said, the work of Berry and Rao (1999) must be acknowledged as an important source of ideas for the method used in the present study.

Berry and Rao (1999) began by using a set of open-ended questions to which participants reported any fathering experiences that affected their roles as employed men.

Working with the data generated, three expert judges, using a Q-sort process, determined categories of experiences. A 40-item measure of work-family stress was then developed based on the qualitative data. This scale was then completed by a sample of fathers in dual-career relationships, and the data were subjected to a factor analysis in an effort to reduce the number of items in the scale and improve reliability. Three factors emerged, consistent with the findings of the Q-sort procedure, and the best items defining each of the factors were selected. The scale was then used in a further quantitative study. The current research applies a similar method described in greater detail below.

Study 1 – The Development of a Work-Family Coping Model using a Qualitative Method

Study 1 employed a qualitative method to develop a new taxonomy of individual work-family coping for male and female employees. Specifically, Convergent Interviewing (Dick, 1990) was used to generate the data for a content analysis.

The Interview Method

A number of processes have been applied in the psychological literature to collect qualitative data. Popular methods include various forms of one-on-one interviews, focus groups, and questionnaires (Babbie, 1992). Each method has its positive attributes and its limitations. The current research used a modified version of Convergent Interviewing (Dick, 1990), which has been used in other research (e.g., Simons & Thompson, 1998).

Convergent interviewing is used to collect information from a number of diverse sources so that a wide perspective of the issue is gradually formed (Dick, 1990). When later interviews are starting to produce consistent information with earlier interviews, the term “convergent” means that the information being gathered is coming back to a few

central issues. Despite conducting more interviews, the same or highly similar information is likely to emerge. In the present research, later interviewees were identifying the same coping themes that earlier interviews had already covered.

The interviewing procedure was selected in preference to questionnaires and focus groups for a number of reasons. First, one-on-one interviews can be held at a time convenient to each staff member. After discussions with a representative from the participating organisation, it was determined that the seniority of some of the participants would make it unlikely that groups of staff could attend focus groups at the same time. Second, one-on-one interviews enable staff to disclose personal work-family information without fear of evaluation from their peers. Within the organisation at the time of the study, work-family conflict was thought by some female employees to be a source of discrimination. Employees may have not been so forthcoming with information had they participated in focus groups. Third, interviews allow for a greater depth of information than do questionnaires. When completing a questionnaire, participants may tire easily or rush responses to questions requesting a lot of qualitative information. In the current research, an interview allowed each coping strategy identified by participants to be explained in detail, as well as enabling the researcher to clarify the question for the interviewee, or ask for clarification of the answer if necessary. Fourth, the interview better allows for assurances of confidentiality and rapport building with participants. Using a questionnaire does not allow for rapport and may result in lowered interest in the task, and a concern about how written information will be used. Focus groups only allow for rapport to be built with the group and not with the individual.

One drawback of the interviewing approach that was taken into consideration was that participants' responses could be affected by social desirability. That is, the coping strategies that were discussed might have been influenced by the interviewee's desire to present in a positive manner. Participants may have been less likely to talk about coping strategies that were perceived by them to be negative or dysfunctional. The negatives and positives of each approach discussed above were considered, and it was decided that the advantages of the interview method outweighed the disadvantages. One specific example as to why the interview method was effective in the present research was that the meaning of work-family conflict and coping could be explained in detail. While women seemed to understand the concepts readily, some of the men tended to compartmentalise their answers into how they coped at home, and how they coped at work. The interviewer sometimes had to explain the concepts in more depth, and bring the interviewees back on track a number of times. Such explanation would not have been possible with a questionnaire. In this case, a possible outcome of using the questionnaire method may have been that some male respondents may have misinterpreted the research focus and answered how they coped at home and how they coped at work rather than coping with overlap between work and home.

Convergent Interviewing is a technique used in community or organisational settings to collect qualitative data regarding people's attitudes and beliefs on a particular topic (Dick, 1988). Aspects of the procedure were modified to suit the research. The process consists of five stages: define the information, define target population and choose the sample, plan the interview, conduct the interviews, review the process, and recycle.

Dick (1998) suggested that in Convergent Interviewing an opening question be asked and the interviewee kept talking for 45 minutes to 1 hour. In Study 1 there were more specific questions that needed to be asked regarding each interviewee's work-family coping strategies. Because the participants were being interviewed in work time, such a lengthy interview was not feasible. Dick's (1990) Convergent Interviewing approach was adapted slightly to allow for more structure, making each interview shorter and easier to code. A series of predetermined open questions were asked to gather information regarding the coping behaviours that participants used, as well as to contextualise these behaviours. Contextualising questions were asked to assist the participant in focusing on the context precipitating their behaviours, as well as generating for the researcher a more holistic understanding of the person's behaviour.

Qualitative Data Analysis

The process selected for data analysis reflected the aim of Study 1, which was to develop a taxonomy of contemporary individual work-family coping. Originally, the computerised data coding systems of NUDIST were considered to assist with the qualitative analysis. However, at the time of this study NUDIST was not yet developed enough to make coding any simpler or more effective. Consequently, it was decided that analyses would be done by hand. Qualitative data programs have since progressed in their usefulness.

The process adopted was thematic content analysis using the technique of open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Thematic content analysis is a method used to systematically and objectively identify characteristics within text. Open coding is "the part of analysis that pertains specifically to the naming and categorising of phenomena

through close examination of the data" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 62). As a part of this approach the data are broken down into discrete parts, closely examined, compared for similarities and differences, and questions are asked regarding the topic under investigation.

The analysis of qualitative data typically entails coding (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). The coding process organises the qualitative data by bringing sections of data together to create meaningful themes. Codes represent the decisive link between the transcribed un-interpreted interview data and the way in which the researcher makes theoretical sense of those data (Seidel & Kelle, 1995). Miles and Huberman (1994) described codes as "tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study. Codes are usually attached to "chunks" of varying size, words, phrases, sentences, or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting. They can take the form of a straightforward category label or a more complex one (e.g., a metaphor)" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 56).

Open coding has its roots in the grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The grounded theory approach is a "qualitative research method that uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived theory about a phenomenon" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 24). The purpose of this approach is to generate theory that faithfully represents the area under research. Such theories should be related to others in the discipline, and have useful applications.

A number of coding approaches have been proposed (e.g., Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The open coding approach suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990) served as the basis for the qualitative analysis of data from the present study. It consists of four stages:

conceptualising, categorising, naming, and identifying properties/dimensions. The process was modified to suit the research by including a final Q-sort process (Berry & Rao, 1997; Paden & Buehler, 1995) to establish inter-coder reliability, and merging the categorisation, naming, and properties/dimensions stages. The content analytic process used in the current research included the following steps: interview transcription, identification of relevant data "chunks", conceptualisation, categorisation, Q-sort. These stages are briefly defined in the table below, and are then described in detail in Chapter 5.

Table 4.1

Stages of Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative analytic stage	Description
Interview Transcription	Interviews are transcribed word for word distinguishing comments made by the interviewer and the interviewee.
Identification of Relevant Data "Chunks"	Sentences and paragraphs directly pertaining to coping behaviours and strategies are independently highlighted on the transcripts by the Principal Researcher, and an Assistant Coder.
Conceptualisation	Coping behaviour and strategy concept labels are written directly on the transcripts beside the highlighted chunks. Process conducted independently by the Principal Researcher and Assistant Coder.
Categorisation	Clusters of concepts and their respective data chunks are placed into categories and sub-categories to develop a taxonomy of work-family coping. Categories are based on themes derived from the literature. Stage carried out by Principal Researcher alone.
Q-sort	Assistant Coder places concepts and their respective data chunks under categories and sub-categories to assess inter-coder reliability.

An Assistant Coder was used throughout the qualitative process to establish inter-coder reliability. As suggested by Glaser & Strauss (1967), the Assistant Coder was

specifically chosen because she was not overly familiar with the work-family coping literature. This enabled an objective viewpoint. Although inter-coder reliability is a critical component of qualitative research (Miles & Huberman, 1994), it has received mixed application in the work-family coping literature. Some studies have used a second rater but have not documented how the inter-coder reliability was determined, while other studies only briefly explain how the second rater was used or do not mention a second rater at all (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Becker & Moen, 1999; Wiersma, 1994). An inter-coder reliability process was devised for the present research. The Assistant Coder was employed at three stages in the process: identification of relevant data "chunks", conceptualisation, and Q-sort. This process is described in greater detail in Chapter 5.

Study 2 Part 1– The Development of an Individual Work-Family Coping Questionnaire

Study 2 sought to develop a measure of individual work-family coping based on the taxonomy developed in Study 1. A pool of items representing the coping strategies identified in Study 1 was developed and a questionnaire written based on this item pool. The data were then subjected to a factor analysis and a reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha to identify the most reliable set of questions to represent each theme.

Questions for the item pool were generated from statements made by interviewees in the qualitative study. In some cases, the items were adopted from already existing coping scales in the clinical and counselling literature. While the preference would have been to derive these items from existing work-family coping scales, almost all the authors

did not publish the full coping scales developed for their research, and many of the scales are now outdated.

Study 2 Part 2 – Gender Differences in the Use of Work-Family Coping

The data gathered for Study 2 were also used to conduct an initial assessment of gender differences in the use of work-family coping types[1]. Only the items making up the newly developed Individual Work-Family Coping Questionnaire (IWFCQ) were used in this study. A MANOVA and follow up ANOVAs were conducted to make an assessment of gender differences.

Study 3 - Gender Differences in the Use and Effectiveness of Individual Work-Family Coping

Gender differences were again assessed in Study 3 using a sample drawn from a different population from that of Study 2. Gender differences in coping use and effectiveness were assessed using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and a stepwise multiple hierarchical regression analysis. A recent paper investigating work-family coping strategy effectiveness also used a stepwise multiple hierarchical regression analysis, conducting a different analysis for each outcome measure used (Rotondo et al., 2003). Covariates relevant to the research were partialled out in step 1 of the analysis. A similar analysis is adopted for Study 3.

Study 3 applied the measure developed in Studies 1 and 2 to investigate whether there are gender differences in the use of coping types, and the effectiveness of work-family coping types. As well as completing questions seeking demographic information, participants completed a battery of questionnaires including the Overall Job Satisfaction

[1] The work-family coping literature refers to both coping types and coping strategies, While there is no consistent distinction between the two concepts, Hall (1972) and Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987) present coping types that comprise two or more coping strategies. The main focus of this thesis is the coping types.

Inventory (Brayfield & Roth, 1951), Family Adaptation Scale (Antonovsky & Sourani, 1988), Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick, 1988), Work-Family Conflict Measure (Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981), and Individual Work-Family Coping Questionnaire (IWFCQ). The following section describes the rationale for the selection of the outcome measures, statistical procedures, and the covariates used in the analysis.

Outcome Measures of Coping Effectiveness

Previous research has used a variety of outcome measures, including the satisfaction with coping strategies used (e.g., Gilbert, Holahan, & Manning, 1981; Gray, 1983; Hall, 1972; Shachar & Gilbert, 1983), overall life satisfaction (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987), self-esteem (Shachar & Gilbert, 1983), intensity of work-family conflict (Frieze et al., 1978), and satisfaction with the mothering role (Harrison & Minor, 1984). In deciding on instruments for the present work, three considerations were kept in mind.

First, many recent studies on gender differences and stress "view health as the absence of disease rather than a state of well-being. Stress is viewed predominantly as distress, with its attendant negative consequences. Gender differences, similarly, are studied in terms of which gender experiences more symptoms of which type" (Nelson, Burke, & Michie, 2002, p. 235). The authors suggested that the area of gender and stress research would benefit from a more positive approach, which includes researching coping strategies in terms of their ability to enhance well-being. As such the current research sought to explore work-family coping types and their positive impact on individuals.

Second, a number of research papers investigating the effects of work-family conflict on employees have selected outcome measures including life satisfaction, and

more specific aspects of life satisfaction (e.g., Aryee et al., 1999; Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 1999). Popular measures have included marital, family, and job satisfaction. Consistent with such research, job and family satisfaction were used in the current research. A measure of partner satisfaction replaced marital satisfaction, to include couples who were not married. Using such outcome measures extends much of the previous work-family coping research by assessing more than one measure of life satisfaction.

Third, the decision to assess three aspects of life satisfaction was also based on a small amount of research outlined in Chapter 3 that indicates different coping strategies may be more or less effective in influencing different role satisfactions (e.g., Aryee et al., 1999). Furthermore, in a review of the literature on social support and work-family conflict, Perrewe and Carlson (2002) suggested that forms of organisational support are influential in increasing job satisfaction, while forms of family and partner support are influential in increasing family satisfaction. There is scope for further research to investigate whether work-family coping types impact differently on different aspects of life satisfaction. From a practical point of view, gaining a more detailed understanding of the types of coping that enhance different life role satisfactions would enable organisations, practitioners, and researchers to target more specific areas for research, change, and intervention. For example, if such research identified that men's partnership satisfaction is greatly influenced by the work-family support they get from their partners, then further research may address what specific aspects of partner support are most useful. Scales selected for the measurement of the life satisfaction facets will be outlined and reviewed in Chapter 6.

Covariates

Prior work-family research has indicated the importance of controlling for potentially confounding demographic variables (Burley, 1995). Three covariates were identified from a review of the current work-family literature: work-family conflict, number of dependants, and hours worked. The literature indicates that these factors may directly influence the outcome measures used in this research including job, family, and partner satisfaction.

Although not all studies have found that increased levels of work-family conflict impact negatively on aspects of life satisfaction (e.g., Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Jones & Butler, 1980), two meta-analyses reported that the majority of studies do identify a significant link. A meta-analysis which reviewed the relationship between work-family conflict and job and life satisfaction indicated that there was a consistent negative relationship between all types of work-family conflict (bi-directional work-family conflict, work to family, and family to work), and job (global and facet), and life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). As employees experience greater conflict between job and non-job roles, their levels of satisfaction decrease. A second meta-analysis considered a greater variety of outcome measures, which included job, family, and marital satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000). The authors found that the mean sample weighted correlation between work-family conflict and job satisfaction was -0.24. The mean weighted correlation between work-family conflict and marital satisfaction was -0.23, and -0.17 between work-family conflict and family satisfaction.

Other research has investigated the impact of work-family conflict on specific aspects of life satisfaction. Consistent with the meta-analyses, these studies demonstrate

that work-family conflict is negatively related to facets of life satisfaction. For example, Mauno and Kinnunen (1999) reported that a number of job stressors, including work-family conflict, spilled over into marital satisfaction via job exhaustion and psychosomatic health. Other research has indicated a link between work-family conflict and aspects likely to be related to marital satisfaction. Matthews, Conger, and Wickrama (1996) found that work-family conflict is related positively to psychological distress, which affects marital outcomes both directly and indirectly through its association with greater marital hostility and lesser marital warmth and supportiveness. Several earlier studies have also indicated a direct link between work–family conflict and reduced marital well-being (Campbell & Snow, 1992; Coverman, 1989).

Research has also indicated that work-family conflict is negatively associated with family satisfaction. In a larger cross-cultural study testing a model of the work-family interface, it was found that work-family conflict had significant negative relationships with both life satisfaction and family satisfaction (Aryee et al., 1999).

In addition to work-family conflict, an employee's number of dependants (children under 18 years of age) has also been found to impact negatively on facets of life satisfaction. A small number of studies have indicated that children impact on job and family satisfaction. Bilgic (1998) found that an employee's number of dependants contributed to job dissatisfaction, while Beutell and Wittig-Berman (1999) found that a greater number of children was associated with lower family satisfaction.

A larger selection of studies demonstrates that number of children at home impacts on marital satisfaction (often termed marital quality but measured using the same questionnaires). In an extensive review of the literature, it was shown that while the

magnitude of the effect is modest, the presence of children in the home is inversely related to marital satisfaction (Belsky, 1990). More recent evidence further supports this indicating that the number of children an employee has living at home influences their marital quality (Hyde, Essex, Clark, & Klein, 2001). One study indicated that it may be simply the number of children a person has which affects marital satisfaction (Plechaty, Couturier, Cote, Roy, Massicotte, & Freeston, 1996). Partners in couples with larger numbers of children report feeling less emotionally attached to their spouses, in turn reducing levels of marital satisfaction (Wendorf, 2002). One explanation for the lowered satisfaction among couples with children is that the presence of children exerts a barrier for separation for unhappily married couples, thus reducing marital satisfaction of couples overall (Grote, Frieze, & Stone, 1996). Another explanation is that spouses with children have less time to spend together, reducing the level of enjoyment in the marriage. One study with slightly different findings indicated that the presence of children in the home reduced marital satisfaction for women, but not for men (Grote et al., 1996) which may mean that the amount of additional work brought about by children impacts more heavily on the female partner.

Hours worked each week is another concept that has been linked to decreased life satisfaction, and is well-documented in the work-family literature (Barnett, Gareis, & Brennan, 1999). Attention to this variable is the result of increasing work hours for male and female employees (Crouter, Bumpus, Head, & McHale, 2001). Although not all research papers have found that increased work hours and time demands (e.g., overtime and frequent weekend work) negatively impact on marital and family relationships (e.g., Coverman, 1989; Hughes, Galinsky, & Morris, 1992; Pittman, 1994), the majority have

found that work hours do impact negatively on family and marital satisfaction and related constructs.

Men and women agree that the more time they have to spend together, the more positive their marital quality (Kingston & Nock, 1987). Therefore it is not surprising that extended time demands precipitate negative emotional states in employees, which in turn lead to higher marital tension and less companionship (Hughes et al., 1992). Work hours also impact on other family relationships. For example, one study conducted on men determined that while longer work hours did not appear to impact on their marital quality, it was associated with less positive relationships with their adolescent children (Crouter, et al., 2001). Fathers working longer hours were viewed as being less accepting of their children's behaviour, and are less likely to view things from the child's perspective.

The analysis conducted in Study 3 will include removal of the variance explained by the three covariates: work-family conflict, number of dependants, and hours worked each week. Removal of these factors will enable a more accurate picture of how the work-family coping types affect aspects of life satisfaction without the interference of these covariates.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has identified the rationale for the overall research design of the thesis, and has outlined methodological issues associated with each study. Chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8 provide a more detailed description of the methodologies undertaken in this research program. Each study consists of an introduction, methodology, results, and discussion.

CHAPTER 5: THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INDIVIDUAL WORK-FAMILY COPING TAXONOMY

Chapter Overview

A review of the literature (see Chapter 2) indicated that a revised taxonomy of individual work-family coping was required to guide research in this area. The purpose of this study reported here was to develop such a taxonomy. The taxonomy was then used in Study 2 to develop a measure of individual work-family coping. The present chapter outlines the research method, which includes 30 interviews applying Convergent Interviewing principles (Dick, 1990), and a content analysis. The chapter then presents the new taxonomy of individual work-family coping that contains 8 themes and 19 sub-themes. A discussion of these findings follows and suggestions for future research and limitations of the study are considered.

Method

Participants

The sample consisted of 15 male and 15 female professional and clerical employees from a large Queensland transport organisation. Sample sizes of approximately 30 are common in qualitative research (e.g., Westman, 2004). In the present research, there was no initial decision made regarding how many interviews would be required. However, after approximately 24 (12 male and 12 female) interviews, the same or similar coping strategies were emerging from the content of the interviews. As such, it was decided that only 30 interviews would be needed to cover the key coping strategies used by male and female employees. As the interviews progressed further, it

was confirmed that few new coping strategies were emerging, and as such, it was decided that 30 interviews would be sufficient for the purposes of the research.

All interviewees had partners. Twenty participants were married (9 male, 11 female), seven participants had partners living with them (4 male, 3 female), and three participants had partners who did not live with them (1 male, 2 female). All participants had children, with the number of children ranging from one to six. The age of the participants ranged between 30 and 60, with a mean age of 42 years. A summary of participant job areas, occupational levels, and employment status is given in the table below. Levels of professional and clerical staff within the organisation ranged from AO2 to AO8. The AO (Administration Officer) levels dictate the staff member's seniority and remuneration level. AO2 is the least senior level with the lowest remuneration. AO8 is the most senior level with the highest remuneration. Levels above this are senior managers and are paid according to their contractual agreements. All senior managers are remunerated at a higher rate than any of the AO staff. Tables 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3 indicate the participants' job areas, occupational level, and employment status.

Table 5.1

Distribution of Staff by Job Area in Study 1

Job area	Number of males	Number of females
Employee Relations	3	4
Accountancy	0	1
Law	1	3
Quality Assurance	0	1
Human Resources	1	2
Workplace Projects	0	1
General Administration	3	2
Finance	0	1
Industrial Relations	2	0
Financial Reporting	1	0
Audit	3	0
Engineering	1	0

Table 5.2

Distribution of Staff by Occupational Level in Study 1

Occupational level	Number of males	Number of females
AO2-3	2	3
AO4-5	3	4
AO6-7	6	4
AO8	0	1
Senior Manager	4	3

Table 5.3

Distribution of Staff by Employment Status in Study 1

Employment status	Number of males	Number of females
Full time	15	9
Part time	0	4
Contract/consultant	0	2

Attempts were made to include operational (blue-collar) staff in the interview process. Blue-collar staff have not been researched in the majority of work-family literature. In the organisation used in the research, permission to include blue-collar staff needed to be obtained by both management and relevant unions. Although access to such staff was initially granted, tensions between management and unions at the time of the interviews resulted in requirements that may have damaged the integrity of the research.

For example, the unions requested that a union delegate be present at each interview. However, having a delegate present may have resulted in the interviewee presenting him or herself in a particular manner. It may also have resulted in the interviewee being persuaded to push certain agenda outside the scope of the research. Consequently it was decided that this study would focus on the clerical and professional staff who were easily accessed.

Materials and Procedure

Interviewing Procedure

As identified in Chapter 4, the stages involved in the Convergent Interviewing process are defining the information, defining the target population, planning the interview, choosing the sample, reviewing the process, and recycling.

Defining the information and target population. The stage of Defining the Information focuses on making decisions about what information is required from the interviewees. In the current research, the key information required was an identification and explanation of each person's work-family coping strategies. In contrast to the majority of previous literature, the target population included male and female employees rather than solely married women. As both genders were to be included in the research, it was decided that half the interviewees would be females, and half male. In compliance with the Convergent Interviewing process, staff with varying demographics were encouraged to participate. As a result, staff varied in age, work status, employment position, number of children, and age of children.

Planning the interview and choosing the sample. The Planning stage included developing questions to be asked and determining length of interview, location, how

respondents were to be notified, and how participants were to be informed about the purpose of the study, confidentiality, and anonymity of information (Dick, 1990). In the case of the current research, this stage also included approaching and negotiating with the organisation.

The interviewer determined a series of structured interview questions prior to commencement of the research. Questions followed an open format, which consisted of "broad questions which often specify only a topic and allow the respondent considerable freedom in determining the amount and kind of information to give" (Stewart & Cash, 1991, p. 56). These types of questions allowed interviewees to do the talking and make decisions about what information they would volunteer. Such questions were included to demonstrate interest and trust in the interviewee's judgment. Open-ended questions are easy to answer and are typically non-threatening.

Initial questions 1, 2, and 3 were asked to engage the participant and contextualise their coping behaviours. Questions 4 and 5 were the primary questions asked to elicit a large amount of information related to the hypotheses. These questions focused on extracting information about coping strategies used to manage work and family demands. Questions 6 and 7 were developed to make a distinction between strategies that were effective and ineffective. The actual questions are listed in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4

Interview Questions

Question number	Question
1	In our lives we experience a number of different roles. For example wife [husband] role, mother [father] role, and employee role. What are the major roles that you experience in your life?
2	Can you tell me about your experience of managing the demands of all these roles?
3	What makes you aware that you are experiencing conflict or problems? For example what do you notice yourself thinking, feeling, and/or doing to know you are having difficulty managing the various roles?
4	What is it that you do to manage all of your role's demands? More specifically are there particular things that you think or do to reduce problems?
5	Would you say that you have a particular strategy that you use to cope with all your role demands? If so can you describe what your strategy involves?
6	Which strategies that you have used or are currently using, do you find are most effective for you in dealing with role demands?
7	Which strategies that you have used or are currently using do you find are the least effective in dealing with role demands?

A contact from a large transport organisation was approached and asked if potential participants could be recruited from within their company. Initial approval to conduct the study was gained through an Employee Relations staff member. The study, purpose, proposed procedure, and ethical considerations were explained to him in detail. He sought final approval from senior management on the researcher's behalf.

After approval was given, the Employee Relations staff member provided the work contact details for the first four potential participants (two male and two female). In line with Convergent Interviewing techniques (Dick, 1990), these staff members were

representative of the target population and were perceived by the Employee Relations staff member to differ in their coping approach as well as on a number of demographic variables. At this stage of the research the only criteria for selecting initial participants were that there were two male and two female employed professional or clerical staff. No other criteria were stipulated due to the exploratory nature of this study.

Potential interviewees were contacted by phone and were provided with brief information about the study and its purpose. They were also provided with information regarding what would be done with the interview data, as well as the confidential nature of the interviews. Each person contacted was then invited to participate in an interview of approximately 30 minutes in duration. If the staff member agreed to participate, a time was made when the researcher could come to the interviewee's place of work to conduct the session. Each participant was asked where in the workplace he or she would like the interview to be conducted so that it would be most convenient and comfortable for him or her.

Conducting the interviews. Prior to the commencement of the interview, each participant was provided with verbal information about the study and its purpose. A consent form (see Appendix C) was read and signed by each participant emphasising confidentiality and their right to withdraw from the interview at any time. Participants were also asked if they had any objections to the interview being taped. Taping of interviews was necessary for detailed transcriptions to be made for analytical purposes. In addition, Dick (1998) suggests that if information cannot be memorised by the interviewer, recording the interview is a better option than taking notes because it allows the interviewer to give their full attention to the participant. It was explained to each

interviewee that the tape was for data analytical purposes only and that there would be no identification (e.g., names) of the person accompanying the tape. Codes were allocated to each interview tape (e.g., INT.M.1) and only the interviewer had a record of the code and the accompanying person's name. Finally, participants were asked if they required any clarification or had any questions they would like to ask.

During the interview, the interviewer provided few comments to prevent biasing the coping strategies that the interviewee chose to speak about. Probes such as "MMmmm", "I see", or "go on" were used if the interviewee had not completed an answer or seemed uncertain whether to continue (Stewart & Cash, 1991). The interviewer also used silent probes, which involved remaining quiet to encourage the participant to continue.

Dick (1990) emphasises that the way in which interviews are concluded has a bearing on the cooperation of other respondents who have not yet participated. Each interview should be ended with this consideration in mind. At the conclusion of each interview, the participant was invited to ask any questions about the research or the interviews. He or she was also thanked for participating, and again assured of the confidentiality of the information provided within the interview.

At the conclusion of each interview, and in a manner consistent with Convergent Interviewing technique (Dick, 1990), each participant was invited to nominate another person of the same gender to be interviewed. In making the nominations the person was asked to think of someone with a different background to their own and what they thought was a different approach to coping with their various roles.

Reviewing the process and recycling. The Convergent Interviewing process emphasises continual evaluation of the method, allowing for modifications to be made if necessary (Dick, 1990). Changes can be made to the sample, interview design, and questions (Dunphy & Dick, 1981). In the current interviewing process, modifications were made to the number of questions asked, and the information provided at the commencement of the interview. During the early interviews it was noted that interviewees were not clearly distinguishing between Questions 4, 5, and 6. The participants would talk about coping behaviours and their effectiveness for Question 4. They would then either reiterate these responses for Questions 5 and 6, or, when asked Questions 5 and 6, would state that they had already answered that question. Applying the flexibility emphasised in the Convergent Interviewing process, Questions 4, 5, and 6 were collapsed into one question for further interviews. This question was, "What is it that you do to manage all of your role demands? More specifically are there particular things that you think or do to reduce problems?". In addition, few participants were able to answer Question 7, and tended to respond that they did not know, or could not think of anything. As such this question was not used as a part of the analysis.

In addition to question modifications, minor alterations were made to the initial information that was provided to participants prior to each interview. This change was prompted in response to comments made by one interviewee. He said that he felt uncomfortable during the interview due to the lack of verbal responses provided by the interviewer. The comment was "Why don't you say anything? Am I saying the right things? It's strange just having you listen to me". To reduce discomfort and create an expectation regarding the interviewer's input, future participants were provided with the

following information prior to the commencement of the interview: “You will notice that I will not say much during the interviews. Don’t let this put you off. The reason I do this is that I am interested in your views and opinions and do not want to bias what you say. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. I am only interested in your thoughts and ideas”.

Data Analysis

A qualitative data analysis was conducted at the conclusion of the interviewing process. As identified in Chapter 4, the following stages were carried out: interview transcription, identification of relevant data “chunks”, conceptualising, categorising, and Q-sort. The analysis was conducted by the Principal Researcher and by an Assistant Coder who was experienced in qualitative research but was not familiar with the work-family literature.

Interview transcription. The Principal Researcher transcribed the interviews in their entirety including questions asked, encouraging comments provided by the interviewer, and responses given by the interviewee. Any comments made by the interviewer were typed in upper case so they could be distinguished from the interviewee’s comments during data analysis. Although some authors assert that editing by filling in gaps and missing words in the text may be useful (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), the interviews in this study were transcribed in their entirety so as not to provide any level of early interpretation of the data. The following excerpt is an example from the transcripts. The asterisks denote the commencement of a new question.

*1. IN OUR LIVES WE EXPERIENCE A NUMBER OF DIFFERENT ROLES. FOR EXAMPLE HUSBAND ROLE, FATHER ROLE, AND EMPLOYEE ROLE. WHAT ARE THE MAJOR ROLES THAT YOU EXPERIENCE IN YOUR LIFE?

Husband, father, employee, um manager, mm and a member of the community.

*2. COULD YOU TELL ME ABOUT YOUR EXPERIENCE OF MANAGING THE DEMANDS OF ALL THESE ROLES?

It varies. I think at certain times it's a balancing act. Um I guess the biggest difficulty is to get the priorities right. MM. Um, I think the expectations of society, expectations of the family, expectations of the community um family expectations and work expectations don't always align. RIGHT.

Identification of relevant data "chunks". Open coding was carried out by coding both paragraphs and individual sentences from the transcript text (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Whether it was a paragraph or a sentence that was identified for analysis depended on how much the interviewee chose to speak about a particular coping behaviour. An example of a paragraph and of a sentence that were identified for coding are displayed in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5

Example of a Paragraph and Sentence Identified for Coding

Type of coding	Example of transcript text to be coded
Paragraph analysis	Yeah, I guess it's all those things you tend to pay people to do things that you would normally do yourself. That's another I guess you know little chores that you know well if I put that down to do that you're going to get maybe a couple of hours on a Saturday you know and a few hours on a Sunday…. So I would prefer to have someone come in and do it while I'm not there and pay a few dollars to get it done to give you that bit of time.
Sentence analysis	You know so I think its time management as much as you can within the realms of possibility without being too regimental about it.

To determine the relevant chunks of data, the Principal Researcher and the Assistant Coder independently highlighted on separate transcripts sections of transcript text in which coping behaviours were talked about by the interviewees. The purpose of this process was to identify sections of text that required analysis, and to eliminate other sections of text that were not relevant to the research question. The following instructions were provided to the Assistant Coder, "Please read the 30 transcripts and carefully highlight the individual sentences and paragraphs in which the interviewee talks about coping strategies they use to manage their work-family demands. Please highlight as much text as is needed to understand each coping strategy mentioned. For the purposes of this task work-family coping is defined as *behavioural or cognitive actions taken by an employee to reduce or eliminate work-family conflict*. Make sure you do not highlight any text that pertains to other forms of coping, for example how someone copes with their workload." Further discussion took place between the Principal Researcher and the Assistant Coder as to the meaning of work-family conflict until the concept was fully understood by the Assistant Coder.

The coders were not restricted to highlighting transcript text for Question 4, which was the question directly related to coping. It was noted that while interviewees talked about coping behaviours in response to Question 4, some also discussed coping behaviours in their responses to other questions. When highlighting relevant data chunks, both coders surveyed the entire transcript.

In an effort to achieve inter-coder reliability with reference to the highlighted data chunks, the Principal Researcher and Assistant Coder met to ascertain if there were any differences in the chunks of data that they had highlighted for analysis. Highlighting was

generally consistent, but there were some differences in the amount of text highlighted per chunk in some areas of text. In cases where the amount of text differed for an identified chunk, the larger amount of highlighted text was used for the analysis to ensure a full understanding of each coping behaviour.

Coding resulted in 144 data chunks to be analysed. The smallest data chunks consisted of a single sentence, while the largest data chunks were half a page of text.

Conceptualising. Conceptualising involves taking apart sections of the transcripts that stand for or represent a phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The phenomenon in this case is work-family coping. The process involves conceptualising the meanings within data, rather than simply summarising it. Miles and Hubermann (1994) suggested a method of creating a starting list of codes prior to coding the data. These codes or categories can come from a variety of sources such as existing theoretical frameworks or research hypotheses. Due to the marked differences in strategies identified in previous research, the current study did not use this approach. Rather, the conceptual labels were derived from the transcripts alone. Information from previous literature was used in the categorisation stage that is discussed more thoroughly later in the chapter.

To carry out conceptualisation, Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest writing initial names for concepts directly on the interview transcripts. After the data chunks were highlighted, each coder individually scrutinised each chunk and wrote down their own conceptual label for the coping behaviour/s used within the text. Some examples of conceptual labels used by the coders included “Time management”, “Having a routine”, “Time to self”, “Resist taking work home”, and “Be realistic about what you can do”. Each chunk of data could have one or more conceptual labels attached depending on the

amount of information provided by the interviewee. Much of the wording used in the conceptual labels identified by the coders was derived from the wording used by the interviewees themselves.

Conceptual labels were written on the transcripts next to each data chunk. A Microsoft Word file was then used to record each data chunk along with the conceptual labels identified by the researcher and the second coder. The number of conceptualisations accompanying each data chunk varied from one to six. Table 5.6 provides some examples of data chunks and each coder's conceptualisations.

Table 5.6

Example Data Chunks and each Coder's Conceptualisations

Data chunk	Coder 1 conceptual label/s	Coder 2 conceptual label/s
"I used to be unbelievably organised when the kids were younger and I used to have them regimented like a little army and fairly well disciplined so that they knew what their roles were in the home. We all took rostered turns on washing and drying dishes and on some nights cooking and one night that meant we had to put up with baked beans pizzas every time he cooked because it was the only thing he was competent at and he liked to eat"	Being organised Being regimented with the children Being disciplined with children & having them understand their roles Getting children's help	Organisation Regimentation Getting the children's help with housework and cooking
"It's all just time framed you know. You've got to set your times and everything and things like that. I think it's just organization. If you can organize yourself then it's easy. Um, but I'd hate to be a disorganized person. I don't know how you'd cope. I think naturally I'm pretty organized anyway so it was a pretty easy adjustment, I haven't found it too difficult."	Time management Organisation	Time management Organisation
"Like I have this big list system on my fridge at home. I write everything down that I have to do. So my coping strategies are that I tick things off"	Organise what needs to be done using a list system	Use a list system

Establishing reliability for qualitative analyses is a process emphasised by a number of authors (e.g., Miles & Huberman, 1994). Miles and Huberman identify the importance of check-coding or inter-rater reliability in identifying codes for blocks of data. Inter-coder reliability was assessed by checking whether the conceptualisations for each data chunk were the same or highly similar. A tally was kept for the number of agreements and disagreements. Table 5.7 gives an example of how marks were allotted.

Table 5.7

An Example as to how Marks were Allotted for the Conceptual Labels

Coder 1 conceptual labels	Coder 2 conceptual labels	Agreement marks	Disagreement marks
Being organised	Organisation	1	0
Being regimented with the children	Regimentation	1	0
Being disciplined with children & having them understand their roles		0	1
Getting children's help	Getting the children's help with housework and cooking	1	0
Time management	Time management	1	0
Organisation	Organisation	1	0
Organise what needs to be done using a list system	Use a list system	1	0

There were a total of 263 conceptual labels identified by the coders. The majority of these were the same or highly similar for the two coders, and tended to use the wording of the interviewee. An inter-coder reliability of 0.93 across all data chunks was achieved when applying the reliability formula recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994), viz the total number of agreements divided by the total number of agreements plus disagreements. In this case, there were 245 agreements and 18 disagreements.

Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested that definitions become sharper when two independent raters code the data and discuss issues or difficulties. Disagreement and resulting discussion should lead to a more succinct understanding of what codes mean, and which blocks of data best fit which code. As such, after the reliability formula had been applied, the two coders met to discuss disparate conceptual labels. Such labels were discussed and appropriate conceptual labels were agreed on. The original transcripts were again consulted to make final decisions.

Categorising – Stage 1 and 2. Categorising is the process of grouping together similar concepts that appear to pertain to the same phenomenon (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Allowing the individual concepts to remain isolated would mean that there would be too many concepts to manage and too many to do anything meaningful. The cluster of concepts, or category, is given a name that is more abstract than the concepts grouped under it. Strauss and Corbin propose that these resulting categories have conceptual power because they draw together groups of concepts and sub-categories. Sheehan (2000) suggested that the naming of such categories be tentative at the early stage in the analysis, with a view to finalising category names at the end of the process. Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggested that category names should logically represent the data included in that

category. However, these authors, and researchers since (e.g., Sheehan, 2000), have noted that the researcher should not feel pressured to select an appropriate name from the outset. More appropriate names can be selected at a later time.

The current study involved a two-stage categorising process. In stage 1, the researcher wrote each of the data chunks on cards along with its conceptual label. Where a data chunk had more than one conceptual label, a card was prepared for each label. The cards were then sorted by the researcher into similar themes based on the thematic similarities from the work-family coping literature reviewed in Chapter 2. The themes identified were Cognitive Reappraisal; Partner, Friend, and Relative Support; External Support Services; Organisational Support; Recreation and Relaxation; Prioritising, Planning and Time Management; Compartmentalism; and Defense Mechanisms.

In stage two of the categorisation process, sub-themes were identified by the researcher to provide a deeper level analysis. Such a process reflects the work of Hall (1972) and Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987) whose taxonomies include broader coping types, which include a series of coping strategies. The data chunks from the transcripts were also used to identify sub-themes. The researcher included more specific things that people said they did to cope such as seeking emotional support from their partners, using home maintenance services, and participating in exercise.

The Principal Researcher completed categorisation stages 1 and 2. The following table depicts the themes and sub-themes identified by the researcher. Themes were given a name and definition dependent on what seemed appropriate to represent the data (see Table 5.8).

Table 5.8

Categories and Sub-Categories as Identified by the Principal Researcher

Theme	Sub-theme
Partner Support The individual actively seeks out support from their partner, and establishes behaviours that assist in the reduction of work-family conflict.	Seeking Emotional Support from the Partner Seeking Practical Support from the Partner
Support from Family Members (other than partner), Relatives, and Close Friends The individual actively seeks out practical or emotional support from family members, relatives, and friends.	Involving Family Members/Relatives in Decision Making and Practical Tasks Seeking Practical Advice or Support from Friends and Relatives Seeking Emotional Support from Friends and Relatives
Supportive or Family-Friendly Organisational Conditions The individual appreciates, and actively seeks out support from the organisation, and the direct work superior for whom they work.	Appreciating and Taking Advantage of Work Conditions and Organisational Policy Appreciating and Seeking Support from the Work Superior
External Support Services The individual acquires external resources to assist in better performing role demands	Using Home Maintenance Services. Employing Day Care, Babysitting, or other Child-Minding Services Eating Takeaway/Going to Restaurants
Tension Reduction The individual seeks out activities aimed at taking care of oneself.	Participating in Exercise Participating in Relaxing Activities Arranging to have Time for Self
Active Cognitive Restructuring The individual makes cognitive attempts to re-evaluate the way in which he or she views or perceives their work-family situation	Using Positive Affirmations to Feel Good about Self and Role Demands Comparing Current Situation Favourably to the Past and Recognising the Value of Multiple Roles Reducing Standards
Active Role Management The individual makes direct attempts to manage, modify, or eliminate the source of role conflict.	Prioritising of Roles and Role Tasks Limiting or Modifying Role Demands Increased Planful Role Behaviour – Organisation, Planning, Time Management, and Immediate Action.
Compartmentalism The individual makes a deliberate attempt to separate roles cognitively and/or practically.	

Q-sort process. A Q-sort process has been applied in recent work-family coping literature to assist with qualitative analysis (e.g., Berry & Rao, 1997; Paden & Buehler, 1995). The Q-sort technique was originally used for psychiatric and clinical research (Block, 1978), but has been applied in various ways in organisational research. The procedure typically involves asking the coder to sort a large number of statements into categories according to a criterion (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). This final stage was conducted to assess reliability and to ensure that all conceptualisations were accounted for. In the current research the Assistant Coder was provided with the coping themes and sub-themes proposed by the Principal Researcher, their definitions, and the coping cards on which were written the data chunks and conceptualisations. The Assistant Coder was then instructed to place the data chunks and corresponding conceptualisations into their relevant theme and sub-theme. If the Assistant Coder did not feel that the card was best represented by any of the themes or sub-themes, she was asked to put it aside in an "other" pile. While any form of qualitative analysis has subjective components, this procedure enabled for objective input on the structure of the model itself from someone who was not familiar with the work-family research.

The Q-sort procedure ensured the qualitative comments were accurately represented by the themes and sub-themes developed by the Principal Researcher. The Assistant Coder's responses demonstrated that all coping conceptualisations could be represented by a theme and a sub-theme. Reliability coefficients for each theme and sub-theme were estimated by applying the reliability formula (Miles & Huberman, 1994). To do this, a document was kept to record how each coder conceptualised each data chunk with reference to their theme and sub-theme. The reliability formula (the total number of

agreements divided by the total number of agreements plus disagreements) was then applied by calculating the agreements and disagreements for each theme and its sub-themes. Table 5.9 demonstrates an example from the documentation system.

Table 5.9

An Example of the System Used to Record Data Analysis

"So you generally find that the family priorities come first and MM um you know so then work I mean I tend to put my own relaxation pretty high on the list of priorities and if I don't do that you know it's all going to fall over eventually"

Data analysis stage	Outcome
Conceptualisation (Researcher)	Prioritise family demands first Prioritise own relaxation
Conceptualisation (Assistant Coder)	Prioritse family first Prioritise relaxation
Coping Type (Researcher)	Active Role Management Tension Reduction
Coping Type (Assistant Coder)	Active Role Management Tension Reduction
Coping Strategy (Researcher)	Prioritising of roles and role tasks Participating in relaxing activities
Coping Strategy (Assistant Coder)	Prioritising of roles and role tasks Participating in relaxing activities

Table 5.10

Reliability coefficients for the Coping Types and Coping Strategies when Applying the Reliability Formula (Miles & Huberman, 1994)

Coping theme	Reliability coefficient	Coping sub-theme	Reliability coefficient
Partner Support	1.0	Seeking Emotional Support from the Partner	1.0
		Seeking Practical Support from the Partner	1.0
Support from Family Members (other than partner), relatives, and close friends	1.0	Involving Family Members/Relatives in Decision Making and Practical Tasks	1.0
		Seeking Practical Advice or Support from Friends and Relatives	1.0
		Seeking Emotional Support from Friends and Relatives	1.0
Supportive or Family-Friendly Organisational Conditions	1.0	Appreciating and Taking Advantage of Work Conditions and Organisational Policy	1.0
		Appreciating and Seeking Support from the Work Superior	1.0
External Support Services	1.0	Using Home Maintenance Services.	1.0
		Employing Day Care, Babysitting, or other Child-Minding Services	1.0
		Eating Takeaway/Going to Restaurants	1.0
Tension Reduction	0.96	Participating in Exercise	0.88
		Participating in Relaxing Activities	0.93
		Arranging to have Time for Self	1.0
Active Cognitive Restructuring	1.0	Using Positive Affirmations to Feel Good about Self and Role Demands	1.0
		Comparing Current Situation Favourably to the Past and Recognising the Value of Multiple Roles	1.0
		Reducing Standards	0.83
Active Role Management	0.98	Prioritising of Roles and Role Tasks	0.92
		Limiting or Modifying Role Demands	0.73
		Increased Planful Role Behaviour – Organisation, Planning, Time Management, and Immediate Action.	1.0
Compartmentalism	0.93	No coping sub-themes were identified for Compartmentalism.	Non-applicable

The Assistant Coder did not place any data chunks in the 'other' category. As the reliabilities were .73 and above, the taxonomy proposed by the Principal Researcher was retained. While there is no documented acceptable cut-off for inter-rater reliability, 0.7 is viewed as acceptable for other forms of reliability (Nunnally, 1994) and was adopted here.

Results

Qualitative analysis resulted in the emergence of 8 themes and 19 sub-themes. Consistent with Hall (1972) and Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987), the themes were renamed coping types, and the sub-themes were renamed coping strategies. Examples are provided for each in table 5.11.

Table 5.11

Taxonomy of Individual Work-Family Coping Types and Examples

Coping types	Coping strategies	Examples from the transcripts
Partner Support The individual actively seeks out support from their partner, and establishes behaviours that assist in the reduction of work-family conflict.	Seeking Emotional Support from the Partner	"We try to open up the lines of communication and talk about things."
	Seeking Practical Support from the Partner	"I'll try to get (my husband) to change his timetable because he's a uni student as well."
Support from Family Members (other than partner), Relatives, and Close Friends The individual actively seeks out practical or emotional support from family members, relatives, and friends.	Involving Family Members/Relatives in Decision Making and Practical Tasks	"We (the family) all took rostered turns on washing and drying dishes and on some nights cooking."
	Seeking Practical Advice or Support from Friends and Relatives	"My mother's on call in case of emergency."
	Seeking Emotional Support from Friends and Relatives	"I'm close to some girlfriends and it's very important because you've got to keep some level of sanity there, and if you can't then your friends can help you do it"

Table 5.11 Continued

Coping types	Coping strategies	Examples from the transcripts
Supportive or Family-Friendly Organisational conditions The individual appreciates, and actively seeks out support from the organisation, and the direct work superior for whom they work.	Appreciating and taking advantage of work conditions and organisational policy	"Being able to take family leave is very important to me. It helps us cope during times when the family is struggling"
	Appreciating and seeking support from the work superior	"My boss is a supportive one when it comes to family issues. He'll be very supportive and guide you to finding a good balance"
External Support Services The individual acquires external resources to assist in better performing role demands	Using Home Maintenance Services.	"We pay people to come in and do little chores. It gives us the chance to have some time to ourselves on the weekend. Put our feet up."
	Employing Day Care, Babysitting, or other Child-Minding Services	"He (the interviewee's child) goes to child care three days a week. That gives me the chance to go to work."
	Eating Takeaway/Going to Restaurants	"If I've got an assignment due or I'm late for work I just say, well I'm not cooking dinner tonight so we'll have take aways"
Tension Reduction The individual seeks out activities aimed at taking care of oneself.	Participating in Exercise	"When I was working part time I used to go to the gym as much as I could and now I only get the chance on the weekend. But that is a stress release for me."
	Participating in Relaxing Activities	"But now I'll do things like take a nice long bath of an evening. You know just relax."
	Arranging to have Time for Self	"During those periods of time I tend to look for time by myself and I want to spend time by myself"
Active Cognitive Restructuring The individual makes cognitive attempts to re-evaluate the way in which he or she views or perceives their work-family situation	Using Positive Affirmations to Feel Good about Self and Role Demands	"I try to look upon weekends of driving my kids to sport and music and everything else as a positive thing."
	Comparing Current Situation Favourably to the Past and Recognising the Value of Multiple Roles	"I could just be a mother but work is an important part of my psyche."
	Reducing Standards	"I've had to learn not to be as critical on myself and more lesser standards I guess"
Active Role Management The individual makes direct attempts to manage, modify, or eliminate the source of role conflict.	Prioritising of Roles and Role Tasks	"If your house is dirty but someone's sick then it's easy to know who's first."
	Limiting or Modifying Role Demands	"I have started saying no to my manager when it comes to weekend work."
	Increased Planful Role Behaviour – Organisation, Planning, Time Management, and Immediate Action.	"To manage all the demands we are carefully organised."

Table 5.11 Continued

Coping types	Coping strategies	Examples from the transcripts
Compartmentalism The individual makes a deliberate attempt to separate roles cognitively and/or practically.		"A train trip to work is like a divider for me. I forget about home and focus on work" "I leave work and I don't take it home in any sense"

Discussion

Study 1 contributed to the body of work-family coping literature by developing a revised individual taxonomy of work-family coping.

Convergent Interviewing followed by content analysis revealed 8 coping types and 19 coping strategies. The results of the study demonstrated that many of the themes from other coping taxonomies were also reflected in the present taxonomy. (See Table 2.4 for a summary of the coping themes found in the literature). However, the inclusion of males and a more contemporary sample resulted in a modified range of coping types and strategies with respect to earlier taxonomies of work-family coping. Themes derived in Chapter 2 from both individual and dual-career/earner taxonomies were Cognitive Reappraisal, Partner, Friend, and Relative Support, External Support Services, Organisational Support, Recreation and Relaxation, Prioritising, Planning and Time Management, and Compartmentalism and Defense Mechanisms.

Eight of the nine themes derived from individual and dual-career literature emerged in the current research. The only theme that did not emerge was Defense Mechanisms. None of the participants reported that they used behaviours that could be identified as Defense Mechanisms to better cope with work-family demands. Such a finding may mean that male and female employees do not see the usefulness in using

defense mechanisms to better cope with work-family demands, or that in a face-to-face interview were unwilling to report such behaviours. The other themes from previous literature were all represented in the data. This supports the previous collective individual and dual-career/earner work-family research that identifies these categories (i.e., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Haddock et al., 2001; Hall, 1972; Muller, 1999; Schnittger & Bird; Skinner & McCubbin, 1981; Wiersma, 1990). One advantage of the current research taxonomy is that it includes the most common themes from the collective research in one model and pertains to both male and female employees. Furthermore, the current taxonomy uses terminology already familiar in the literature, and is designed to be easily understood by academics and organisational practitioners so that it can be used in further research and for practical purposes.

While five of the themes remain as expected in the present research (i.e., Cognitive Reappraisal, External Support Services, Organisational Support, Recreation and Relaxation, Compartmentalism), one theme was split into two themes, while another two themes were merged. The theme of Partner, Friend, and Relative Support, became two themes, i.e., Partner Support and Support from Family Members (other than partner) and Relatives, and Close Friends. This conceptual separation was due to the emphasis that participants placed on partner support. Almost every participant referred to at least one form of practical or emotional partner support. For example, one participant talked about communicating with her husband, while another participant mentioned having her partner help with practical tasks to get the baby ready for the day. Other forms of Family, Relative, and Friend Support were classified into a separate category, for example,

relying on parents to assist with child minding, or delegating household tasks to immediate family members.

Two themes previously separated that were merged in the current taxonomy were Planning and Time Management, and Prioritising. From the interview data, it appeared that these concepts were strongly linked in that prioritising was a way in which people planned and managed their time. For example, one participant reported that she thought about what her priorities were and planned ahead to say "No" to things when she felt she could not cope. The combined theme was labeled Active Role Management.

In keeping with Hall's (1972) and Amatea and Fong-Beyette's (1987) taxonomies, each of the themes could be further analysed into lower level themes or sub-themes. The previous authors referred to these as Coping Types and Coping Strategies. Later coping models were not as detailed, referring only to higher-level themes. In the following section, each of the coping types and strategies is discussed, compared and contrasted with findings in the previous literature.

Based on the findings from this research, Partner Support was defined as "the individual actively seeks out support from their partner, and establishes behaviours that assist in the reduction of work-family conflict". In the present study it contained two coping strategies: Seeking Emotional Support from the Partner and Seeking Practical Support from the Partner. Forms of emotional and practical support are mentioned in the early individual coping models but are not specific to Partner Support (Amatea & Fong Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972) (See Table 5.12).

Table 5.12

Support Strategies Documented in Early Individual Coping Taxonomies, which may Include Partner Support

Author	Type of coping	Coping strategy
Hall (1972)	Structural Role Redefinition	Role support from member of role set. Receiving help from role senders (usually in family) in performing activities necessary to meet role demands.
		Problem solving with role senders. Collaborative redefinition of roles. Moral support from or problem solving with role senders in deciding how to resolve conflicts.
Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	External Role Redefinition	Collaboratively problem-solves with role senders to modify role demands.
		Reallocates role demands so that other persons perform some role tasks.
		Problem solves with role senders to determine which role demands are most and least necessary.

The current research extends on the taxonomies by separating out Partner Support from the support obtained from others (e.g., the organisation, friends, relatives). Many of the models refer to Partner Support as only one aspect of social support (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987). A taxonomy that separates out forms of support is also different to the dual-career/earner models, which encapsulate Partner Support as a part of a broader support category (e.g., Wiersma, 1990). Other work-family research has also identified emotional and practical/instrumental support (Adams, King, & King, 1996). Adams et al. (1996) defined emotional support as “listening and providing empathy”, and practical support as “tangible assistance aimed at solving problems” (p. 412).

Support from Family Members (other than partner), Relatives and Close Friends is defined here as "The individual actively seeks out practical or emotional support from family members, relatives, and friends". As with Partner Support, such forms of support are mentioned in the early individual coping models but are not specific to the support provided by family, friends, and relatives (Amatea & Fong Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972) (See Table 5.13).

Table 5.13

Support Strategies Documented in Early Individual Coping Taxonomies, which may Include Family, Relative and Close Friend Support

Author	Type of coping	Coping strategy
Hall (1972)	Structural Role Redefinition	Role support from member of role set. Receiving help from role senders (usually in family) in performing activities necessary to meet role demands.
Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	External Role Redefinition	Reallocates role demands so that other persons perform some role tasks.

There is very little specific reference to family, relative, and friend support in work-family coping models, and indeed the wider work-family literature. Only Wiersma (1990) has talked about dividing chores among family members. More recently, Muller (1999) referred to emotional social support from friends and co-workers, and practical assistance from extended family members. The present research determined that there were three aspects to this type of support: Involving Family Members/Relatives in Decision Making and Practical Tasks, Seeking Practical Advice, or Support from Friends

and Relatives, and Seeking Emotional Support from Friends and Relatives. The family members most likely to be involved were the employee's children and their grandparents. The children were involved in home maintenance activities, cooking, or decision making, while the grandparents were typically asked to pick up children from school or provide childcare assistance. Support from family members, friends, and relatives may be increasingly crucial to employees' coping, as people are becoming more susceptible to work-family conflict. It may be that such support is becoming more socially acceptable, and asking for advice or support is now not something to be ashamed about.

Supportive or Family-Friendly Organisational Conditions is defined here as "The individual appreciates, and actively seeks out support from the organisation, and the direct work superior for whom they work". Consistent with the previously mentioned forms of support, Organisational Support could be partially covered by strategies mentioned in the individual coping models (i.e., Amatea & Fong Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972). However this type of support is not made explicit.

Table 5.14

Support Strategies Documented in Early Individual Coping Taxonomies, which may Include Organisational Support

Author	Type of coping	Coping strategy
Hall (1972)	Structural Role Redefinition	Problem solving with role senders. Collaborative redefinition of roles. Moral support from or problem solving with role senders in deciding how to resolve conflicts.
Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	External Role Redefinition	Collaboratively problem-solves with role senders to modify role demands.
		Problem solves with role senders to determine which role demands are most and least necessary.

Making explicit the theme of Organisational Support is one way in which the current model extends the earlier individual taxonomies. Although such a coping type was unlikely in the 1970s and 1980s when the earlier models were developed, there is a large amount of literature which now identifies its existence and usefulness (e.g., Caputo, 2000; Muller, 1999; Fredrikson & Scharlach, 1999; Golden, 2001). Two coping strategies emerged from the data. The first was Appreciating and Taking Advantage of Work Conditions and Organisational Policy. The second was Appreciating and Seeking Support from the Work Superior. One way in which this coping strategy differed from the other strategies is that when employees were able to simply appreciate work conditions, policy, or their work superior's attitude to work-family balance, they were better able to cope. For example, one interviewee talked about how her boss is a "great guy" when it comes to work-family balance.

Supportive work conditions and policies mentioned by participants included part time, casual, or consulting arrangements, flexible working hours, family leave, maternity leave, telecommuting, and a family-friendly work culture. Support from the work superior included re-negotiating work roles, being able to talk through work-family demands, being able to take work home, and a generally supportive attitude from the boss or supervisor with regard to work-family issues.

External Support Services is defined here as "The individual acquires external resources to assist in better performing role demands". Such a strategy is mentioned in both individual work-family coping models (i.e., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972).

Table 5.15

External Support Strategies Documented in Early Individual Coping Taxonomies

Author	Type of coping	Coping strategy
Hall (1972)	Structural Role Redefinition	Role support from outside role set. Employing outside help to assume certain role activities.
Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	External Role Redefinition	Acquires additional resources from outside the current role set to perform role demands

Other dual-career/earner taxonomies also refer to the procurement of external support strategies (e.g., Wiersma, 1990). However, taxonomies refer primarily to household help and babysitting services. The employment of external support services is now more complex than when earlier taxonomies of work-family coping were developed. The coping strategies identified in this research include Using Home Maintenance Services, Employing Day Care, Babysitting or other Child Minding Services, and Eating Takeaway/Going to Restaurants. The present findings imply that people are using pre-prepared food options more readily than in previous generations. As noted by Muller (1999), child-minding options are also more complex including babysitting, day care, and family day care. Research participants also referred to after school care.

Tension Reduction is defined here as "The individual seeks out activities aimed at taking care of oneself". Such a strategy is also referred to in the early individual models (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972) (See Table 5.16). Strategies aimed at tension reduction have also been mentioned in recent literature (Muller, 1999) and in the dual career/earner literature (e.g., Haddock et al., 2001; Skinner & McCubbin, 1981).

Table 5.16

Tension Reduction Strategies Documented in Early Individual Coping Taxonomies

Author	Type of coping	Coping strategy
Hall (1972)	Personal Role Redefinition	Develop self and own interests. See personal interests as valid source of role demands.
Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	Tension Reduction	Activities aimed at "taking care of self" (such as meditation, time away, mental health days, jogging, etc) are cultivated

Unlike earlier models, the current study identified three tension reducing coping strategies, viz., Participating in Exercise, Participating in Relaxing Activities, and Arranging to Have Time for Self. Such strategies may have been absent from earlier taxonomies because such models were constructed solely using women as respondents. Despite their working status, women in the 1970s and 1980s were likely to have still had primary responsibility for the children and household tasks. Such a workload is likely to have prevented women from having much time for recreational pursuits. The scarcity of childcare facilities is also likely to have impacted on women not having time to engage in tension reducing activities. More recently, fathers are thought to be more engaged in some aspects of their children's upbringing (Berry & Rao, 1997), which may enable women to participate more often in recreational activities. In addition, aspects of popular culture may encourage women to participate more readily in tension reducing strategies. For example, women's magazines are known to discuss the benefits of tension reducing strategies as well as encouraging women to participate.

It also seems likely that today's society has a greater emphasis on exercise and relaxation than in previous generations. One way this can be seen is in the burgeoning use in Australia of gymnasiums, massage therapists, aromatherapy and the like. Women and men are likely to place more emphasis on development of the self in activities separate from the family. Furthermore, couples tend to marry and /or have children later than they did in the 1970s and 1980s, which may contribute to a set of tension reducing interests that are established prior to the development of the family. Such interests are likely to be continued during their family life.

Active Cognitive Restructuring is defined here as "The individual makes cognitive attempts to re-evaluate the way in which he or she views or perceives their work-family situation". This strategy is identified by both Hall (1972) and Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987) (See Table 5.17), and is reflected to some degree in dual-career and other work-family research (i.e., Haddock et al., 2001; Muller, 1999; Schnittger & Bird, 1990; Skinner & McCubbin, 1981; Wiersma, 1994).

Table 5.17

Active Cognitive Restructuring Strategies Documented in Early Individual Coping Taxonomies

Author	Type of coping	Coping strategy
Hall (1972)	Personal Role Redefinition	Overlook role demands or reduce standards. Choose not to meet certain role demands
		Change attitudes toward roles or develop a new attitude which helps reduce conflicts.
Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	Cognitive Reappraisal	Changes in personal attitudes are consciously sought by the person to modify the meaning of the situation.
		Changes in personal attitudes are consciously sought by the person to modify the meaning of her response to the situation.

The current research identified three aspects of Active Cognitive Restructuring: Using Positive Affirmations to Feel Good about Self and Role Demands, Comparing Current Situation to the Past and Recognising the Value of Multiple Roles, and Reducing Standards. These three sub-themes are similar to those of previous models but are more specific. For example, Hall (1972) and Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987) refer to the person changing his or her personal attitude. This present model is more specific in saying that the individual uses positive affirmations about his or herself and his or her role demands. For example, one interviewee reported, “I’ve had to accept that I’m not the best mother….. and not the best employee but I’m the best I can be at the time” (positive affirmations about herself), while another reported “I love being a mother so I want to be a good mother to my son…” (positive affirmations about role demands). Such a

distinction provides two ways in which people change their personal attitudes about their work-family situation.

Another way in which the current model extends previous literature is in the identification of the coping strategy Comparing Current Situation Favourably to the Past and Recognising the Value of Multiple Roles. In this theme, interviewees recognise how their life is more enriched by undertaking more than one role. For example one interviewee reported, "….I guess you do it (take on more than one role) 'cause you want to…. It's for a better life for ourselves and for our kids". Such a strategy is reflected reliably in the dual-career scale by Schnittger and Bird (1990).

Active Role Management is defined here as "The individual makes direct attempts to manage, modify, or eliminate the source of role conflict". Active Role Management strategies were present in the earlier models of individual work-family coping (i.e., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972) (See Table 5.18). Such strategies are also well represented in other work-family and dual-career research (i.e., Haddock et al., 2001; Muller, 1999; Wiersma, 1994).

Table 5.18

Active Role Management Strategies Documented in Early Individual Coping Taxonomies

Author	Type of coping	Coping strategy
Hall (1972)	Personal Role Redefinition	Establish priorities for roles or within roles. Rank activities in order of importance.
		Rotate attention from one role to another. Handle each role as it comes up.
	Reactive Role Behaviour	Plan, schedule, organise better. Increase efficiency of role performance
Amatea & Fong-Beyette (1987)	Increased Planful Role Behaviour	Attempts to meet all demands by working more efficiently, planning their time and energies more carefully to fit everything.
	Internal Role Redefinition	Consciously examines personal role expectations and standards with an eye toward maximizing those that are most valued and necessary.
		Establishes priorities within and between roles, ranking activities in order of personal importance.
		Consciously modifies standards and looks over some role demands.

Sub-themes identified in the current research mostly reflect earlier literature and include Prioritising of Roles and Role Tasks, Limiting or Modifying Role Demands, and Increased Planful Role Behaviour – Organisation, Planning, Time Management, and Immediate Action. Immediate Action is the only aspect not specifically identified in previous individual models. Some of the interviewees expressed a desire to resolve work-family related issues as soon as possible. For example, “I’ll try to do something about that (interviewees reaction to increasing demands) immediately rather than let things brew for a while.”

Interestingly, Hall (1972) identified "Plan, Schedule, Organize Better. Increase Efficiency of Role Performance" as a Reactive Role Behaviour (Type III) strategy. Although Type III strategies are typically found to be ineffective (e.g., Hall, 1972; Gray, 1983; Schachar & Gilbert, 1979), participants in the present research labeled planning, scheduling, and organising as an effective strategy. One possible reason for this is that the meaning of the strategy differs between the two studies. Hall (1972) talked about these skills increasing the efficiency of role performance, which may mean simply working harder and faster. However, Hall did not provide a clear definition. Alternatively, the current research indicated that such skills are used to better manage the role demands, and not simply to assist trying to work harder and faster.

A final strategy, Compartmentalism, is defined as "The individual makes a deliberate attempt to separate roles cognitively and/or practically". It is reflected only in Hall's (1972) taxonomy, and is not represented in that by Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987). Hall classified it within Personal Role Redefinition and referred to it as "Partition and separate roles. Devote full attention to a given role when in that role. Attempt to minimise simultaneous overlap of roles." Compartmentalism is also referred to by Haddock et al. (2001). An additional distinction made in the current research is that Compartmentalism can be cognitive and practical. For example, "I don't try and do work at home if I can help it. Generally I don't have time to do it at home anyway" is an example of practical compartmentalism. An example of cognitive compartmentalism is "…a train trip to work is the divider for me…that train trip changes me from work to home." However practical and cognitive components of compartmentalism were not always easy to separate, and therefore two sub-scales were not formed. For example,

"…..I really try and sort of separate what's happening at home from work. It's really important that you do that. You can't bring you know, conflict from home to work and vice versa so, but that's something I've had to learn."

Another finding in this research may highlight a possible gender difference. Whereas women reported compartmentalising roles, some men actually talked about their roles separately during the interview. For example, when one interviewee was asked to describe how he coped with his work-family demands, he talked firstly about how he coped with work, and then about how he coped with home. Even when the question was reiterated, he continued to respond in this manner. Such a response pattern may indicate that some men compartmentalise their roles so effectively that they even conceptualise and think about them separately.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study provides a framework for understanding the employee's work-family coping strategies. It provides a series of coping types and strategies that are relevant to both males and females. Most of the types and strategies have also been reflected in previous literature giving support to their existence in other populations. Nevertheless, there are several limitations to this research.

First, the current research was conducted on a group of white-collar (professional and clerical) staff from a single organisation. All the men were in full-time employment, whereas six of the women were employed in situations other than full-time. Almost all the sample was married. At the time of the study, the organisation was thought to be appropriate because of its large size and diverse workforce. In retrospect, a sample taken from a number of workplaces, and in a number of varied family situations may have been

more appropriate. Although these staff differed on a number of demographic characteristics (e.g., age, number of children, marital status, job level), scale development and subsequent investigation needs to sample more widely. Furthermore, very little research has been conducted on blue-collar populations. Such a research population is difficult to gain access to for a number of reasons, e.g., literacy levels, union-management conflict.

Second, although the interview methodology has many benefits as discussed earlier, such a methodology may deter some participants from talking about coping strategies that put them in a less favourable light (Babbie, 1992).

Chapter 5 has documented a revised Individual Taxonomy of Work-Family Coping and its development process. Chapter 6 documents the development of a measure based on this taxonomy, which is then used in subsequent research.

CHAPTER 6: THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INDIVIDUAL WORK-FAMILY COPING MEASURE (STUDY 2 PART 1)

Chapter Overview

As discussed in Chapter 2, few measures exist that represent individual work-family coping taxonomies. As such, the purpose of Study 2 Part 1 was to develop a measure of individual work-family coping based on the taxonomy developed in Study 1. This chapter details the method of the study including a discussion of the participants, the work-family coping measure and its development and analysis. A description of the method is followed by the results of the study, including the final scales with their items and item reliabilities. The chapter compares and contrasts the new measure with other work-family coping measures.

Method

Participants

A convenience sampling approach was used in the present study. Such a technique is used frequently in academic research (e.g., DeVon & Zerwic, 2003; Joiner, 2004). Benefits of this approach are ease of contact with potential participants, and higher response rates. A key weakness is the increased likelihood of biasing the type of respondents. In this case, respondents were biased towards those with a higher level of education.

Participants were initially identified from the researcher's personal contacts. The researcher approached people within her social network and invited them to participate. Participants were either approached personally, via email, or by mail. The participants

were also asked if they would consider distributing one or two of the questionnaires to their work colleagues. Many participants distributed from one to ten additional questionnaires to their work colleagues. To ensure anonymity, each participant was supplied with a return addressed envelope for the questionnaire that they completed and for any they supplied to their work colleagues.

There were two requirements to be met for inclusion in the study. The first requirement of participants was that they were employed either full time or part time, or that they considered their study to be their current form of employment. For example, many postgraduate students on a scholarship considered their studies to be their employment. A second requirement was that the participant lived with at least one other family member (e.g., spouse, child, parent), or someone that they considered to be their family (e.g., partner, step-parent).

Of the 520 questionnaires distributed, 296 usable questionnaires were returned representing a 57% response rate. The responses for 29 questionnaires were deleted because of excessive missing data or inconsistent responses. For example, two participants reported that they were single and did not have children and yet responded to questions regarding partner support and childcare. A final sample of 267 was achieved.

The sample consisted of 116 males (43.4%) and 151 females (56.6%). The age of participants ranged from 17 to 67 years (Mean = 35.2, SD = 11.61). Approximately half the participants were married (n = 127, 47.6%), while other participants were either single (n = 49, 18.4%), lived with their partner (n = 45, 16.9%), or had a partner they did not live with (n = 29, 10.9%). A small number of the sample were separated or divorced (n = 16, 6%), with only one participant widowed (n = 1, 0.4%). 125 participants had

children (46.8%), while 142 participants did not have children (53.2%). The mean number of children for participants who did have children was 2.2.

Almost half the sample had either a university undergraduate (n = 73, 27.3%) or postgraduate degree (n = 61, 22.8%) as their highest level of education. Fewer of the participants had completed only grade 12 (n = 49, 18.4%) or only grade 10 (n = 32, 12%). Some of the sample had obtained technical college certificates (n = 23, 8.6%), Diplomas or Associate Diplomas (n = 14, 5.2%), and University Diplomas (n = 15, 5.4%). One person did not identify his or her highest level of education (0.4%). Most participants were not still living at home with their parents (n = 225, 84.3%), and a small number were still at home with their parents (n = 40, 15%).

Procedure

Questionnaire Development

A pool of items was used to develop an initial individual work-family coping measure. Questionnaire items were selected or constructed based on the coping types identified in Study 1. The coping strategies were used to guide item generation. For example, items reflected both the practical and emotional aspects of Partner Support.

Although each item was intended to reflect comments provided by interviewees in Study 1, some items were derived from reliable existing scales in the wider psychological literature. Items were adopted from the following questionnaires: The Strategic Approach to Coping Questionnaire (SACS) (Hobfall, et al., 1994), The Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ) (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988), Coping Skills Inventory (Jerabek, 1996), The COPE Scale (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989), Work Social Support Scale (Etzion, 1984).

Questions from the existing inventories that were applied were modified to reflect the qualitative data and the Likert-scale format. A complete list of the questions adopted from existing literature, their modifications, and relevant references can be found in Appendix D.

Items in the existing literature could not always be found to reflect the qualitative data. For example, items pertaining to Partner Support were prevalent, and there was a small pool of items available for scales such as Active Cognitive Restructuring. Conversely, items pertaining to the scale of External Support Services were not readily available. To increase the number of items, and enhance their work-family relevance, a large number of items were generated based on the qualitative interview data gathered in Study 1. For example, the Organisational Support question: "I take advantage of the supportive family work options that this organisation offers (e.g., maternity leave, flexible working hours, family leave)" was developed from information provided by a number of the interviewees in Study 1. Interviewees indicated that these Organisational Support policies were important for them in managing their work-family conflict. Table 6.1 provides two example questionnaire items and the data chunks from which they were generated.

Table 6.1

Example Questionnaire Items and their Relationship to the Qualitative Data

Questionnaire item	Excerpts from qualitative data
I use hired help to achieve some of my role demands (e.g., gardener, housekeeper, childcare)	So I would prefer to have someone come in and do it while I'm not there and pay a few dollars to get it done to give you that bit of time. Yeah but you know I guess on the weekends I still you could do that stuff but when you've done your two hours of shopping and your rugby and you come home and you've still got a few hours left you can weigh up whether you should go do those jobs that you should have done or sit down and put your feet up for a while. We have a nanny look after the kids on those days. So we're sort of lucky. We arrive home and the kids are bathed and they've been fed and they've had a good time. They've had an ice-cream and they've been to the park and all that sort of stuff. Yeah I suppose that was a conscious effort, we sort of looked for a nanny situation where um the nanny would be looking after the kids in the home as opposed to they're just in a childcare environment you know which means that just I suppose being organised that extra hour early in the morning to have them at the gate. Ah, if my husband and I go out to special things at night or on the weekends we'll use babysitters. We're in a situation where we have no family around us. I mean none. So we haven't got any other alternative. I have a cleaning lady who comes into my house one day a week and she does four hours of cleaning and ironing. We have a gardener who comes and does the yard so that on the weekends we're not spending time doing that sort of stuff. And um, babysitters if we have to go out but we're not people who go out a lot so we probably use a babysitter once a month.
I focus on thinking positively about the situation.	So I've tried to look upon it as a positive thing saying hey well this weekend I only have to drive two hundred kilometres and go and do this and do that and you know in trying to look at it that way. I think it's important to be positive about it, about the chores that you have to do….. but I think it's important to be positive about it otherwise you do just feel it's something you have to do. I try to treat it as, well I'm going to enjoy this and I'm going to music and it's going to be fun and ah if it's not then at least you've got the build up to it. At least thinking it's going to be positive is one approach. Yeah I suppose trying to think positively about them (competing roles), to the benefits from all of them. It's easy to think oh God I've got all these bloody things to do where as you should be thinking well it's just fun yeah. I'm here at work now. I may as well do as much work as I can and go home soon. Then on the weekends think oh good time to look after the kids. You get a bit trapped if you think weekends again more bloody soccer and athletics and swimming. You sort of try and think positively about it I think it's important to try to think positively. After all it's a pretty good life that we all have here. No problems really.

The initial questionnaire comprised items derived from the coping literature, and items derived from the qualitative data in Study 1. A total of 32 items were adopted from the existing literature, and 45 items were developed from the data in the present research. Appendix D details the origin of each item. The number of items for each scale were: Partner Support (9), External Support Services (7), Support from Family Members (other than partner), Relatives, and Friends (10), Family-Friendly Organisational Conditions (11), Active Cognitive Restructuring (12), Active Role Management (13), Tension Reduction (9), Compartmentalism (6). Table 6.2 provides examples of questionnaire items and their source.

Table 6.2

Examples of Questionnaire Items, Their Source, Original Wording, and Author of Original Item

Scale	Example Item	Source	Original wording (if relevant)	Author/s of original item (if relevant)
Partner Support	I depend on myself to manage, but will rely on my partner if I need help.	Existing literature	Depend on yourself, but at the same time rely on others.	Hobfall, Dunahoo, & Monnier (1994)
External Support Services	I pay people to do chores.	Study 1 Interviews	Non-applicable	NA
Support from Family Members (other than partner), Relatives, and Close Friends	I check with a friend or relative about what they would do.	Existing literature	Check with friends about what they would do.	Hobfall, Dunahoo, & Monnier (1994)
Supportive or Family-Friendly Organisational Conditions	I am assertive with my work superior in negotiating my work role.	Study 1 Interviews	Non-applicable	NA
Active Cognitive Restructuring	I look for the silver lining.	Existing literature	Looked for the silver lining so to speak; tried to look on the bright side of things.	Folkman & Lazarus (1988)
Active Role Management	I carefully allocate my time so that I get things done.	Study 1 Interviews	Non-applicable	NA
Tension Reduction	I find that time for myself is important to me.	Existing literature	Having time for myself is important to me.	Jerabek (1996)
Compartmentalism	It helps me to keep my work and family roles separate from each other.	Study 1 Interviews	Non-applicable	NA

Note: Each question begins with the wording “When I am having difficulty achieving both my work and family demands….”

The number of items in the original pool was 74. Table 6.3 lists the coping types represented on the initial questionnaire, an explanation for each, and an example item.

Table 6.3

Study 2 Initial Questionnaire Themes

Coping type	Explanation	Example item
Partner Support	Actively seeks out social contact from the spouse for a. emotional support and comfort and/or b. practical "hands on" support.	I always talk to my partner to get out my frustrations.
External Support Services	Acquires additional resources from outside the current role set to perform role demands.	I often employ the services of a childcare center or babysitter.
Support from Family Members (other than partner), Relatives, and Close Friends	Actively seeks out practical and/or emotional support from friends and relatives (other than the partner).	I ask a close friend or relative for practical support (e.g., helping out with tasks that need doing).
Supportive or Family-Friendly Organisational Conditions	Actively seeks out practical and/or emotional support from the place of employment, including support from an immediate supervisor.	I am assertive with my work superior in negotiating my work role.
Active Cognitive Restructuring	Consciously changes personal attitudes to modify the meaning of situations. This includes controlling or reframing thought patterns such as positive thoughts, self talk, and gaining perspective.	I remind myself that my life is better having both a work and family role.
Active Role Management	Actively attempts to manage, modify, or eliminate the source of a role conflict situation.	I take immediate action to get rid of the problem.
Tension Reduction	Participating in activities aimed at taking care of oneself.	I find that time for myself is important for me.
Compartmentalism	Working to mentally and physically separate the demands of home from the demands of work.	I only deal with one role at a time.

Note: On the top of the each page before the questions was the phrase “When I am having difficulty achieving both my work and family demands…….”

Each of the items was accompanied by a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). There was also a NA (non-applicable) option for each question to allow for questions that were not relevant to some respondents. For example, the item "I often employ the services of a childcare center or babysitter" would only be relevant to participants who had young children.

Each participant was provided with a questionnaire booklet. A cover sheet identified the project title, chief investigator and supervisor's name and contact details, information about the research, the issue of informed consent, estimated time for participants to complete the questionnaire, and contact details for the University Ethics Officer if the participant had any concerns (See Appendix E).

Results

Prior to analysis, the data set was examined for accuracy of data entry. Data cleaning ensured that no incorrect values had been entered. A non-applicable (NA) option on the questionnaire resulted in more missing data than was originally expected. As discussed earlier, substantial amounts of missing data resulted in discarding a number of questionnaires prior to data entry. Cases where 20% or greater of responses were missing or marked non-applicable were discarded. In addition, variables that had more than 20% of data missing across the data set were removed from the analysis. This resulted in the deletion of four items: "I often employ the services of a childcare center or babysitter", "My child/children assist with tasks around the house so I have much more time to devote to work", "I take advantage of the supportive family work options that this organisation offers (e.g., maternity leave, flexible working hours, family leave", and "My child/children go to day care so my partner and I get the chance to work". For the

remainder of the items, group means were used as estimates for missing values as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001).

Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

Data Screening

For each variable the skewness and kurtosis of the distribution were examined to identify any violations of univariate normality. Two variables had severe negative skews. These variables were reflected before an inverse transformation was applied. The transformations resulted in a more normal distribution. A larger number of variables had moderate negative skewness. These variables were reflected before a square root transformation was applied (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). These transformations also resulted in a more normal distribution. PCAs were carried out on both the transformed and non-transformed data. While there were small differences in the orders in which some of the variables were placed for each factor, there were no differences in the overall factor structure. As such, the analyses conducted on the non-transformed data were retained.

The factorability of the correlation matrices was confirmed using a number of criteria recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). First, as required for PCA, the correlation matrices were found to have a number of sizeable correlations greater than .30. Second, Bartlett's test of sphericity was applied, which resulted in a chi-square value of 6725.822 (df 2701) which was statistically significant ($p<.01$). Third, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .81, which falls within the range .76 or greater recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001).

Extraction Technique and Method of Rotation

A common use of PCA is to aid in the development of tests for measurement (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). PCA is one statistical technique that can be applied to a set of variables where the aim of the research is to identify which variables in the set form relatively independent subsets. Furthermore, PCA allows for the computation of an individual's score on each component (Velicer & Jackson, 1990). As such, the analysis enables the reduction of a larger set of variables into a smaller, relatively independent subsets of variables. It also allows for the computation of individuals' scores on a component. This was seen as the most appropriate statistical analysis for the present research as the aim of the current study was to develop a measure of work-family coping by reducing a larger number of variables to a smaller set. Individuals' scores on the components were also desired so that subsequent analysis could be conducted on the data set (see Chapter 7).

The varimax method of orthogonal rotation is used frequently in statistical analysis (Coakes & Steed, 2001) and was selected for the current research. In the present PCA, varimax rotation resulted in a solution with simple structure. As such, each component was represented by a subset of variables with large loadings, with each variable loading highly on only a subset of the factors.

Selection and Interpretation of Components

The PCA was constrained to eight factors in line with the findings from Study 1. Seven factors were easily interpretable in terms of the Taxonomy of Individual Work-Family Coping developed in Study 1 [2]. Each of the seven factors had eigenvalues greater

[2] To ensure that a constrained PCA did not distort any conclusion made, an unconstrained PCA was also conducted. There were only minor differences between the results of the two types of PCA. A number of weaker additional factors were noted in the unconstrained PCA however they consisted of only two or three items and were not able to be interpreted in light of the present research.

than 3. In addition, a scree plot of eigenvalues was examined for discontinuities and alterations in the slope. While such a process is subjective, the scree lines further confirmed that the seven components extracted provided an appropriate solution. An eighth factor emerged but only consisted of three items and was not easily interpretable in light of the current research. As such, only seven components were considered.

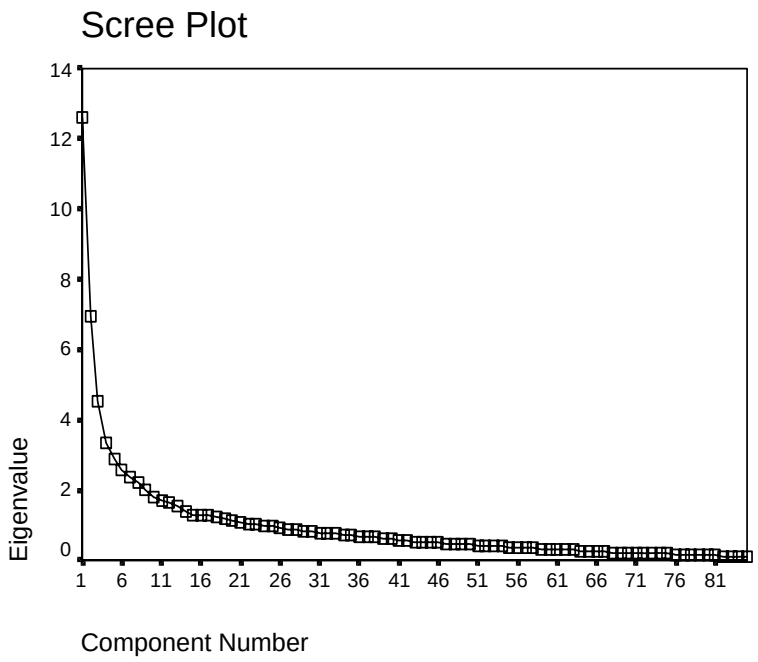

Figure 6.1 Scree plot

When interpreting components, there are a number of proposed guidelines as to what constitutes a meaningful loading. However, despite such guidelines, selecting loading cut-offs is typically based on researcher discretion (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). One guide suggests variable loadings from .1 to .3 as small relationships, .3 to .5 as moderate, and > .5 as high (Pallant, 2001). A more precise guide provided by Comery and Lee (1992) describes variable loadings greater than .71 as excellent, .63 as very good, .55 as good, .45 as fair, and .32 as poor. For the purposes of the current research, a criterion of .4 was adopted as a meaningful loading.

Component labels were initially created by three organisational psychologists who were all experts in qualitative analysis. After instructions were provided by the researcher, the labeling process was initially undertaken without consultation between the experts. After the process had been conducted independently, final labels were derived from the group feedback. While some of the wording was slightly different for each expert, labels allocated to each component were consistent across the three experts. For example, one component was labeled Tension Reduction, Recreation, and Relaxation.

The researcher selected the label that seemed to best represent all three label suggestions. The following were the final labels selected: Direct Role Management, Partner Support, Tension Reduction, Cognitive Restructuring, Friend and Relative Support, Workplace Support, and Reducing Role Demands.

Statistical Analysis

The eight components that emerged accounted for 45.5% of the variance. Using the .4 criterion, 23 items failed to load on any component and were dropped from the analysis. Table 6.4 demonstrates the variance accounted by each component, and the item loadings from the PCA[3].

[3] Table 6.4 demonstrates the loadings for each factor on a single item only. No "cross-loadings" (.4 or greater) were evident on other items.

Table 6.4

Item loadings, Communalities (h^2), and Eigenvalues for Principal Components Analysis (item loadings under .4 are suppressed)

Item	Survey Question	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	h^2
94	I plan what I am going to do and concentrate on each step	.756								.649
128	I make a plan of action and follow it	.731								.631
74	I carefully allocate my time so I get things done	.647								.545
139	I make a list of tasks in order of importance	.641								.491
85	I set clear priorities so I feel less pressured and more in control	.605								.494
92	I break up the problem into smaller parts and then, and then deal with the smaller parts based on priority	.551								.439
2	I take immediate action to get rid of the problem	.412								.238
33	I talk to my partner to develop my understanding of the situation		.744							.647
133	I find that my ability to cope is strongly influenced by the emotional support provided by my partner		.707							.552
43	I never talk to my partner about how I am feeling		.707							.616

Table 6.4 Continued

Item	Survey Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	h^2
23	I always talk to my partner to get out my frustrations		.689							.549
56	I communicate my needs to my partner		.674							.598
104	I seek out support from my partner when I need the opportunity to "take time off" from my work and family demands		.586							.632
11	I depend on myself to manage, but will rely on my partner if I need help		.564							.241
20	I take time out to relax			.746						.598
49	I make time for recreation (e.g., sports, reading, television, movies)			.724						.637
91	I do something to take my mind away from it all			.709						.585
61	I cope by taking time out to do enjoyable activities			.707						.572
112	I engage in activities I enjoy			.624						.540
84	I prefer not to take time out for myself to rest			.585						.435
72	I go to the movies, or watch tv to get away from it all.			.529						.353
8	I find that time for myself is important to me.			.477						.444
111	I count my blessings knowing that I have more than one role in life				.773					.676
106	I think about how lucky I am to have the ability to do more than one role.				.765					.656
100	I look for something good in what's happening				.655					.603
105	I work on seeing things in a more positive light				.654					.612

Table 6.4 Continued

Item	Survey Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	h^2
116	I focus on thinking positively about the situation				.650					.622
53	I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to change things about myself in a positive way				.564					.536
48	I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to rediscover what is important in life				.550					.526
103	I ask a close friend or relative for emotional support					.780				.695
51	I often ask a friend or relative I respect for advice					.767				.693
107	I prefer not to ask a close friend or relative to help me out					.721				.638
17	I check with a friend or relative about what they would do					.720				.563
70	I do not need to have emotional support from a friend or relative					.654				.573
96	I ask a close friend or relative for practical support (helping out with tasks that need doing)					.628				.439
38	I am able to cope because my workplace allows me the opportunity to perform my job, as well as allowing time to perform home-related duties adequately						.731			.599
114	I find that my work superior's management style allows me to cope more effectively						.713			.554
108	I appreciate that my work superior is understanding when I need support						.706			.535

Table 6.4 Continued

Item	Survey Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	h^2
28	I am able to cope because my workplace accepts my family responsibility needs						.701			.547
52	My ability to cope is assisted by the part time or flex-time opportunities my workplace allows						.681			.533
97	I find that my work superior makes the situation less stressful by discussing work-family related problems						.642			.498
66	My ability to cope is assisted by the part-time or flex-time opportunities my workplace allows						.527			.393
5	I hire outside support							.837		.755
54	I pay people to do chores							.820		.763
12	I frequently use support services to give me the time to attend to other tasks							.811		.720
82	I try to relax certain standards I have for how I do things to decrease the pressure I am feeling							.653		.580
135	I try to relax certain standards I have for how I do things to decrease the pressure I am feeling							.435		.232
60	I constantly remind myself that I cannot do everything							.418		.222

Table 6.4 Continued

Item	Survey Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	h^2
13	It helps to keep my work and family roles separate from each other								.455	.341
35	I work on mentally separating my work and family roles								.440	.376
22	I need practical support from my work superior								.431	.309
	% of variance	15.829	6.384	6.089	4.101	3.838	3.411	3.103	2.741	

Reliability analysis

A reliability analysis was conducted to identify the five most reliable items for each component identified in the factor analysis. A reduction of each component to five items was done to develop an individual work-family coping scale that was an appropriate length to be used in research. The purpose of having an equal number of items in each scale was also to make scoring and scale comparisons easier.

The reliability analysis was conducted applying Cronbach's alpha. First, the set of items loading on a component were analysed, to select the five items which resulted in the highest overall reliability for the component scale and the best five items were retained. Reliabilities for all seven of the factors were greater than .80, which is well above what is generally considered to be appropriate for research purposes (Nunnally, 1994). When using the five items that loaded the most highly on each factor, the reliabilities were as follows: Direct Role Management (.85), Partner Support (.87), Tension Reduction (.84), Cognitive Restructuring (.88), Friend and Relative Support

(.87), Workplace Support (.83), and Reducing Personal Role Demands (.84). The intercorrelations between the subscales are presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5

Inter-correlations between the work-family coping scales

	Family and Relative Support	Partner Support	Workplace Support	Tension Reduction	Support Services	Direct Role Management
Family and Relative Support						
Partner Support	.444					
Workplace Support	.223	.241				
Tension Reduction	.184	.386	.131			
Support Services	.237	.009	.319	.135		
Direct Role Management	.187	.426	.280	.467	.241	
Cognitive Restructuring	.210	.323	.323	.354	.204	.477

Note: Correlations greater than .184 are significant ($p<.05$)

The five items making up each construct were then scrutinised more carefully to see whether they were conceptually distinct from each other. While it was assumed that the items representing each construct would have similarities, each item needed to assess a slightly different aspect of the construct. In some cases it was found that two or more items were too conceptually similar. In these cases, the items were substituted by other items that loaded onto the same factor but were conceptually distinct. For example, two highly similar items representing Friend and Relative Support were “I ask a close friend for emotional support” and “I do not need to have emotional support from a close friend or relative”. One of these items was replaced by a more conceptually distinct item.

Although it was understood that this process would reduce the internal reliability of the scales, it was expected to increase content validity. Moreover, participants often do not respond well to filling out a questionnaire with highly similar questions.

A second reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha was then conducted for the modified five items to confirm that construct reliability was still good enough to be used for research purposes. In some cases, the reliabilities were lower than was evident in the initial reliability analysis, but in all cases they were still high enough to be considered appropriate. See Table 6.6 for the final construct questions and their reliabilities. The final measure was named the Individual Work-Family Coping Questionnaire (IWFCQ).

Table 6.6

Constructs, Final Questions and Reliabilities on the IWFCQ

Construct label	Final questions	Reliability
Direct Role Management	I plan what I am going to do and concentrate on each step. I make a list of tasks in order of importance. I carefully allocate my time so I get things done. I set clear priorities so that I feel less pressured and more in control. I take immediate action to get rid of the problem.	.78
Partner Support	I talk to my partner to develop my understanding of the situation. I never talk to my partner about how I am feeling. I always talk to my partner to get out my frustrations. I communicate my needs to my partner. I depend on myself to manage, but will rely on my partner if I need help.	.80
Tension Reduction	I take time out to relax. I do something to take my mind away from it all. I make time for recreation (e.g., sports, reading, tv, movies). I cope by taking time out to do enjoyable activities. I find that time to myself is important to me.	.80
Cognitive Restructuring	I think about how lucky I am to have the ability to do more than one role. I count my blessings knowing I have more than one role in life. I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to change things about myself in a positive way. I work on seeing things in a more positive light. I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to rediscover what is important in life.	.83
Friend and Relative Support	I prefer not to ask a close friend or relative to help me out. I ask a close friend or relative for emotional support. I often ask a friend or relative I respect for advice. I ask a close friend or relative for practical support (e.g., tasks that need doing). I check with a friend or relative about what they would do.	.86
Workplace Support	I am able to cope because my workplace allows me the opportunity to perform my job, as well as allowing time to perform home related duties adequately. I appreciate that my work superior is understanding when I need support. I find that my work superior makes the problem less stressful by discussing work-family related problems. I am able to cope because my workplace accepts my family responsibility needs. My ability to cope is assisted by the part-time or flex-time opportunities my workplace allows.	.81
Reducing Personal Role Demands	I frequently use support services to give me the time to attend to other tasks. I hire outside support. I pay people to do chores. I constantly remind myself I cannot do everything. I try to relax certain standards I have for how I do things to decrease the pressure I am feeling.	.84

Note: On the top of the each page before the questions was the phrase "When I am having difficulty achieving both my work and family demands……."

Discussion

Work-family Coping Measure

The work-family coping measure developed in this study mostly reflected the findings from Study 1. The seven scales all reflected key coping types that emerged from the qualitative data analysis. The only coping type from Study 1 not found was Compartmentalism. The scales also reflected 15 of the 19 coping strategies found in Study 1. Consistent with Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987) and Hall (1972), coping types are the focus of the present research. However it is the coping strategies reflected by the items that bring depth to each of the scales. For example, the coping type of Tension Reduction includes three different aspects: Exercise, Relaxation, and Time for Self. Table 6.7 demonstrates the coping types and strategies found in Study 1, and whether they were represented in the coping measure.

Table 6.7

Coping Types and Strategies - A Comparison Between the Findings of Study 1 and 2

Coping types	Coping strategies	Representation in research
Direct Role Management	Prioritising of Roles and Role Tasks	Study 1 and 2
	Limiting or Modifying Role Demands	Study 1
	Increased Planful Role Behaviour – Organisation, Planning, Time Management, and Immediate Action.	Study 1 and 2
Partner Support	Seeking Emotional Support from the Partner	Study 1 and 2
	Seeking Practical Support from the Partner	Study 1 and 2
Tension Reduction	Participating in Exercise	Study 1 and 2
	Participating in Relaxing Activities	Study 1 and 2
	Arranging to have Time for Self	Study 1 and 2
Cognitive Restructuring	Using Positive Affirmations to Feel Good about Self and Role Demands	Study 1 and 2
	Comparing Current Situation Favourably to the Past and Recognising the Value of Multiple Roles	Study 1 and 2
	Reducing Standards	Study 1 – Cognitive Restructuring Study 2 – Reducing Demands
Friend and Relative Support	Involving Family Members/Relatives in Decision Making and Practical Tasks	Study 1
	Seeking Practical Advice or Support from Friends and Relatives	Study 1 and 2
	Seeking Emotional Support from Friends and Relatives	Study 1 and 2
Workplace Support	Appreciating and Taking Advantage of Work Conditions and Organisational Policy	Study 1 and 2
	Appreciating and Seeking Support from the Work Superior	Study 1 and 2
Reducing Role Demands	Using Home Maintenance Services.	Study 1 and 2
	Employing Day Care, Babysitting, or other Child-Minding Services	Questions eliminated prior to analysis due to missing data
	Eating Takeaway/Going to Restaurants	Study 1
Compartmentalism		Study 1

As reported in Chapter 2, these coping types have each been reflected in some way by at least two individual or dual-career/earner work-family coping taxonomies in the literature (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette; Hall, 1972; Wiersma, 1990). However, some of the types and their corresponding strategies have not been reflected in the individual work-family coping literature. As discussed in Chapter 2, this is most likely to be attributed to the age of the models used in the majority of work-family literature.

Items representing three forms of social support were identified in the factor analysis. These included Partner Support, Friend and Relative Support, and Workplace Support. This is in contrast to previous work-family coping scales that tend to group forms of social support together (e.g., Skinner & McCubbin, 1981), or not include social support at all (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1993; Lang & Markowitz, 1986). Unlike previous scales, Partner Support and Friend and Relative Support consist of items reflecting people's need to seek out assistance on both an emotional and practical level. Previous research focuses more on gaining emotional support for such people (e.g., Hall, 1972). Workplace Support is a coping type that has been largely un-represented in work-family coping scales, possibly because it is a strategy more relevant to current living. The scale consists of items pertaining to both supervisor support and workplace policy and conditions.

In the IWFCQ, the scale of Reducing Personal Role Demands comprises items pertaining to hiring external support and working cognitively to reduce self imposed pressure. The items making up this scale were not all expected to load together. Items regarding hired help were expected to correlate (e.g., I hire outside support), but items reflecting cognitive attempts to reduce self imposed pressure were not (e.g., I constantly remind myself that I cannot do everything). The taxonomy developed in Study 1 regarded

Reducing Standards as an aspect of Cognitive Restructuring. The factor analysis demonstrated that Reducing Standards was more closely linked with seeking out External Support Services. Other items that were expected to load on this scale were items pertaining to childcare and babysitting facilities. However, as discussed earlier, these items were removed from analysis because of the large amount of missing data. While some of the earlier measures of work-family coping have included the concepts of hiring external support (e.g., Skinner & McCubbin, 1984) and reducing personal standards (e.g., Gilbert & Holahan, 1982; Lang & Markowitz, 1986), none have linked these two concepts together.

Tension Reduction has been included in only two previous measures of work-family coping (i.e., Holahan & Gilbert, 1982; Skinner & McCubbin, 1981), despite its emphasis in a number of the taxonomies (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972). Consistent with the taxonomy developed in Study 1, three aspects of the Tension Reduction strategy are reflected in the present measure. These include participating in exercise and relaxing activities, as well as having time to oneself.

Aspects of Cognitive Restructuring have been reflected in a number previous scales of work-family coping, for example, Maintaining Perspective (Skinner & McCubbin, 1981) and Focusing on the Advantages of the Dual-Career Lifestyle (Schnittger & Bird, 1990). The present model also includes Cognitive Restructuring items which are derived from two strategies. These include Using Positive Affirmations to Feel Good about Self and Role Demands and Recognising the Value of Multiple Roles.

Direct Role Management is the final coping type represented by the new work-family coping measure. Previous work-family coping measures have included Direct Role Management in a variety of ways. For example, Good Personal Organization and Attitude (Kirchmeyer, 1993) and Planned Task Management (Lang & Markowitz, 1986). The present measure includes two of the three strategies identified in Study 1. These are Prioritising of Roles and Role Tasks and Increased Planful Role Behaviour. Items representing Limiting or Modifying Role Demands did not load onto the factor as expected.

Contrary to expectations, Compartmentalism was not adequately represented as an independent factor. Compartmentalism was the only coping type found in Study 1 that did not clearly emerge as a factor in Study 2. Such a coping factor has been reported by Schnittger and Bird (1990). It is unclear why these items did not form a factor in the current research.

Research Limitations and Future Research

A limitation of the IWFCQ and its development is that not all aspects of the taxonomy were included. This is particularly relevant for the items regarding babysitting and childcare. Because many people in the sample did not have young children, there were not enough responses on these items to include them in the analysis. Conversely, in Study 1, many of the participants talked about their use of childcare and babysitting to cope with their work-family demands. In future development of this measure, it would be useful to include enough parents of young children to allow these items to be assessed.

Despite the limitation, this study is the first to follow a more rigorous research design to develop a measure based on a taxonomy of individual work-family coping. The

results of Study 1 and 2 enable the development of hypotheses and a more thorough investigation of the research question.

Hypotheses

The development of the IWFCQ enables the initial research hypotheses documented at the end of Chapter 3 to be revised. The revised hypotheses are based on the literature documented, in conjunction with the coping types reflected in the taxonomy and the IWFCQ. Table 6.7 and 6.8 document the revised research hypotheses.

Table 6.8

Hypotheses Relating to Gender Differences in the Use of Individual Work-Family Coping Types for Men and Women

Original hypotheses (see p. 40-42)	Current hypotheses
1. Women use work-family coping strategies to a greater extent than men.	1. Women use the work-family coping types to a greater extent than men.
2. Women seek practical and emotional social support to a greater extent than men.	2. Women use the work-family coping type of Friend and Relative Support to a greater extent than men.
	3. Women use the work-family coping type of Partner Support to a greater extent than men.
3. Women use strategies that involve actively changing or modifying their cognitions to a greater extent than men.	4. Women use the work-family coping type of Cognitive Restructuring to a greater extent than men.
4. Women use Recognition of Societal Influences than men.	Unable to be investigated in this research.
5. Women use Limiting Avocational Activities to a greater extent than men.	Unable to be investigated in this research.

Table 6.9

Hypotheses Relating to Gender Differences in the Effectiveness of Work-Family Coping Types for Men and Women

Original hypotheses (see p. 61-63)	Revised hypotheses
6. Seeking forms of social support are more effective work-family coping strategies for women than for men.	5. The coping type, Partner Support will be more effective for women than for men. 6. The coping type, Friend and Relative Support will be more effective for women than for men. 7. The coping type, Workplace Support will be more effective for women than for men.
7. Planning is a more effective work-family coping strategy for women than for men.	8. The coping type, Direct Role Management will be more effective for women than for men.
8. Withdrawing is a more effective work-family coping strategy for men than for women.	Unable to be investigated in this research.
9. Gender differences do not exist in the effectiveness of actively changing or modifying cognitions. This strategy is effective for both men and women.	9. There will be no gender differences in the effectiveness of the coping type, Cognitive Restructuring. Both men and women will find this strategy effective.

CHAPTER 7: AN ASSESSMENT OF GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE USE OF INDIVIDUAL WORK-FAMILY COPING TYPES (STUDY 2 PART 2)

Chapter Overview

The purpose of Study 2 Part 2 was to assess gender differences in the use of the individual work-family coping types. Such an assessment will answer part of the research question. This chapter details the results from the study and reports on gender differences in the use of individual work-family coping types. The results are then discussed in relation to the work-family literature, and directions for future research are considered.

Introduction

Gender Differences in the Use of Work-Family Coping Types

Chapter 3 argued that there are gender differences in the use of work-family coping strategies. Although there is evidence to support this argument, it has been difficult to make specific predictions about such differences due to inconsistencies in the types of strategies investigated. Nevertheless, there is some evidence that women use a greater range of strategies than do men (Gilbert & Holahan, 1982; Schnittger & Bird, 1990), and may use social support strategies more readily (Greenglass, 2002; Schnittger & Bird). There is, furthermore, substantial evidence that the work-family experience differs for males and females (e.g., Milkie & Petola, 1999; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000) and this may lead men and women to adopt differing work-family coping strategies.

The following hypotheses were formulated for this study:

1. Women use the work-family coping types to a greater extent than men (see Chapter 3, p. 37, 40, & 65).
2. Women use the work-family coping type of Friend and Relative Support to a greater extent than men (see Chapter 3, p. 37-40 & 41).
3. Women use the work-family coping type of Partner Support to a greater extent than men (see Chapter 3, p. 37-40 & 41).
4. Women use the work-family coping type of Cognitive Restructuring to a greater extent than men (see Chapter 3, p. 38 & 41).

Method and Results

The sample used for Study 2 Part 2 was the same as for Study 2 Part 1 (see p. 131–133) for a more detailed description).

Two separate statistical analyses were conducted to determine whether there were gender differences in the use of the coping types. A multivariate test (MANOVA) was carried out to see whether the genders could be distinguished using a combination of the coping measures. Univariate tests (ANOVAs) were conducted to determine whether there was a difference between the genders for each of the measures.

Only the items making up the IWFCQ identified in Chapter 6 were used in the present analysis. Because of missing data caused by the NA (non-applicable) option, only 148 participants had data on all measures and could be included in the MANOVA. However, for an analysis of individual measures larger numbers were able to be included in the follow-up ANOVAs. Participant numbers ranged from 198 to 264 for each coping strategy depending on the amount of missing data caused by the NA option.

Data Screening

An evaluation of the following assumptions was conducted: multivariate and univariate normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Outliers were tested for in terms of Mahalanobis distance (Coakes & Steed, 2001). In only two cases was the distance statistic significant ($p<.001$). In view of the small number involved, these were retained in the analysis. An assessment of univariate normality identified three independent variables with a small negative skew (Direct Role Management, Partner Support, Tension Reduction), and one with a small positive skew (Reducing Personal Role Demands). As recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), a square root transformation was applied to the positively skewed variable, while the negatively skewed variables were reflected and a square root transformation applied. All variables showed more normal distributions following the transformation. Statistical analyses were conducted on both the transformed and untransformed data. As the output was almost identical, the untransformed data were retained as they were more directly interpretable. Linearity was assessed by an examination of the bivariate plots of each variable against every other variable. Multicollinearity was assessed by an inspection of the correlation matrix. Although several small to moderate correlations of .2 and above were found to exist, no high correlations were evident. Multivariate homogeneity of the variance-covariance matrices was tested using Box's M test. The value of .03 was non-significant ($p>.001$) indicating that this assumption had not been violated. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was assessed by using Levine's statistic. Tests of inequality of error variance were non-significant.

Analyses

The MANOVA was performed on seven dependent variables (the coping types identified in the IWFCQ): Friend and Relative Support, Direct Role Management, Partner Support, Tension Reduction, Cognitive Restructuring, Workplace Support, Reducing Personal Role Demands. The independent variable was gender with two levels (male and female). Table 7.1 shows the gender means and standard deviations for the seven work-family coping types in the analyses with the unequal (MANOVA) and equal (ANOVA) numbers of participants.

Table 7.1

The Gender Means and Standard Deviations for the Seven Work-Family Coping Types

Coping type	Gender	Means – analysis with equal numbers (MANOVA)	Means – analysis with unequal numbers (ANOVAs)	Standard deviations – analysis with equal numbers (MANOVA)	Standard deviations – analysis with unequal numbers (ANOVAs)
Direct Role Management	Female	3.74	3.67	0.70	0.71
	Male	3.46	3.48	0.79	0.74
Partner Support	Female	4.10	4.03	0.67	0.74
	Male	3.62	3.72	0.75	0.70
Tension Reduction	Female	4.00	4.03	0.73	0.68
	Male	3.81	3.72	0.78	0.73
Cognitive Restructuring	Female	3.70	3.65	0.72	0.73
	Male	3.60	3.68	0.70	0.65
Friend & Relative Support	Female	3.50	3.43	0.91	0.93
	Male	2.69	2.81	0.95	0.92
Workplace Support	Female	3.38	3.37	0.92	0.92
	Male	3.13	3.12	0.83	0.84
Reducing Personal Role Demands	Female	2.50	2.49	1.02	1.05
	Male	2.45	2.43	1.05	1.04

Tests of multivariate significance provided by SPSS are Roy's statistic, Hotelling's trace, Wilks's lambda, and Pillai's trace. Based on the recommendations of a number of researchers, Field (2000) suggested the use of Pillai's trace. For Pillai's trace (.239), the combined set of measures differed significantly between genders, $F(7, 140) = 6.276$, $p<.001$.

Results of the univariate analysis are presented in Table 7.2. It is acknowledged that with the large number of tests conducted the Type 1 error may be inflated. While

Bonferroni corrections would have provided a more conservative approach to the analyses, the adjustments would have substantially reduced the power of the tests being made. The adjustment was therefore not made and as a consequence caution needs to be exercised in interpreting the results. The results demonstrate that there are significant differences between the gender means for four of the seven coping types. These are Friend and Relative Support, Partner Support, Direct Role Management, and Workplace Support. It should be noted that in this exploratory study, the significant differences between the means are small, and further research would need to be done to confirm these findings.

The table of means, also reported, indicates that women used these four coping types significantly more so than did men (See Table 7.1). If F tests are conducted using equal numbers for all measures (as was the case in the MANOVA), three of the four measures are again significant. In the case of Workplace Support, the p value (.08) approached significance. Table 7.2 demonstrates the ANOVA results indicating significance in the differences between gender means.

Table 7.2

ANOVA Results Indicating Significance in the Differences Between Gender Means

Dependent variable	Univariate F	df	p
Direct Role Management	4.085	1/263	.044
Partner Support	10.520	1/225	.001
Tension Reduction	.132	1/263	.716
Cognitive Restructuring	.117	1/259	.732
Friend & Relative Support	27.768	1/254	<.0001
Workplace Support	3.946	1/197	.048
Reducing Personal Role Demands	.123	1/201	.726

Discussion

The first hypothesis set for test was: Women use the work-family coping types to a greater extent than men. The results of the MANOVA demonstrated that that there was a statistically significant difference between the genders when the measures are combined. The direction of the differences between the means indicated that females made greater use of the various coping types than men. Thus the first hypothesis was supported.

A number of research papers have demonstrated that women use a greater range of strategies than men (e.g., Paden & Buehler, 1995; Schnittger & Bird, 1990). In the present study, women used four of the coping strategies to a significantly greater extent than men. While there was not a significant gender difference in the use of the other three strategies, the mean use for all strategies for females was still higher than that of the males except for Cognitive Restructuring. While there is little previous research

specifically investigating gender differences in work-family coping, literature discussed in Chapter 3 has indicated a number of reasons gender differences are likely. More specifically, such literature helps to explain why women use such coping types more readily than men.

First, there are likely to be gender differences in work-family demands overall (Duxbury et al., 1994) with women experiencing greater demands and thus being more prone to greater work-family conflict (Gutek et al., 1991). Such a view is reflected in the rational view of work-family conflict. Because women's demands are higher overall, they may require greater use of the coping types to ensure their needs are met, and conflict is reduced. Theorists argue that despite rapid changes in the socialisation of men and women when it comes to work and family roles, role salience still differs between the genders (Gutek et al., 1991). Males are still closely associated with work, while women are inextricably linked to the home and family. Because women's work role does not relate to their traditional role as mother and homemaker (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991), women may be more likely to experience greater work-family conflict, and require the use of relevant coping types.

A second suggestion as to why women may use the coping types to a greater degree is that they tend to have greater responsibility for unplanned or unscheduled events (e.g., picking up a sick child from school) (Berry & Rao, 1997). Because of the more prescheduled nature of men's work-family demands (e.g., taking children to sport on the weekend), they may be better able to separate their work and family demands. This separation of roles is likely to result in a lesser need to adopt work-family coping types.

Socialisation theory helps us to understand the results of the study (Ptacek et al., 1992; Rosario et al., 1988). As discussed in Chapter 3, this theory proposes that males and females are brought up to manage stressors in different ways. Before they even have both work and family demands, women may be more likely than men to anticipate work-family conflict, and the need to develop and engage coping skills. This possibility is supported by Burley's (1995) study in which it was found that university students already had conceptualisations as to how they would manage work-family demands. In the present study there were significant gender differences in the anticipated use of three out of four coping types. Women anticipated using these strategies more so than did men.

The second and third hypotheses proposed that women use the work-family coping types of Friend and Relative Support, and Partner Support to a greater extent than men.

The results of the ANOVA indicated that women used the coping types of Friend and Relative Support and Partner Support to a significantly greater extent than men. This supports the previous findings that suggest that seeking emotional and instrumental support are predominantly female strategies (Schnittger & Bird, 1990). The finding is also consistent with research in the wider psychological literature that suggests women are more likely than men to employ social support strategies (e.g., Greenglass, 2002). The research also demonstrated that women use Workplace Support significantly more than men. While statistical significance was demonstrated in the study, the extent of this difference was small and further research is required to substantiate this finding. While this coping type is not investigated in other literature, the present study indicates that

women may also more likely to seek out support from their work superior, or use family-friendly policies.

Despite limited research on work-family conflict and seeking social support, there are a number of theories in the literature that help to explain such findings. First, as women tend to have higher work-family demands overall (Duxbury et al., 1994), they may simply require greater amounts of practical and emotional social support than do men.

Second, the socialisation hypothesis (Ptacek et al., 1992) referred to above proposes that men and women are brought up to manage stressors in different ways. In particular, seeking out emotional support has traditionally been encouraged in females, but not males (Stokes & Wilson, 1984). It is also likely that this socialisation process enables women to become more proficient at seeking out forms of practical and emotional support. Greenglass (2002) suggested that gender role socialisation results in women being more socially sensitive than men, and capable of relating better to others. Conversely, men are not encouraged to practice these support seeking skills as readily and therefore do not use them as readily to manage work-family conflict.

Third, another aspect of socialisation is that working women, particularly mothers, are often acting against traditional role expectations (Schnittger & Bird, 1990). As such, women may be more likely to seek out forms of emotional support to cope with and normalise their behaviours, for example, talking to friends or relatives who are also working mothers.

The final hypothesis set for test was: Women use the work-family coping type of Cognitive Restructuring to a greater extent than men.

Contrary to expectations, there was no significant difference in the use of Cognitive Restructuring between males and females. This result contrasts with Schnittger and Bird's (1990) finding, but is similar to Kirchmeyer's (1993) finding that there were no gender differences in the use of the strategy Good Personal Organisation and Developing an Appropriate Attitude. This scale on her questionnaire had items similar to those assessed in the IWFCQ. Other researchers did not investigate Cognitive Restructuring when assessing gender differences in the use of coping strategies (e.g., Gilbert & Holahan, 1982). The results from this study suggest that men and women may Cognitive Restructuring to the same degree.

This study contributes to the literature by furthering research conducted on gender differences in the use of individual work-family coping strategies. It strengthens some of the findings made by other researchers (e.g., Schnittger & Bird, 1990), but does not support the findings by Kirchmeyer (1993) that there are no gender differences in the use of work-family coping strategies. The present research suggests that while there appear to be some gender differences in the use of coping types, there may be a number of coping types that are not influenced by gender. It must be noted, however, that it only addresses half of the research question. Additional research is required to assess gender differences in the effectiveness of the work-family coping strategies. This part of the research question is investigated in Study 3, which is documented in the following chapter.

It should be noted that in the present study the education level of approximately half the participants was high. These participants had university undergraduate or postgraduate degrees as their highest level of education. This high level of education is consistent with the current body of work-family coping research, which has been

typically been conducted with staff in professional and managerial occupations (Boles & Babin, 1996). In an effort to include a range of educational and occupational levels, Study 3 extended on the previous research to include professional, clerical, and field staff (blue-collar) as participants in the research. The focus of Study 3 is an exploration of the effectiveness of the work-family coping types in predicting three facets of life satisfaction: job, family, and partner. However as the participant sample is less educated overall, further assessment was conducted on gender differences in the use of the work-family coping strategies. The results of Study 3 are then compared with the findings of Study 2.

This discussion has indicated that three of the four hypotheses regarding gender differences in work-family coping were supported. While these hypotheses remain the same for Study 3, the findings of the present study result in additional expectations, viz., that women will use the work-family coping strategies of Direct Role Management and Workplace Support more frequently than men.

CHAPTER 8: GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE USE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF INDIVIDUAL WORK-FAMILY COPING TYPES (STUDY 3)

Chapter Overview

Study 2 Part 2 involved an assessment of gender differences in the use of work-family coping types. The purpose of Study 3 was to investigate both the use and the effectiveness of coping types. This chapter reports on the methods used in Study 3, the results obtained, and discusses the findings and their implications for future research.

Better understanding work-family conflict will assist organisations to design and tailor work, training, career programs, and assistance strategies (Madsen, 2003). Although continued investigation into work-family conflict is important, little emphasis has been placed on identifying whether some work-family coping types are more effective than others in enhancing well-being. Until such research takes place, those in organisations concerned with employee well-being will be guessing as to what makes effective work-family policy and programs. Research focused on determining what coping behaviours work for employees and whether there are gender differences in these will assist in better informing these organisations. In the context of the present research, “effectiveness” is measured by three aspects of life satisfaction: job, partner, and family satisfaction.

The following hypotheses were formulated for this study:

Hypothesis 1. Women use the work-family coping types to a greater extent than men. (see Chapter 3, page 37, 40, & 65).

Hypothesis 2. Women use the work-family coping type of Friend and Relative Support to a greater extent than men (see Chapter 3, page 37-40, & 41).

Hypothesis 3. Women use the work-family coping type of Partner Support to a greater extent than men (see Chapter 3, page 37-40, & 41).

Hypothesis 4. Women use the work-family coping type of Cognitive Restructuring to a greater extent than men (see Chapter 3, page 38 & 41).

From the results of Study 2 it is also expected that women will use the work-family coping strategies of Direct Role Management and Organisational Support more frequently than men.

Hypothesis 5. The coping type, Partner Support, will be more effective for women than for men (see Chapter 3, page 58-60, & 62).

Hypothesis 6. The coping type, Friend and Relative Support, will be more effective for women than for men (see Chapter 3, page 59-60, & 62).

Hypothesis 7. The coping type, Workplace Support, will be more effective for women than for men (see Chapter 3, page 59-60, & 62).

Hypothesis 8. The coping type, Direct Role Management, will be more effective for women than for men (see Chapter 3, page 54, & 62).

Hypothesis 9. There will be no gender differences in the effectiveness of the coping type, Cognitive Restructuring. Both men and women will find this strategy effective (see Chapter 3, page 54-57, & 63).

Method

Participants

A questionnaire was distributed to 514 professional, clerical, and field staff at a local shire council in the greater Brisbane area. Professional and clerical staff spend most of their work-time in an office environment. Field staff work on outdoor and workshop-based projects and spend limited time in an office environment. 262 usable questionnaires were returned. The participant sample included 94 females (35.6%) and 168 males (63.6%). The majority of the respondents were married (N = 190, 72%). Fewer numbers of the participants were either single (N = 24, 9.1%), living with their partner (N = 23, 8.7%), or were separated or divorced (N = 17, 6.4%). Two respondents (0.8%) did not answer the question relating to marital status. 204 of the participants had at least one child (n=77.3%), and 60 had no children (22.7%).

The respondents comprised professional staff (n=94, 35.6%), clerical staff (n=63, 23.9%), and field staff (n=105, 39.8%). Two employees did not respond to the question requesting information about their job category. The employees were almost exclusively not shift-workers (n=254, 96.2%).

The majority of staff had either completed high school grade 10 (n=62, 23.5%) or had a technical college diploma (n=79, 29.9%) as their highest level of education. A smaller percentage of staff had been awarded university undergraduate degrees (n=44, 16.7%), or a high school grade 12 senior certificate (n=33, 12.5%). A minority of respondents had completed a university postgraduate degree (n=22, 8.7%) or a university diploma (n=13, 4.9). A small group of participants did not specify their highest level of education (n=10, 3.8%).

Measures

The questionnaire package distributed to staff comprised demographic questions, job, family, and partner satisfaction inventories, a measure of work-family conflict, and the IWFCQ developed in Study 2. Demographic questions addressed gender, age, marital status, number of children/stepchildren, employment category, highest level of education, hours worked, and shift work (See Appendix F).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is described by Locke (1969) as the extent to which an employee's expectations of a job are matched by what he or she actually receives from the job. Job satisfaction is an individual's attitude as to the extent to which he or she likes their job (Spector, 1997). The two common approaches to assessing this variable include the measurement of global and facet satisfaction (Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002). The global approach assesses job satisfaction based on an employee's overall attitude towards his or her work. Alternatively, the facet approach examines a pattern of attitudes held by the employee regarding aspects of their job, for example, coworkers, job conditions, and supervision. The measure employed in the current research was selected based upon its ability to provide a single score of job satisfaction for data analytic purposes.

The Overall Job Satisfaction Inventory (JSI) was developed by Brayfield and Roth (1951) as a global measure of job satisfaction. Despite the age of this measure, it has still been used widely in recent literature, postgraduate dissertations (e.g., Aryee et al., 1999; Leong, 2001; Moorman, 1993; Patel, 1995; Soler, 2000; Wu & Short, 1996), and is documented in a recent compendium of scales for organisational research (Fields, 2002). The measure (see Table 8.1) consists of 18 items, 9 of which are reverse scored.

Items are scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Scores for each item are tallied with possible overall scores ranging from 18 to 90. Sample items include "I am fairly well satisfied with my present job" and "I definitely dislike my work". In cases where there were missing data for a small number of items, the mean score was inserted for those items.

A number of studies have demonstrated high levels of reliability for the job satisfaction scale (Fields, 2002). Coefficients have ranged from .88 to .91 (Moorman, 1991; Fogarty, Machin, Albion, Sutherland, Lalor, & Revitt, 1999; Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999; Shore, Newton, & Thornton, 1990). In support of validity, overall job satisfaction correlated positively with a composite measure of job facets, autonomy, distributive justice, supervisory support, task significance, sensitivity to equity, employee perceptions of performance, and job involvement (Agho, Mueller, & Price 1993; Aryee et al., 1999; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998, O'Neill & Mone, 1998). Conversely, overall job satisfaction correlated negatively with family-work conflict, work routinisation, role ambiguity, and role conflict (Agho et al., 1993; Aryee et al., 1999). Furthermore, a confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated that the measure of job satisfaction was empirically separate from measures of job involvement and organisational commitment (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988).

Table 8.1

Questions on the Brayfield and Roth (1951) Measure of Job Satisfaction

Question Number	Question
1	My job is like a hobby to me.
2	My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.
3	It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.*
4	I consider my job rather unpleasant.*
5	I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.
6	I am often bored with my leisure time.*
7	I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.
8	Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.*
9	I am satisfied with my job for the time being.
10	I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.*
11	I definitely dislike my work.*
12	I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.
13	Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
14	Each day of work seems like it will never end.*
15	I like my job better than the average worker does.
16	My job is pretty uninteresting.*
17	I find real enjoyment in my work.
18	I am disappointed that I ever took this job.*

* Reverse scored items

Family Satisfaction

An adapted version of the Family Adaptation Scale (FAS) (Antonovsky & Sourani, 1988) was used to assess participant's level of family satisfaction. The original measure consists of 11 items, which are accompanied by a 7-point rating scale. The scale words each item as a question. For example, "Are you satisfied with your family?". The participants are expected to respond on a scale ranging from "I'm not satisfied" to "I'm completely satisfied". To make the response format consistent with other questionnaires in the package, the items were slightly reworded so that they made sense when applying a 5-point Likert rating scale. It was anticipated that this would make data entry and analysis easier, as well as providing a more consistent response pattern for the participants. No items were reverse scored. Some participants in the present study did not have young children, or any children. As such, Item 2, "I am satisfied about the way my children are being raised (e.g., their education, behaviour, and activities)" was removed from the final analysis. Internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha was assessed on the present sample to ensure reliability of the remaining items. Reliability was estimated at .90. Table 8.2 demonstrates the changes to each item.

Table 8.2

Item Modifications Made to the Family Adaption Scale (FAS) (Antonovsky & Sourani, 1988)

Item on FAS	Re-worded item in current study
Are you satisfied in belonging to your family?	I am satisfied with belonging to my family.
Are you satisfied with the family's way of life?	I am satisfied with the family's way of life.
Are you satisfied with the possibility of expressing what you feel in your family?	I am satisfied with the possibility of expressing what I feel in my family.
Are you satisfied with the extent to which family members are close to each other?	I am satisfied with the extent to which family members are close to each other.
Are you satisfied with how the family spends its leisure time?	I am satisfied with how the family spends its leisure time.
Are you satisfied with the way family members communicate with each other?	I am satisfied with the way family members communicate with each other.
Are you satisfied with how the family fits into the neighborhood?	I am satisfied with how my family fits into the neighborhood.
Are you satisfied with the social relations your family has?	I am satisfied with the social relations my family has.
Are you satisfied with the way the family relates to the wishes of all the family members?	I am satisfied with the way my family relates to the wishes of all the family members.
And now, think of what for you would be an ideal family, one which is perfectly adjusted. Where on the scale would you rank your family compared to the ideal family? (1 = Ideally adjusted family; 7 = a family which is not at all adjusted)	And now, think of what for you would be an ideal family, one which is perfectly adjusted. Where on the scale would you rank your family compared to the ideal family? (1 = a family which is not at all well adjusted; 5 = a family that is an ideally adjusted family)

Using a sample of 120 men and women, the developers report Cronbach's alphas for the scale as .87 for their sample (.85 for men, .9 for women) (Antonovsky & Sourani, 1988). The authors did not provide validity evidence. While there is sparse evidence for the scale's psychometric properties, little choice is provided to organisational researchers for the assessment of family satisfaction. The majority of scales pertaining to family satisfaction are more relevant in a clinical or counselling context as opposed to the general population.

Partner Satisfaction

A slightly modified version of the Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS) (Hendrick, 1988) was used to assess the participant's levels of partner satisfaction. This 7-item measure was selected over other scales as it is not limited to married couples, and is a short but reliable measure of relationship satisfaction. The majority of other dyadic satisfaction scales are confined to married couples. Similarly to the FAS, the RAS contains seven items phrased as questions. For example, "How well does your partner meet your needs?". The original response format consists of a Likert scale from 1 to 5, where 1 is low satisfaction and 5 is high satisfaction. In order to make the response format consistent with the other scales in the questionnaire package, slight alterations were made to the wording of the questions. Modifications are detailed in Table 8.3. Two of the items are reverse scored.

Table 8.3

Item Modifications to the Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)

Item on FAS	Re-worded item in current study
How well does your partner meet your needs?	My partner meets my needs.
In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?	In general I am satisfied with my relationship.
How good is your relationship compared to most?	My relationship is good compared to most.
How often do you wish you hadn't gotten into this relationship?*	I wish I hadn't gotten into this relationship.*
To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?	My relationship has met my original expectations.
How much to you love your partner?	I love my partner.
How many problems are there in your relationship?*	There are many problems in my relationship.*

* Reverse scored items

Hendrick's (1988) RAS has been used in the literature and in dissertations since its development (e.g., Cramer, 2001; Finch, 1999; Lin, 1999; Vaughn, 1997). In addition to Hendrick (1988), a number of papers have investigated the reliability and validity of the scale (Hendrick, Dicke, & Hendrick, 1998; Vaughn & Matyastik-Baier, 1999). After first developing her relationship questionnaire, Hendrick reported a correlation of .8 between the RAS and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Spanier, 1976). She also found that the RAS was just as good as the DAS at discriminating between dating couples who stayed together and those who broke up several months later. Internal consistency was found to be .86 and the factor structure was found to be best represented

by a one-factor model. However, the sample size for these validation studies was small (n = 57 couples), and the sample consisted only of undergraduate students. Vaughn and Matyastik-Baier (1999) proposed that a larger and more diverse sample was required to explore construct validity more representatively. Using a sample of 118 participants, Vaughn and Matyastik-Baier (1999) determined that the internal consistency for the RAS was high. The coefficient alpha was estimated at .91. The correlation between RAS and DAS scores was .84, demonstrating construct validity.

Work-Family Conflict

Bohen and Viveros-Long's (1981) measure of job-family role strain was used to evaluate each participant's level of work-family conflict. The measure consists of 16 items, 3 of which are reverse scored. The items are scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Reliability coefficients for the full scale have been reported between .88 and .91 (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). In support of validity, the measure correlated positively with work involvement, work-expectations, depression, control and work, family expectations, and perceptions of family policies at work. Conversely the measure correlated negatively with measures of quality of work life, quality of family life, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

For the purposes of the present research, only items 1 to 10 (see Table 8.4) were used in the statistical analysis, because items 11 to 16 refer specifically to children and some participants had no children or no young children. Internal consistency using

Cronbach's alpha was assessed to ensure reliability of the remaining items. Reliability was estimated for the present sample at .85.

Table 8.4

The 10 Questions from the Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981) Measure of Work-Family Conflict used in the Present Research

Question number	Question
1	My job keeps me away from my family too much.
2	I feel I have more to do than I can handle comfortably.
3	I have a good balance between my job and family time.*
4	I wish I had more time to do things for my family.
5	I feel physically drained when I get home from work.
6	I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work.
7	I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day.
8	My time off from work does not match other family members' schedules well.
9	I feel I don't have enough time for myself.
10	I worry that other people at work think my family interferes with my job.

* Reverse scored items

Coping with Work-Family Conflict

The 35-item IWFCQ was used to assess the methods of coping employed by participants. The seven scales of the questionnaire include Friend and Relative Support, Direct Role Management, Partner Support, Tension Reduction, Cognitive Restructuring,

Workplace Support, and Reducing Personal Role Demands. The IWFCQ is documented in Chapter 6 (see Table 6.5).

The items were each accompanied by a 5-point Likert response format, from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). An option of NA (non-applicable) was provided for each response in case some items were not relevant to particular participants. For example, questions about day care and babysitters would not be relevant for those families without small children.

The reliability analysis conducted in Study 2 reported acceptable internal reliabilities for each scale (see Table 8.5).

Table 8.5

Internal Reliabilities Reported in Study 2 for Scales on the IWFCQ

IWFCQ scale	Reliability as reported in Study 2
Direct Role Management	.78
Partner Support	.80
Tension Reduction	.80
Active Cognitive Restructuring	.83
Friend and Relative Support	.86
Workplace Support	.81
Reducing Personal Role Demands	.84

Procedure

Permission was sought to gain access staff for the study through the Human Resources Manager (HRM) of the organisation where the research was conducted. A

preliminary meeting was set up to discuss the research and the questionnaire. The HRM was provided with information about the purpose of the research and its rationale, and a process was discussed to conduct the research. Advice from the HRM was obtained on the questionnaire distribution process and design of the questionnaire so that it might attract higher response rates.

Questionnaires, with an information sheet and a return addressed envelope, were placed in sealed envelopes. Each envelope was labeled with individual staff names and their work addresses. The information sheet included the names and contact numbers for the researcher, her supervisor, and the University Ethics Officer. It also included information about the purpose of the study, the anonymous nature of the research, their right to withdraw from the research at any time, and an estimate of how much time the questionnaire would take to complete. As the study was anonymous, a consent form was not included to be signed. The participants were informed on the information sheet that "…completion and the return of the questionnaire will be taken as informed consent". The questionnaire package is provided in Appendix F.

When the questionnaires were ready to be distributed, a meeting was held with senior administration staff to brief them about the project, gain their support, and ask for assistance in distributing the questionnaires to their staff members. The senior staff members were provided with questionnaires for the professional and clerical staff in their areas. They were instructed to request that staff return all completed and non-completed questionnaires in the sealable envelopes to the HRM through internal mail. Completed questionnaires were collected by the researchers on a regular basis.

Field staff from six departments and three council depots were also included in the research. Participants from the depots comprised the roads department, parks department, the sewerage plant staff, electrical and mechanical workshops, and the water treatment plant. To account for any possible literacy concerns, a research assistant administered the questionnaire to groups of staff willing to participate in a total of six sessions. The research assistant distributed a questionnaire booklet to each of the participants and then read the instructions out loud. Staff were informed about the voluntary nature of the study as well as their right to withdraw from participation at any point. The research assistant then read each item on the questionnaire pausing for staff to circle their response on the rating scale on their paper questionnaire. After completion, the participants were asked to place the questionnaire into the sealable envelope made available to them, and to return it directly to the research assistant.

Results

Preparation for Analysis - MANOVA

Data from the questionnaires were entered into a SPSS spreadsheet for analysis. Data cleaning was then conducted to ensure no errors had been made in data entry. Any data entry mistakes identified were rectified. Forty cases were deleted from the data file because of excessive missing data. Cases were deleted when at least 20% of responses required for one or more of the measures in the questionnaire were missing.

An evaluation of the following assumptions was conducted for the MANOVA: multivariate and univariate normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Outliers were tested using Mahalanobis distance (Coakes & Steed, 2001). In only one case was the distance statistically significant ($p<.001$). It was decided that as there was only one case, it would not be excluded. An assessment of univariate normality identified that one DV had a small positive skew (Direct Role Management). As recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), a square root transformation was applied. The DV showed a more normal distribution following the transformation. Statistical analyses were conducted on both the transformed and untransformed data. As the output was almost identical, the untransformed data were retained as they were more directly interpretable. An assessment of the correlation matrix determined that the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated. Although there were several small to moderate correlations of .2 and above were found to exist (Pallant, 2001), no high correlations were evident. Multivariate homogeneity of the variance-covariance matrices was tested using Box's M test and was determined that the assumption was met in terms of Pallant's criterion. However in three of the seven tests of equality of variance using Levine's statistic, the assumption of equality of variance was violated. The dependent variables involved were Friend and Relative Support, Partner Support, and Direct Role Management. As a consequence, some caution should be taken in the interpretation of these DVs. Finally, the assumption of regression was not violated because in each analyses the Durbin-Watson statistic was non-significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In preparation for analysis, each of the remaining participants scores were calculated for each measure completed.

Reliability analyses for this sample were carried out using Cronbach alphas on each of the measures taken from the literature, as well as for the seven individual work-

family coping scales developed in Study 2. No coefficient fell beneath .70 indicating sufficient reliability across all measures used in the analysis (Nunnally, 1994). The reliabilities are as follows: Job Satisfaction (.86), Work-Family Conflict (.85), Family Satisfaction (.90), Partner Satisfaction (.92), Direct Role Management (.78), Partner Support (.87), Tension Reduction (.70), Cognitive Restructuring (.74), Friend and Relative Support (.77), Workplace Support (.71), Reducing Personal Role Demands (.85).

Analysis - MANOVA

Table 8.6 presents the means and standard deviations for males and females on each of the coping strategy measures.

Table 8.6

Means and Standard Deviations for Gender on the Seven Work-Family Coping Types

Coping Strategy	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation
Direct Role Management	Female	3.44	.80
	Male	3.39	.67
Partner Support	Female	3.53	1.00
	Male	3.41	.81
Tension Reduction	Female	3.70	.75
	Male	3.74	.66
Cognitive Restructuring	Female	3.49	.70
	Male	3.53	.64
Friend & Relative Support	Female	2.69	.97
	Male	2.58	.74
Workplace Support	Female	3.35	.86
	Male	3.13	.80
Reducing Personal Role Demands	Female	2.41	1.07
	Male	2.36	.90

Differences in gender for all seven measures were tested using multivariate analysis of variance. The F test associated with Pillai's trace (.039) in the analysis indicated that the effects of gender were not significant, $F(7, 239) = 1.389$, $p > .05$. Because this tested for the effects of gender on the combined set of DVs, individual F tests were performed on each DV and the results are summarised in Table 8.7. In only

one case, Workplace Support, was the difference between males and females significant ($p<.05$).

Table 8.7

Univariate Results for each of the Tests used in the MANOVA

Dependent variable	Univariate F	df	p
Direct Role Management	.258	1/245	.612
Partner Support	.951	1/245	.330
Tension Reduction	.210	1/245	.647
Cognitive Restructuring	.213	1/245	.645
Friend & Relative Support	.987	1/245	.321
Workplace Support	3.943	1/245	.048
Reducing Personal Role Demands	.142	1/245	.707

To examine the question of effectiveness of coping strategies, the satisfaction measures were used as criteria in multiple regression analyses with the coping type measures as predictors. To examine the possible interaction of gender and coping type in effectiveness (i.e., some coping types lead to greater satisfaction levels for one gender but not the other), product terms between gender and coping type measures were calculated and used in hierarchical regression to determine any unique contributions of a product term that would indicate interaction.

The independent variables in each HRA were entered in three steps. At the first step, the three covariates described in Chapter 4 (work-family conflict, hours worked each week, number of dependants) were entered to partial out their impact on the

dependent variables. At the second step, participant gender and each of the seven coping types were added to the equation to test whether gender and the coping types significantly added to the prediction of the three aspects of satisfaction (job, family, and partner satisfaction). At the third step, product terms for gender and the seven coping types were added to the equation to test the interaction of gender and the coping types in predicting the three aspects of satisfaction. The inclusion of the product terms after controlling for gender and the coping types enabled an examination of whether the relationship between the coping types and the three aspects of life satisfaction was dependent on gender.

Preparation for Analysis – Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Necessary assumption testing, as recommended by Coakes & Steed (2001), was carried out prior to statistical analyses. Data screening was repeated with particular reference to the variables required for the HRAs. Not all of theses variables were included during the data screening for the MANOVA. To determine that the assumption of univariate normality was not violated, the skewness and kurtosis of the distribution were examined for each variable. A small positive skew was evident for four of the variables, and a small negative skew was evident for one variable. To normalise the distribution, a square root transformation was applied to each of the variables. Statistical analyses were carried out on the transformed and non-transformed data. As there was no difference in correlations from the output of the two analyses, the original non-transformed data was retained. In addition to the univariate checks on the data, residual plots were used to assess the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedacity. There was no evidence in the plots that the assumptions were violated. An assessment of collinearity also indicated no multicollinearity or singularity. 15 multivariate outliers

were identified using Mahalanobis distance ($p<001$) (Coakes & Steed, 2001). Analyses were conducted on the data which included the outliers and the data from which the outliers had been removed. Some of the results in each of the three analyses were affected by the removal of the outliers. As a result, the more conservative approach of using the data with the 15 outliers removed was applied. Finally, homogeneity of regression was not violated as indicated by non-significant Durbin-Watson statistics for each analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Correlations between the work-family coping types and the aspects of life satisfaction are displayed in Table 8.8. The satisfaction variables were themselves intercorrelated: .176 for job satisfaction and family satisfaction; .236 for job satisfaction and partner satisfaction, and .581 for family satisfaction and partner satisfaction. All three correlations were significant ($p<.05$).

Table 8.8

Correlations among Work-Family Coping Types and Aspects of Life Satisfaction in Study 3

	Dependent variables		
Independent variable	Job satisfaction	Family satisfaction	Partner satisfaction
Direct Role Management	.182	.264	.227
Partner Support	.187	.394	.561
Tension Reduction	.144	.154	.101
Cognitive Restructuring	.291	.349	.320
Friend and Relative Support	.097	.041	.010
Workplace Support	.385	.166	.065
Reducing Personal Role Demands	.019	.055	.012

Note: Correlations greater than .133 are significant ($p<.05$)

Analyses – Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Table 8.9 displays the standardised regression coefficients (β), R^2 , and the change in R^2 after entry of each set of independent variables.

Table 8.9

Regression Weights, R^2, and Change in R^2 for each of the Variables in Study 3

	Dependent variable		
Independent variable	Job satisfaction	Family satisfaction	Partner satisfaction
Step 1			
Work-family conflict	-.357***	-.241***	-.207**
Hours worked	.159**	.017	-.064
No. of dependants	-.070	-.109	-.120*
R^2	.154	.078	.072
R^2 change	.154***	.078***	.072***
Step 2			
Work-family conflict	-.328***	-.142*	-.161**
Hours worked	.177**	-.024	-.069
No. of dependants	-.064	-.115*	-.115*
Gender	-.128*	.083	.010
Relative & Friend Support	.008	-.098	-.126*
Partner Support	.062	.278***	.496***
Workplace Support	.258***	.008	-.104
Tension Reduction	-.144*	-.038	-.084
Reducing Personal Role Demands	-.004	.054	.016
Direct Role Management	.005	.067	-.007
Cognitive Restructuring	.109	.203**	.168*
R^2	.284	.251	.359
R^2 change	.130***	.173***	.287***
Step 3			
Work-family conflict	-.313***	-.170**	-.161**
Hours worked	.179**	-.022	-.069
No. of dependants	-.071	-.107	-.115*
Gender	.534	-.843*	.010
Relative & Friend Support	-.016	-.444*	-.126*
Partner Support	.203	.131	.381**
Workplace Support	.178	.294	.082
Tension Reduction	.023	-.238	.177
Reducing Personal Role Demands	.193	.299	-.388*

Table 8.9 Continued

	Dependent variable		
Independent variable	Job satisfaction	Family satisfaction	Partner satisfaction
Direct Role Management	.032	.498*	.288
Cognitive Restructuring	.211	-.581	-.392
Gender X			
Relative & Friend Support	.018	.476	.138
Partner Support	-.228	.194	.135
Workplace Support	.116	-.400	-.265
Tension Reduction	-.318	.363	-.535
Reducing Personal Role Demands	-.247	-.273	.529**
Direct Role Management	-.044	-.728*	-.504
Cognitive Restructuring	-.172	1.471**	1.114**
R^2	.298	.316	.410
R^2 change	.014	.065**	.050**

Note. Standardised regression coefficients are displayed.

*p<.05. **p<.01. ***p<.001.

After step 1 of the regression with the covariates in the equation, work-family conflict was a significant predictor for all three facets of life satisfaction, hours worked was a significant predictor of job satisfaction, and number of dependants was a significant predictor of partner satisfaction. With job satisfaction as the dependent variable, R^2 change = .154 (R^2 =.154, adjusted R^2 = .144), F(3, 260) = 15.778, p<.001.Work-family conflict and hours worked were significant predictors of job satisfaction. The negative sign in the table indicated that lower levels of work-family conflict resulted in greater job satisfaction. With family satisfaction as the dependent

variable $\underline{R}^2$ change = .078 ($\underline{R}^2$ = .078, adjusted $\underline{R}^2$ = .067), F(3, 260) = 7.330, p<.001. Work-family conflict was a significant predictor of family satisfaction, the negative sign indicating that employees with lower levels of work-family conflict experienced greater family satisfaction. With partner satisfaction as the dependent variable $\underline{R}^2$ change = .072 ($\underline{R}^2$ = .072, adjusted $\underline{R}^2$ = .061), F(3, 260) = 6.723, p<.001. Work-family conflict and the number of dependants were significant predictors of partner satisfaction, with the negative sign again indicating that employees with lower levels of work-family conflict experienced greater satisfaction, in this case partner satisfaction.

At step 2 of the analyses, the seven work-family coping types were added to the equation so their relationship with the facets of life satisfaction could be examined beyond the effect of the covariates. Significant increments in $\underline{R}^2$ indicated that when the covariates were held constant, the work-family coping types predicted all three facets of life satisfaction. With job satisfaction as the dependent variable, $\underline{R}^2$ = change = .130 ($\underline{R}^2$ = .284, adjusted $\underline{R}^2$ = .272) F(8, 252) = 5.731, p<.001. Two of the seven work-family coping types contributed significantly to the prediction of job satisfaction: Workplace Support and Tension Reduction. Employees receiving greater support from their workplace had greater levels of job satisfaction. Conversely, negative signs for the regression coefficients between Tension Reduction and job satisfaction indicated that employees participating in more tension reducing activities were less satisfied at work.

Two of the seven work-family coping types contributed significantly to the prediction of family satisfaction, $\underline{R}^2$ change = .173 ($\underline{R}^2$ = .251, adjusted R^2 = .218), F(8, 252) = 7.273, p<.001. The regression coefficients indicated that the extent to which employees seek out Partner Support and use Cognitive Restructuring influenced their

level of family satisfaction. Individuals who employ these strategies more readily have a greater level of family satisfaction.

Three of the seven work-family coping types contributed significantly to the prediction of partner satisfaction, $\underline{R}^2$ change = .287 ($\underline{R}^2$ = .359, adjusted R^2 = .331), F(8, 252) = 14.135, p<.001. The regression coefficients indicated that the extent to which employees seek out Friend and Relative Support, Partner Support, and use Cognitive Restructuring influenced their level of partner satisfaction. Individuals who employ Partner Support and Cognitive Restructuring strategies more readily have a greater level of partner satisfaction. Conversely, the negative sign in the regression analysis indicates that individuals who employ lesser amounts of Friend and Relative Support have greater levels of partner satisfaction.

At Step 3 of the analyses, the seven gender-coping type product terms were added to the equations to test the interaction between gender and the coping strategies in predicting benefits. The change in $\underline{R}^2$ at this third step was significant for two of the three facets of life satisfaction: partner satisfaction and family satisfaction. For family satisfaction, two of the product terms, Cognitive Restructuring by gender and Direct Role Management by gender, contributed significantly to the prediction. For partner satisfaction, two of the product terms, Cognitive Restructuring by gender and Reducing Role Demands by gender, contributed significantly to the prediction. To examine further the nature of these interactions, a series of HRAs were conducted using family satisfaction and partner satisfaction as separate criterion variables. In each case the covariates were entered in the analyses along with one of the coping types that had shown

a significant product term for that criterion variable. Importantly, separate analyses were conducted for males and females in the total sample.

For the prediction of family satisfaction from Direct Role Management after adjusting for the covariates, the overall regression was significant for males, $\underline{R}^2 = .153$ (adjusted $\underline{R}^2 = .132$), $F(4, 163) = 7.354$, $p < .01$, and for females, $\underline{R}^2 = .154$ (adjusted $\underline{R}^2 = .116$), $F(4, 89) = 4.037$, $p < .01$. The standardised regression coefficient for Direct Role Management was marginally larger in the case of females (.278, $p < .01$) than males (.198, $p < .01$), implying that Direct Role Management was possibly a better predictor of family satisfaction for females.

For the prediction of family satisfaction from Cognitive Restructuring after adjusting for the covariates, the overall regression was significant for males, $\underline{R}^2 = .320$ (adjusted $\underline{R}^2 = .303$), $F(4, 163) = 19.149$, $p < .001$, but not for females, $\underline{R}^2 = .091$ (adjusted $\underline{R}^2 = .050$), $F(4, 89) = 2.225$, $p > .05$. The standardised regression coefficient for Cognitive Restructuring was substantially larger in the case of males (.320, $p < .001$) than females (.091, $p > .05$), implying that Cognitive Restructuring was a better predictor of family satisfaction for males.

For the prediction of partner satisfaction from Cognitive Restructuring after adjusting for the covariates, the overall regression was significant for males, $\underline{R}^2 = .211$ (adjusted $\underline{R}^2 = .192$), $F(4, 163) = 10.918$, $p < .001$, but not for females, $\underline{R}^2 = .119$ (adjusted $\underline{R}^2 = .080$), $F(4, 89) = 3.018$, $p > .05$. The standardised regression coefficient for Cognitive Restructuring was substantially larger in the case of males (.211, $p < .001$) than females (.119, $p > .05$), implying that Cognitive Restructuring was a better predictor of partner satisfaction for males.

For the prediction of partner satisfaction from Reducing Role Demands after adjusting for the covariates, the overall regression was not significant for males, R^2 = .074 (adjusted R^2 = .052), F(4, 163) = 3.268, p> .05, or females, R^2 = .112 (adjusted R^2 = .072), F(4, 89) = 2.800, p> .05. The standardised regression coefficient for Reducing Role Demands was larger in the case of females (.112, p> .05) than males (.074, p> .05). However, Reducing Role Demands was not significant for men or women.

Results Summary – The Effectiveness of Work-Family Coping Types

1. The coping types were significant predictors of the three facets of satisfaction: family, partner, and job satisfaction, after differences in work-family conflict, hours worked, and number of dependents were adjusted for statistically.
2. Not all the coping types showed statistically significant regression weights for all criteria. In fact, no one strategy predicted all three criteria. In general the significant relationships were positive indicating greater satisfaction with increased use of the strategy, but in two cases the reverse was true.
3. For three of the coping types there was some indication of an interaction with gender for two of the three satisfaction measures. However, only 3/21 interaction terms were significant indicating there was little difference between males and females in the relationship between use of coping types and satisfaction.

Discussion

Gender Differences in the Use of the Work-Family Coping Types

None of the five hypotheses on gender differences in the use of the individual work-family coping types were supported by the results of this study. The results were unable to demonstrate any significant gender differences in the coping types with

reference to the hypotheses for this population. Such a finding is inconsistent with earlier literature that demonstrates gender differences in the use of work-family coping strategies (e.g., Bird, Bird, & Scruggs, 1983; Schnittger & Bird, 1990). It is also inconsistent with Study 2 Part 2 of the present research. Contrary to the hypotheses, women did not use work-family coping types to a significantly greater extent than men. More specifically, they did not use Friend and Relative Support, Partner Support, and Cognitive Restructuring to a significantly greater extent than men. The only significant difference in the means was for Workplace Support. Consistent with the findings in Study 2, women used this coping type more frequently than did men. It is unclear why the findings of this study failed to replicate those found in Study 2. It should be noted, however, that while statistically significant gender differences were not identified, it can be seen from the results in Table 8.6 that the direction of the differences was the same as in Study 2. More specifically, women used the coping types to a greater extent than did men. Table 8.10 compares the means for men and women across the two studies.

Table 8.10

A Comparison Between the Means from the Univariate Tests in Study 2 Part 2 and Study 3

Coping type	Gender	Study 2 Part 2 means	Study 3 means
Direct Role Management	Female	3.74	3.44
	Male	3.46	3.39
Partner Support	Female	4.10	3.53
	Male	3.62	3.41
Tension Reduction	Female	4.00	3.70
	Male	3.81	3.74
Cognitive Restructuring	Female	3.70	3.49
	Male	3.60	3.53
Friend & Relative Support	Female	3.50	2.69
	Male	2.69	2.58
Workplace Support	Female	3.38	3.35
	Male	3.13	3.13
Reducing Personal Role Demands	Female	2.50	2.41
	Male	2.45	2.36

One possible explanation for the differences between the findings from the two studies is the educational level of each sample. The mean educational level of participants in Study 2 Part 2 was substantially higher than that in Study 3. Approximately half of the sample in Study 2 had an undergraduate or postgraduate degree as their highest educational level. Table 8.10 demonstrates that women from the more educated sample

(Study 2) seem to use some of the coping types to a greater extent than those in the lesser-educated sample (Study 3). The coping types that demonstrate this the most clearly are Partner Support and Friend and Relative Support. Other coping types that demonstrate this are Direct Role Management and Tension Reduction. One area for consideration resulting from this observation is that more educated samples of women tend to use certain coping types to a greater extent than women from less educated samples. However, it should be noted that this is an inference based on observing the means rather than a finding based on objective statistical evidence.

Gender Differences in the Effectiveness of Work-Family Coping Types

Only one hypothesis related to gender and work-family coping type effectiveness was supported by this study. This hypothesis was that the coping type, Direct Role Management, will be more effective for women than for men. This was the only coping type that was more effective for women than for men, and it was only more effective in predicting family satisfaction. In contrast to the hypotheses, one of the coping types (Cognitive Restructuring) was effective for men, but not for women, in predicting both partner and family satisfaction. While Reducing Role Demands was also more effective for men than for women, the analyses found that it was not significantly effective for either males or females.

In step 3 of the HRA, three of twenty-one product terms (coping type X gender) significantly predicted family and partner satisfaction (see Table 8.9). This indicated that gender was a moderator between the coping type and satisfaction for these strategies. These were Cognitive Restructuring, Direct Role Management, and Reducing Personal Role Demands. When further regression analyses were carried out for each coping type

for males and females separately, the most significant differences for gender were for Cognitive Restructuring in predicting family and partner satisfaction. The use of Cognitive Restructuring significantly predicted family and partner satisfaction for men, but not for women. This is a unique finding when compared to previous research.

Previous research has determined that Cognitive Restructuring is effective for both men and women but in slightly different ways (e.g., Guelzow et al., 1991; Paden & Buehler, 1995). The differences between this and the previous studies should be noted when interpreting the comparisons. First, the ways in which Cognitive Restructuring is measured may vary, however, direct comparisons are unable to be made as the authors of the previous research papers do not publish their entire scales. Second, different statistics are also used to arrive at these outcomes. For example, Paden and Buehler (1995) conducted hierarchical regression analyses but did not report the use of covariates, and analysed the data men and women separately. Third, the outcome measures in this and the previous research were different. Table 8.11 compares the three studies with relevance to Cognitive Restructuring.

Table 8.11

A Comparison between the Findings of Three Studies with Relevance to Cognitive Restructuring

Authors of study	Outcome variables used	Findings
Present research	Family and partner satisfaction	Cognitive Restructuring is significantly effective for men but not for women in predicting family and partner satisfaction.
Paden & Buehler (1995) (for a more detailed review of this study see Chapter 3)	Physical symptomology (e.g., nervousness, back pain) and emotional affect	Cognitive Restructuring has the most pervasive moderating effects for both men and women. For men, Cognitive Restructuring buffered the relationship between role conflict and physical symptomology. For women, Cognitive Restructuring buffered the influence of role overload and role conflict on physical symptomology and emotional affect.
Guelzow, Bird, & Koball (1991) (for a more detailed review of this study see Chapter 3)	Emotional stress with reference to professional, marital, and parental roles, and physical symptomology (e.g., difficulty falling asleep, tension related aches)	For men, more frequent use of Cognitive Restructuring was related to lesser physical distress as well as lower marital, professional, & parental distress. For women, more frequent use of Cognitive Restructuring was related to lesser physical distress as well as lower professional distress.

These results indicate that Cognitive Restructuring is likely to be effective for both men and women in different ways. While the coping type seems to have a positive impact on reducing aspects of physical and emotional distress for both men and women, its effects may be far more pervasive for men. The present research demonstrates that the use of Cognitive Restructuring can actually predict non-work role satisfaction for men.

As with Cognitive Restructuring, gender differences in effectiveness were also found for Direct Role Management. Although the strategy was effective for both men and women in predicting Family Satisfaction, the strategy was slightly more effective for women. While the construct of Direct Role Management is not represented in exactly the same way in previous studies, there is some indication that this finding is partially similar to previous research. When examining the relationship between coping strategies and negative outcomes, Paden and Buehler (1995) found that Planning buffered the influence of role overload and role conflict on physical symptomology and emotional affect (see Chapter 3 for a more detailed discussion of this study). However, in contrast to the present research it was determined that Planning had no significant effect for men in predicting these outcomes. Although some comparisons can be made between these studies, differences exist in the measurement of the coping type and the outcome variables themselves. Regardless of differences, the findings of these two studies indicate that Planning and Direct Role Management (which includes planning) are important in decreasing some problematic outcomes and increasing family satisfaction.

It may be that seeking greater control over work and family demands through direct management of the situation leads to family life running more smoothly. This in turn promotes family satisfaction. However, it is unclear why Direct Role Management does not promote job or partner satisfaction. Perhaps these facets are more difficult to control so that they run more smoothly. A study conducted by Matsui et al. (1995) on full-time Japanese women found that Family-Role Redefinition was used significantly more often and more effectively than Work-Role Redefinition (See Chapter 3 for a more detailed discussion of this study). Such a finding may indicate that women are able to

employ more strategies at home as they have greater control than they do at work. In Study 1 participants talked about Direct Role Management strategies they use at home to increase efficiency or enhance control. Some examples include getting up early to achieve what needed to be done, preparing meals on the weekend for the week and freezing them, and keeping a list of what tasks needed to be done.

Unlike Cognitive Restructuring and Direct Role Management, some coping types were found to be effective for the sample of both males and females. Gender was not found to be a moderator for the effectiveness of these coping types in predicting satisfaction. This can be seen in Step 2 of the HRA (See Table 8.9). Workplace Support was effective in predicting job satisfaction, and Partner Support was effective in predicting family and partner satisfaction. These findings do not support the hypotheses, which predicted that women would find Workplace Support and Partner Support more effective than men. It was expected that women would benefit more than men from seeking out forms of support (Perrewe & Carlson, 2002). It appears that these forms of support are important to both men and women. However, it should also be noted that overall there were only 7/21 significant main effects for coping thus indicating that coping use contributed relatively little to satisfaction.

In contrast to any previous research, two coping types were found in the current study to be negatively associated with satisfaction. Greater levels of Tension Reduction significantly predicted decreased job satisfaction, and more frequent use of Relative and Family Support significantly predicted decreased partner satisfaction. As there is no previous research indicating a link between these work-family coping types and decreased satisfaction, it is difficult to explain why this result occurred. There are

however, a couple of possibilities. First, if a person turns too readily to his or her external family for practical or emotional support, the partner may feel as if he or she is not being properly included their partner's work-family needs. Moreover, if there are a number of external people (e.g., parents-in-law) involved in the couple's work-family negotiations, the employee may consider that they are too reliant on others rather than each other, and that these people are interfering. These factors could lead to a reduction in partner satisfaction. Second, if an employee increases the amount of Tension Reducing activities to combat work-family conflict, they may become even unhappy at work, if their work begins to interfere with their time for relaxation activities. Obviously these possible explanations are speculative and further research is warranted to further examine whether some of the coping types that people use are ineffective in enhancing aspects of life satisfaction.

Research Limitations and Future Research

This study contributes to the literature by examining gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping strategies. As discussed in Chapter 3, such a topic has not yet been well addressed in the literature. The research also adds to previous literature by investigating three important aspects of life satisfaction: job, family, and partner. A research limitation is that the male and female samples were somewhat different. The male sample consisted predominantly of field (blue-collar) and professional staff and the female sample mainly comprised clerical and professional staff. This limitation may have influenced the research findings and should be kept in mind when interpreting the findings, and in relating the results to other research.

The results from Study 2, that there are gender differences in the use of four of the work-family coping types, was not replicated in the present study. Future research will need to be conducted to identify whether or not gender differences can be established in other populations. This study does demonstrate, however, that the use of some work-family coping types predict employee's well-being in terms of their job, family, and partner satisfaction. Furthermore, there are gender differences in the effectiveness of some work-family coping types in predicting satisfaction outcomes. Thus further research is warranted to investigate these concepts in more detail.

Further research is also required to investigate the coping types that are effective for both men and women. For example, Workplace Support was determined to be to be effective for both men and women in predicting job satisfaction. This is an important consideration for organisations, and more research is required to examine what aspects of Workplace Support are particularly effective in predicting life satisfaction for employees. Such research will enable organisations to better provide support to their employees. It may also help to inform the employees themselves about how to improve their own job satisfaction. It would also be useful to further research the coping types that are not found to be effective in this study. For example, are they effective in predicting some other outcome? Some of the work-family coping types may be effective in decreasing work-family conflict but ultimately not influential enough to predict aspects of life satisfaction.

A final research recommendation is to further investigate the two coping types that negatively predicted satisfaction outcomes: higher amounts of Friend and Relative Support negatively predicted Partner Satisfaction, and Tension Reduction negatively predicted Job Satisfaction. There is no evidence in the literature thus far that would

support this finding. Perhaps some strategies that people use to cope with their work-family conflict negatively impact aspects of life satisfaction.

CHAPTER 9: GENERAL DISCUSSION

Chapter Overview

This chapter considers the research project as a whole. Salient aspects of the work-family coping literature that guided the research program are first summarised briefly. The contributions of the individual studies are assessed as well as their strengths and limitations. Recommendations for progressing research on gender and work-family coping are made, practical implications are discussed, and an overall conclusion drawn.

The Status of Work-Family Coping Research

The aim of this research was to address significant gaps in the work-family coping literature. These related to the lack of adequate contemporary taxonomies of coping types and an instrument to assess them, and attention to gender differences in the use and effectiveness of the work-family coping types.

The impetus to the research was the increasing relevance of coping with work-family issues to individual well-being in today's society. The need to find effective coping strategies will grow as individuals continue to balance roles related to both work and home. As outlined in Chapters 1 and 2 the need to balance work and family demands is being driven by a number of factors, such as the developing role of fathers in raising children (Levine & Pittinsky, 1987), growing numbers of women entering and remaining in the workforce even during motherhood (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999), and the large number of dual-career/earner couples (ABS, 2002). Because few organisations have implemented appropriate coping support mechanisms for their employees (Aryee et al.,

1999; Burley, 1995), the individual is left to develop his or her own individualised work-family coping strategies.

Whereas earlier work-family coping literature focused on women's individual coping (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Hall, 1972), more recent research has investigated dual-career/earner coping (e.g., Haddock et al., 2001). As such, little recent research has addressed the individual work-family coping strategies of men and women.

In response to a growing need, many organisations are working to adopt ways in which they can assist their employees to cope with their work-family demands. Some of these were identified in the qualitative study reported here, and examples include flexible work hours and family leave entitlements. Government legislation is playing an important part in these choices. For example, the issue of increased paid maternity leave has been recently debated and received media interest. However, organisational coping structures and strategies are being introduced without the benefit of thorough research informing these decisions. More specifically, we do not yet have a clear picture about what coping types men and women use to manage their work-family conflict, and whether these are in fact effective or ineffective. We are also unclear whether gender influences coping strategy success.

The body of research has also lacked up-to-date research tools such as a taxonomy and measures of individual work-family coping. Studies have tended to use modified versions of Hall's (1972) taxonomy (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1993), Skinner and McCubbin's (1981) scale (e.g., Schnittger & Bird, 1990), and other scales from the counselling literature (e.g., Brink & de la Rey, 2001) to investigate work-family coping. In cases where a scale has been developed, researchers often publish example items

rather than the whole measure, which makes it difficult to use their scale in research (e.g., Schnittger & Bird, 1990). The absence of commonly used work-family coping tools has resulted in a lack of consistency in research, thus making it difficult to draw comparisons between studies.

In response to the importance and relevance of individual work-family coping, more intensive research is required to inform government, organisations, and their workers about work-family coping types, and gender differences in their use and effectiveness. Research needs to be better aligned with the demands of society and begin to anticipate the future requirements of organisations and their employees.

The research conducted for this thesis was carried out in response to the absence of recent literature investigating this important topic. The question asked was: Are there gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping types? The question was investigated in three stages. First, an individual work-family coping typology and an instrument to assess the strategies so identified were developed. Second, gender differences in the use of coping types were evaluated. Third, gender differences in the effectiveness of work-family coping types were assessed by predicting scores on the scale with several measures of satisfaction.

Research Conclusions and Contributions to the Body of Research

Development of the Research Tools

As discussed in the literature review chapters, the majority of work to date used aspects of taxonomies developed prior to changes in society and the workplace (e.g., Matsui et al., 1995), measures which had questionable reliability (e.g., Kirchmeyer,

1993), or measures that were not specific to work-family coping (e.g., Brink & de la Rey, 2001).

In Study 1 a taxonomy of individual work-family coping was developed using content analysis of interview data. Previous coping types and strategies identified in the literature were drawn on in the categorising stage of the content analysis (see Chapter 4). The taxonomy showed similarities with previous literature but some important differences were identified. First, defense mechanisms did not emerge as a coping type despite being reported by Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987) and Hall (1972). Although it is possible that the use of the interview method may have meant that participants were reluctant to report defensive strategies, it was considered more likely that men and women do not view such strategies as effective in dealing with work-family conflict. Second, a separation was made between Partner Support and Support from Family Members (other than partner), Relatives, and Close Friends. Previously, these forms of support were conceptualised as part of the same strategy (e.g., Hall, 1972). Third, an additional form of support, Organisational Support, needed to be included in the taxonomy. Such a coping type has not been previously documented in the individual work-family coping taxonomies (e.g., Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987), but has been mentioned in more recent literature (e.g., Muller, 1999). Fourth, as with Organisational Support, External Support Services formed a part of the taxonomy, although such a category had not been included in earlier taxonomies. External support strategies were largely unavailable when earlier taxonomies were developed.

The first part of Study 2 used the taxonomy developed in Study 1 to construct a measure of individual work-family coping (the IWFCS), using factor analysis and

reliability analysis. Reliable scales were developed for a number of the coping types. These were Direct Role Management, Partner Support, Tension Reduction, Cognitive Restructuring, Friend and Relative Support, Workplace Support, and Reducing Personal Role Demands. For a number of reasons outlined in Chapter 6, one coping type and a small number of coping strategies were not reflected in the final measure. These were Compartmentalism, Limiting or Modifying Role Demands, Involving Family Members/Relatives in Decision Making and Practical Tasks, Employing Day Care, Babysitting, or other Child-Minding Services, and Eating Takeaway/Going to Restaurants.

There are both strengths and limitations in these studies that need to be acknowledged and taken into consideration in future research. First, the qualitative methodology in Study 1 enabled the development of a relevant coping taxonomy. While any qualitative process involves subjectivity, the application of themes found in previous research and the maintenance of inter-coder reliability improved objectivity. The convergent interviewing process (Dick, 1990) ensured a variety of participants interviewed, and the flexibility of the process itself enabled modifications to be made to the interviewing process during the study. It also allowed for the immediate clarification with participants of any concepts such as “work-family conflict”. However, the study focused on staff from only one organisation and did not include blue-collar staff. The interviewing process itself may have resulted in employees trying to present themselves favourably, thus omitting coping strategies that could be poorly construed, e.g., coping strategies resulting in strong emotional responses (e.g., crying, yelling). Because of these limitations, the taxonomy is unlikely to be exhaustive and future modifications may need

to be made. The use of different populations and, importantly, the inclusion of blue-collar samples may improve the range of the taxonomy. Different methods (e.g., anonymous questionnaires) may also be useful to check the extent to which the interview method may have influenced the results.

Study 2 Part 1 was effective in that it provided a quantitative research tool with which to progress individual work-family coping research. All the scales on the measure were reliable and related to the findings of Study 1. Further research may benefit from broadening the research tool to include other coping types and strategies that were not able to be investigated in this research. In addition, a large proportion of the survey respondents were tertiary educated. In view of this, future research should endeavor to include populations that vary in their level of education.

A particular issue in development of the survey was the use of a non-applicable (NA) option for the questions. This was included because many of the items would not have been relevant to every respondent. In these cases, it was considered that forcing respondents to select a response would have adversely affected the results. However, the NA response was used more than expected by some participants, possibly when they were unsure how to answer a question or from fatigue. As a result, a few of the items had to be removed, and the responses of some of the participants who made extensive use of this option deleted from the analysis. In future research, this limitation should be taken into consideration during the design phase of the questionnaire.

Assessment of Gender Differences

The research tools were applied in Study 2 Part 2 and Study 3 to investigate gender differences in coping strategy effectiveness. These studies provided some support

for the hypotheses of gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping types. In Study 2, gender differences in the use of the coping types were found for Friend and Relative Support, Partner Support, Direct Role Management, and Workplace Support, with females making use of these strategies to a greater extent than males. However, there were discrepancies between the findings of Study 2 and 3 that require further exploration. In Study 3, the only statistically significant gender difference was in the use of Workplace Support. Despite the lack of statistical significance, the direction of the gender differences in means was the same in both studies, with the magnitude of the differences smaller in the second study (see Table 8.10).

Although it is unclear why Study 3 did not show statistical significance at the level found in Study 2, one possibility is that the difference in the educational level of the two samples may have played a role; the educational level of respondents in Study 2 was higher than that for those in Study 3. For example, it may be that women with higher levels of education are more educated about developing coping strategies to manage work-family conflict. Moreover, they may be in occupations or positions in which they are better able to control their work-family conflict. As such, educated women may use work-family coping strategies more frequently than men. Conversely, there may be a lesser gap in the use of work-family coping strategies between less educated men and women. As there is no research to support this theory, further research is needed to establish whether these differences can be replicated, and whether the demographic factor of education plays a moderating role. The majority of research on work-family coping has focused on educated samples (e.g., Guelzow, Bird, & Koball, 1991; Rotondo et al., 2003), possibly because they are easier to recruit and to work with using questionnaire-

based methods. The male sample employed in Study 3 comprised mainly professional and blue-collar staff, whereas the female sample comprised mainly professional and clerical. Acquiring a sample of both males and females evenly distributed across professional, clerical, and blue-collar is difficult, but future research would benefit from investigating all three types of job.

A limitation of the research is that one coping type, and a number of coping strategies that emerged in Study 1 did not become part of the coping measure developed in Study 2. These included Compartmentalism, Limiting or Modifying Role Demands, Eating Takeaway/Going to Restaurants, Involving Family Members/Relatives in Decision-Making and Practical Tasks. In addition, the items representing child-minding services were removed prior to analysis because there were insufficient respondents with young children. Further studies may benefit from re-examining these areas that were not able to be included in this research.

There were few gender differences in the effectiveness of the coping types in predicting job, family, and partner satisfaction. Such a finding was unexpected and is inconsistent with previous literature (e.g., Aryee et al., 1999; Paden & Buehler, 1995). However, differences in the outcome measures across studies suggest that gender differences may be more likely when using outcome measures such as physical symptomology, emotional affect (Paden & Buehler, 1995), and emotional stress (Guelzow, Bird, & Koball, 1991). Gender differences in coping type effectiveness may be more likely to occur in the prediction of some outcomes, but not others.

Despite the absence of substantial gender differences in predicting the effectiveness of the majority of coping types, some coping types were effective for both

men and women. These were Workplace Support (predicted job satisfaction) and Partner Support (predicted partner and family satisfaction). While these links seem obvious, the findings emphasise the pervasiveness of seeking out such strategies in positively influencing workers lives.

An unexpected result is that two of the coping types were negatively linked to satisfaction variables. Tension Reduction negatively predicted job satisfaction, and Friend and Relative Support negatively predicted Partner Satisfaction. If replicated, this finding means that some of the coping types employed by individuals may result in ineffective outcomes. It also indicates that greater use of a coping type is not necessarily linked to increased satisfaction. Coping strategy or type ineffectiveness has not been widely explored thus far in the literature and may be an important area of research development.

One other finding was the significance of the covariates in predicting satisfaction outcomes. At Step 1 of the hierarchical regression analysis (see Table 8.9), the covariates each played a role in predicting aspects of life satisfaction. More specifically, hours worked predicted job satisfaction, number of dependants predicted partner satisfaction, and work-family conflict predicted all facets of life satisfaction. This finding supports previous literature (e.g., Allen et al., 2000; Belsky, 1990; Crouter et al., 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Wendorf, 2002) and indicates that these covariates should be considered as potentially confounding variables (Burley, 1995) when planning future research (See Chapter 4 for a more detailed discussion of the covariates). The significant impact of work-family conflict on all aspects of life satisfaction is particularly important and reiterates the need for continued research on how to mitigate this form of life stress.

For effectiveness assessed in terms of self-reported satisfaction, there was some evidence of gender differences in the one sample in which the test was made. Study 3 demonstrated that Cognitive Restructuring was a significantly more effective strategy for men than women in predicting satisfaction with the family and partner. Direct Role Management was a significantly more effective strategy for women than for men in predicting family satisfaction.

As these finding are unique there is no literature to explain why these differences occurred. It may be that because a work role is typically so important for most men, they may benefit more than women from thinking positively about their family role demands. As such cognitive restructuring becomes a more effective strategy for men than women in predicting satisfaction with the family and partner. Because women tend to have greater work-family conflict than men (Duxbury et al., 1994), directly managing the problem may give women more time with their families and greater control over the situation. As such, Direct Role Management may be a particularly effective strategy for women.

Given that interaction terms in multiple regression analysis are difficult to replicate, more research is needed before it can be established that there are differences in effectiveness. It needs to be borne in mind as well that the manner of testing for effectiveness in this study is correlational and any inference from correlational research is necessarily made with caution. Showing that a measure of a coping type correlates with a measure of satisfaction may mean that use of the coping type leads to increased satisfaction. On the other hand, it may mean that those who are more satisfied for other

reasons are more likely to use particular coping types. It is also possible that an unidentified third variable is responsible for the relationship.

In general then the answer provided by the research must be qualified. There may be gender differences in the use and effectiveness of some coping types as these variables have been measured in the study, but the effects are small and were difficult to replicate here, and need to be substantiated in further work before firm conclusions are drawn.

Despite the qualified answer provided by the research, the question of whether there are gender differences in the use and effectiveness of work-family coping types warrants continued investigation, for two reasons. First, the present research suggests that gender differences may exist for some of the coping types. As there are few studies directly investigating this issue, further research would allow us to develop a more mature understanding of the research question posed in this thesis. Second, work-family conflict and coping are important and ongoing issues in contemporary society. As indicated in the literature review chapters, the issue is only going to become more relevant as men and women continue balancing both work and family roles.

Further research could apply essentially the same measures used here, but with larger sample sizes to allow a reasonable chance of replication. Educational level should be used as a possible moderator, along with gender and the covariates employed here. Given successful outcomes from a larger scale study of this kind, research could move to manipulative designs to assess the question of the direction of causation. Training programs for those measures found significant in the larger scale study would be targeted in those designs and their effects assessed.

Future Opportunities

In addition to research that addresses the limitations of the present thesis, a number of research opportunities exist to extend the present research program. First, a more detailed examination of the coping types and strategies may assist in deepening our understanding of coping behaviours. For example, what are all the different forms of Workplace Support provided to employees and how effective are they? Some of the more specific forms of support identified by participants in Study 1 include maternity leave, family leave, flexitime, and telecommuting. Furthermore, many articles have been written on various forms of Workplace Support that would be useful to investigate in this way, for example, parental leave of absence (Allen & Russell, 1999), job flexibility (Hill, et al., 2001), and employer supports for parents with young children (Friedman, 2001).

Gender is also likely to play a role in the effectiveness of such strategies. For example, Allen and Russell (1999) found that men who take a leave for parenting responsibilities are less likely to be recommended for rewards than women who take this form of leave. As such, it is possible that some specific forms of Workplace Support will be effective for one gender but not for the other. This investigation could also apply to other coping types such as Partner Support, Tension Reduction, and Cognitive Restructuring. Knowing more about what specific strategies are effective and ineffective for male and female employees would assist in strategic human resource management with organisations.

Second, using different outcome measures to assess coping effectiveness would identify the usefulness of a variety of coping types. The present research, and other studies discussed (e.g., Matsui et al., 1995; Guelzow, Bird, & Koball, 1991; Paden &

Buehler, 1995), have demonstrated that different coping types impact on a variety of outcomes. Gender is likely to play a role in coping effectiveness using a number of coping outcomes. Identifying how various coping types impact on outcomes would assist in better understanding the ways in which they can be helpful or unhelpful. Coping types that affect overall satisfaction are likely to be more pervasive than coping types that simply decrease day-to-day physical and mental stress.

Third, work-family coping effectiveness research should be extended to examine other family structures. Although the typical western family now includes two working parents (ABS, 2002; Aryee et al., 1999), other family structures are becoming more common, e.g., single parent families. Another family structure not well researched is families that act as "carers" for a disabled, elderly, or chronically ill family member (Fredriksen & Scharach, 1999). The types of coping strategies used and found effective by these minority family structures are likely to differ from those for more common prevalent family structures such as the dual-career/earner couple and the traditional family consisting of a husband, wife, and at least one child.

Practical Implications

From a practical point of view this research suggests that some coping efforts made by workers can have significant benefits on aspects of their life satisfaction. Previous research indicates that coping types also have positive impacts on physical and emotional stress (e.g., Paden & Buhler, 1995). As such, it is worthwhile for individuals to develop strategies to manage work-family conflict. Such coping is likely to decrease problematic consequences and enhance well-being.

One of the best ways for workers to be informed and educated about work-family conflict and coping is through their organisations. There is an increasing onus on organisations to educate their staff, and provide them with forms of work-family support. This research may play a role in providing information for managers considering work-family issues in the functioning of their organisation.

Providing work-family targeted policy, support, and incentives is likely to benefit employees and thus indirectly benefit the organisation itself. Organisational policies that take into account the needs of a diverse workforce are likely to provide a competitive advantage when recruiting employees (Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997). Career paths and policies that emphasise work-family support are becoming increasingly salient for job-seekers. In an effort to provide appropriate work-family policy, managers need to acknowledge the differences between men and women in addressing work-family needs. It is important to investigate their respective needs further, as well as identifying the gap between their needs and what the organisation provides (Long & Kahn, 1993).

When the gap between existing and required work-family support for men and women is better understood, interventions can be made within the organisation to improve or enhance the situation. An integral part of strategic human resource management is incorporating macro and micro levels of intervention to combat work-family related stress (Ivancevich, Matteson, Freedman, & Phillips, 1990).

Micro interventions target the individual workers by changing their experience of the work-family conflict (Ivancevich, et al., 1990). This involves teaching employees how to appraise, react, and cope with stress in ways to help them better manage such situations. This, and previous research discussed in the thesis, identifies a number of

coping types that appear to be most effective. An emphasis could be placed on these coping types in training and awareness programs. Some organisations may also provide this as a part of individual or group counselling for particularly susceptible individuals.

Macro interventions address structural or institutional changes (Ivancevich et al., 1990). Although the present research clearly identifies the effectiveness of Workplace Support in predicting job satisfaction, organisations are likely to benefit from further investigation of their own policies and procedures. Identifying which aspects of their policies and procedures are actually useful for staff would greatly inform each individual organisation.

Conclusion

The present research has contributed to the literature by the development of two individual work-family coping tools, a taxonomy of coping types, and a questionnaire for assessing many of them. The research has also offered some insight into gender differences in the use and effectiveness of the individual work-family coping types. The coping types that were particularly differentiated by gender in their use were Direct Role Management, Partner Support, Friend and Relative Support, and Workplace Support. While gender differences for only one of these coping types (Workplace Support) was replicated in Study 3, the direction of the differences was the same in both studies. There was less differentiation between men and women in terms of effectiveness. As noted earlier, only a small proportion of the interaction terms were significant. Gender differences were most pronounced for Cognitive Restructuring in the prediction of family and partner satisfaction. Gender differences were also evident in the prediction of family satisfaction from Direct Role Management. Partner Support and Workplace Support

predicted satisfaction outcomes for both men and women, while Friend and Relative Support and Tension Reduction negatively predicted satisfaction outcomes.

The findings of this thesis invite further research into work-family coping type use and effectiveness, as well as additional developments of the Individual Work-Family Coping Typology and the associated scale, the IWFCQ. The data presented here have theoretical as well as practical implications for organisational policy, procedure, and strategic human resource plans, as issues of work-family conflict increase in importance in contemporary society.

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Appendix A

Hall's (1972) Taxonomy of Women's Work-Family Coping

Table A1

Structural Role Redefinition (Coping Type I)

Coping strategy	Example
Eliminate (or add) particular activities within roles. Do not give up or add entire role, only certain components of it.	"I decided which areas of volunteer service were important to me - then I proceeded to drop the meaningless ones & concentrated on a few really important ones"
Role support from outside role set. Employing outside help to assume certain role activities.	"I hired a baby-sitter two days a week, and a cleaning lady one morning".
Role support by member of role set. Receiving help from role senders (usually in family) in performing activities necessary to meet role demands.	"I recruited my children to assist with housework chores at busy times"
Problem solving with role senders. Collaborative re-definition of roles. Moral support from or problem solving with role-senders in deciding how to resolve conflicts	"The conflicts are openly discussed with my husband and he helps me decide how to deal with them"
Integrate roles. Increase overlap among roles in a way that contributes to the other.	"Most important to me has been the rewarding experience of working with my husband. Observing him in his executive capacity, as well as father & husband, I have come to understand him & appreciate him even more (I also understand why his business trips are so necessary & why he is working so late at the office or in his study at home)."

Table A2

Personal Role Redefinition (Coping Type II)

Coping strategy	Example
Establish priorities for roles or within roles. Rank activities in order of importance.	"I respond by deciding in advance the order of priorities on my time. A child with a high fever takes precedence over school obligations. A child with the sniffles does not. A very important social engagement- especially business related - precedes the tennis. It a constant evaluation & a balancing of role-priorities."
Partition and separate roles. Devote full attention to a given role when in that role.	"I respond by not bringing my work home-so time at home can be devoted to family & their needs."
Overlook role demands or reduce standards. Choose not to meet certain roles.	"Overlooking little jobs, letting perfection in housework go down (slightly)"
Change attitudes towards roles or develop a new attitude which reduces conflict.	"I try to realise that I will be more interesting to family and friends if I am active in current affairs"
Eliminate roles. Withdraw from entire role area.	"Feeling that my child was deprived and that I was growing exhausted, I stopped working"
Rotate attention from one role to another. Handle each role as it comes up.	"I try to evaluate the area that needs the most time & attention or appears to be suffering from neglect at any one time, rather than keeping several machines running simultaneously."
Develop self and own interests. See personal interests as a valid source of role demands.	"I choose leisure occupations to balance responsibilities-piano and organ playing, singing for release from being tied down when children are small."

Table A3

Reactive Role Behaviour (Coping Type III)

Coping strategy	Example
Plan, schedule, organize better. Increase efficiency of role performance.	"I changed my working schedule, adapting it to the ages of my children."
No conscious strategy. No attempt to control role demands or own responses. Passive orientation toward role conflicts.	"My children grew up & are becoming independent. Time really took care of the conflicts."
Working harder to meet all role demands or own responses. Passive orientation toward role conflicts.	"Attempt to demand more of myself (time, energy.)"

Appendix B

Amatea and Fong-Beyette's (1987) Taxonomy of Women's Work-Family Coping

Table B1

Active Problem-Focused Responses

Coping type	Coping strategy	Illustrative statement
Increased Planful Role Behaviour	A.Attempts to meet all demands by working more efficiently, planning their time and energies more carefully to fit everything in.	A.“ I try to carefully allocate my time so that I get things done that others require or expect.”
Internal Role Redefinition	A. Consciously examines personal role expectations and standards with an eye toward maximising those that are most valued and necessary.	A.“I try to organise myself and what I do in terms of what I have to and what I want to do by setting some clear priorities so that I feel less pressured and more in control”
	B. Establishes priorities within and between roles, ranking activities in order of personal importance.	B. “I take a look at what I am asking of myself, where those come from, and what I might be able to cut back on.” “I try to think about what is most important to me personally as well as what I know I should do.”
	C. Consciously modifies standards and overlooks some role demands.	C. “I try to relax certain standards I have for how I do things to decrease the pressure I may be feeling.” “I consciously try to modify my standards about what I expect of myself in areas I feel are less important than my central goals.” “I try to drop tasks I feel are less important.”
External Role Redefinition	A. Acquires additional resources from outside the current role set to perform role demands.	A. I hired someone to come in and baby-sit three afternoons a week and to straighten up the house.
	B. Collaboratively problem solves with role senders to modify role demands.	B. “My husband and I planned our moving so that he would be freer to supervise much of the move”
	C. Reallocates role demands so that other persons perform some role tasks.	C. “My husband, children, and I developed a schedule of home cleaning activities so that I had less to do.”
	D. Problem solves with role senders to determine which role demands are most and least necessary.	D. “I try to find out what others really want me to do with an eye to deciding what I can cut back on.”

Table B2

Passive Problem-Focused Responses

Coping type	Coping strategy	Illustrative statement
Reactive Role Behaviour	A. Individual works harder to meet all role demands and to all that is expected by devoting more time and energy to performance.	A. "I try to put more energy into dealing with my situation." "I attempt to demand more of myself"
	B. No conscious strategy. No attempt to consciously control either role demands or role responses; or haphazard response; or attitude of passive forbearance.	B. "Things just take care of themselves"
	C. Harried attempts to please everyone. Individual often reports feeling pulled from one thing to another.	C. "I just never seem to be able to get everything done"
Prescribed Role Definition	A. Eliminates roles by withdrawing from an entire role arena and restricting activities to a narrower range of roles.	A. "I decided that I would not be able to have a family if I followed a medical career so that is what I have done." "I decided that it would be better not to marry given the demanding nature of my career."

Table B3

Active Emotion-Focused Responses

Type of coping response	Coping strategy	Illustrative statement
Cognitive Reappraisal	A. Changes in personal attitude are consciously sought by the person to modify the meaning of the situation.	A. "I tell myself that this is a demanding and pressure-filled time and it will pass." "I tell myself that this kind of lifestyle has more reward than any other despite it's drawbacks."
	B. Changes in personal attitude are consciously sought by the person to modify the meaning of her response to the situation.	B. "I tell myself that whatever happens, I am doing the best I can." "I tell myself that I have a lot going for me even if I do not handle this as well as I would like."
Tension Reduction	A. Activities aimed at "taking care of self" (such as meditation, time away, mental health days, jogging etc.) are cultivated.	A. "I try to take time to relax and get away from the situation"
Social Support	A. Actively seeks out social contact for moral support and comfort rather than solutions or information regarding one's problems.	A. "I seek out someone I care about who will listen to me gripe about the situation" "I talk with other women experiencing this so I feel less alone"

Table B4

Passive Emotion-Focused Responses

Type of coping response	Coping strategy	Illustrative statement
Intrapsychic Defense Response	A. Tries to suppress, deny, or restrain one's feelings about one's situation or one's responses to the situation.	A. "I tell myself I should not feel and act the way I do."
	B. Actively diverts or displaces feelings by perceiving others as responsible for one's situation and one's response to the situation.	B. "If I just had more hours in the day." "If women could be treated equally." "If my husband would just be more considerate/egalitarian/etc"

Appendix C

Study 1: Informed Consent and Subject Information Form

Project title: Gender and work-family coping strategies

Chief Investigator: Ms. Leith Middleton

Supervisor: Dr. Briony Thompson

1. Purpose of the research

Research has demonstrated that multiple roles (e.g., employee, parent, spouse) lead to problematic consequences for employees and their organizations. Potential negative outcomes include tiredness, irritability, depression, and ill-health, as well as tardiness, lower productivity, poor morale, and absenteeism for the organizations in which people work. It is clear that further investigation is required to determine what coping strategies tend to be more successful for people. Most of the research done on coping strategies is outdated and focuses heavily on women's work and home roles. I am a researcher doing a PhD in Organisational Psychology at Griffith University who is interested in the roles that are important to you and the types of strategies that you use to manage role demands.

2. What your involvement will entail

I would like to invite you to be involved in a thirty minute interview focusing on this topic. This interview will be held at your place of work, at a time convenient to you and your organization. In this interview I will be interested in hearing **your** experiences of multiple roles and what strategies you use to manage your demands. The information you provide will be treated confidentially. Your responses will be recorded and kept in a secure location at Griffith University. Your participation in this study is **entirely voluntary**. You have the right to terminate the interview at any stage after it's commencement.

I will be providing you organization with feedback on the collective results of the interviews once the study has been completed. This feedback will be a summary of overall findings and outcomes. No one will be personally identified. If you have any questions or concerns about this research please contact me or my supervisor on the above phone numbers.

Thank you for your time

…….

Chief Investigator Date

……..

Participant Date

Appendix D

Study 2 – Initial Questionnaire Items and their Source

Table D1

Items Representing Partner Support and their Source

Questionnaire item	Source	Original wording (if relevant)	Author/s of original item (if relevant)
I depend on myself to manage, but will rely on my partner if I need help.	Existing literature	Depend on yourself, but at the same time rely on others.	Hobfall, Dunahoo, & Monnier (1994)
I always talk to my partner to get out my frustrations.	Existing literature	Talk to others to get out your frustrations.	Hobfall, Dunahoo, & Monnier (1994)
I talk to my partner to develop my understanding of the situation.	Existing literature	I talk to someone to find out more about the situation.	Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub (1989).
I never talk to my partner about how I am feeling.	Existing literature	Talked to someone about how I was feeling.	Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub (1989).
I communicate my needs to my partner.	Existing literature	I am able to communicate my needs.	Jerabek (1996)
I rarely discuss my feelings about my demands with my partner.	Existing literature	I discuss my feelings with someone.	Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub (1989).
I seek out support from my partner when I need the opportunity to "take time off" from my work and family demands.	Existing literature	Please indicate the degree to which each of the following is present in your family life. • The opportunity to "take time off" when in need.	Etzion (1984)
I find that my ability to cope is strongly influenced by the extent to which my partner shares in home and family duties.	Existing literature	Please indicate the degree to which each of the following is present in your family life. • Sharing of duties.	Etzion (1984)
I find that my ability to cope is strongly influenced by the emotional support provided by my partner.	Existing literature	Go to someone for emotional support.	Hobfall, Dunahoo, & Monnier (1994)

Table D2

Items Representing External Support Services and their Source

Questionnaire item	Source	Original wording (if relevant)	Author/s of original item (if relevant)
I use hired help to achieve some of my role demands (e.g., gardener, housekeeper, child care.)	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I pay people to do chores.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I often employ the services of a childcare center or babysitter.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I hire outside support.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I frequently use support services to give me the time to attend to other tasks.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I make use of restaurants and fast food outlets so I have more time to devote to other tasks.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
My child/children go to day care so my partner and I get the chance to work.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable

Table D3

Items Representing Support From Family Members (other than partner), Relatives, and Friends and their Source

Questionnaire item	Source	Original wording (if relevant)	Author/s of original item (if relevant)
I check with a friend or relative about what they would do.	Existing literature	Check with friends about what they would do.	Hobfall, Dunahoo, & Monnier (1994)
I often ask a friend or relative I respect for advice.	Existing literature	I asked a friend or relative I respected for advice.	Folkman & Lazarus (1988)
I do not need to have emotional support from a close friend or relative.	Existing literature	I try to get emotional support from friends and relatives.	Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub (1989).
I do not seek out sympathy and understanding from a close friend or relative.	Existing literature	Accepted sympathy and understanding from someone.	Folkman & Lazarus (1988)
It is easy to talk to my fellow workmates about the problem.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I ask a close friend or relative for practical support (e.g., helping out with tasks that need doing)	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I ask a close friend or relative for emotional support.	Existing literature	I try to get emotional support from friends or relatives.	Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub (1989).
I prefer not to ask a close friend or relative to help me out.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
My family share home maintenance activities (e.g., cooking, cleaning, outdoor jobs) so that we help each other out.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
My child/children assist with tasks around the house so I have more time to devote to work.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable

Table D4

Items Representing Supportive or Family-Friendly Organisational Conditions and their Source

Questionnaire item	Source	Original wording (if relevant)	Author/s of original item (if relevant)
I am assertive with my work superior in negotiating my work role.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I wouldn't consider meeting with my work superior to discuss my demands.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I need practical support from my work superior.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I am able to cope because my workplace accepts my family responsibility needs.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I am able to cope because my workplace allows me the opportunity to perform my job, as well as allowing time to perform home-related duties adequately.	Existing literature	Non applicable	Non applicable
I ask my work superior to allow me to take time off for family.	Existing literature	Non applicable	Non applicable
My ability to cope is assisted by the part-time or flex-time opportunities my workplace allows.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I find that my work superior makes the situation less stressful by discussing work-family related problems.	Existing literature	My supervisor makes situations less stressful by discussing work-family related problems.	Carlson & Perrewe (1999)
I appreciate that my work superior is understanding when I need support.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I find that my work superior's management style allows me to cope more effectively.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I take advantage of the supportive family work options that this organization offers (e.g., maternity leave, flexible working hours, family leave).	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable

Table D5

Items Representing Active Cognitive Restructuring and their Source

Questionnaire item	Source	Original wording (if relevant)	Author/s of original item (if relevant)
I constantly remind myself that I cannot do everything.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I look for the silver lining.	Existing literature	Looked for the silver lining, so to speak; tried to look on the bright side of things.	Folkman & Lazarus (1988)
I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to rediscover what is important in life.	Existing literature	Rediscovered what is important in life.	Folkman & Lazarus (1988)
I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to change things about myself in a positive way.	Existing literature	Changed or grew as a person in a good way.	Folkman & Lazarus (1988)
I do not get stressed because I believe there is a way out of every situation.	Existing literature	I believe there is a way out of every situation.	Jerabek (1996)
I look for something good in what's happening.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I work on seeing things in a more positive light.	Existing literature	I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub (1989).
I think about how lucky I am to have the ability to do more than one role.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I draw on my past experience to make my coping behaviours more effective	Existing literature	Drew on my past experience; I was in a similar situation before	Folkman & Lazarus (1988)
I count my blessings knowing that I have more than one role in life.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I focus on thinking positively about the situation.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I try to relax certain standards I have for how I do things to decrease the pressure I am feeling.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable

Table D6

Items Representing Active Role Management and their Source

Questionnaire item	Source	Original wording (if relevant)	Author/s of original item (if relevant)
I take immediate action to get rid of the problem.	Existing literature.	I take action to get rid of the problem.	Jerabek (1996)
I think about what is important to me personally as well as what I know I should do.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I reduce the hours that I spend at work, so I can attend to my family demands.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I take a look at what I am asking of myself, and what I may be able to cut back on.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I carefully allocate my time so that I get things done.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I negotiate with others to take on tasks.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I set clear priorities so I feel less pressured and more in control.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I break up the problem into smaller parts, and then deal with the smaller parts based on priority.	Existing literature	Break up the problem into smaller parts and deal with the smaller parts.	Hobfall, Dunahoo, & Monnier (1994)
I reduce the hours I spend at home so I can attend to my work demands.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I plan what I am going to do and concentrate on each step.	Existing literature	I just concentrated on what I had to do next – the next step.	Folkman & Lazarus (1988)
I don’t leave things I could do today until tomorrow.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I make a conscious effort to decide which is the most important role to work on first.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I make a plan of action and follow it.	Existing literature	I made a plan of action and followed it.	Folkman & Lazarus (1988)

Table D7

Items Representing Tension Reduction and their Source

Questionnaire item	Source	Original wording (if relevant)	Author/s of original item (if relevant)
I find that time for myself is important for me.	Existing literature	Having time for myself is important to me.	Jerabek (1996)
I take time out to relax.	Existing literature	I take time to relax.	Jerabek (1996)
I make time for recreation (e.g., sports, reading, television, movies).	Existing literature	I enjoy active recreation (the outdoors, sports, reading, interactive entertainment).	Jerabek (1996)
I cope by taking time out to do enjoyable activities.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I go to the movies, or watch TV to get away from it all.	Existing literature	I go to the movies or watch TV, to think about it less.	Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub (1989).
I prefer not to take time out for myself to rest.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I do something to take my mind away from it all.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I engage in activities I enjoy.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I find that exercise helps me to relax.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable

Table D8

Items Representing Compartmentalism and their Source

Questionnaire Item	Source	Original wording (if relevant)	Author/s of original item (if relevant)
It helps to keep my work and family roles separate from each other.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I work on mentally separating my work and family roles	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I do not allow my family life to interfere with my with my work life.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I do not allow my work life to interfere with my family life.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I am unable to mentally separate my work and family roles.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable
I only deal with one role at a time.	Interviews	Non applicable	Non applicable

Appendix E

Study 2 Questionnaire

Project title: Work-family conflict: gender and coping

Chief Investigators: Leith Middleton (PhD student – Applied Psychology), Dr. Briony Thompson (Supervisor & Lecturer – Applied Psychology)

Dear Participant,

As a part of my PhD in Organisational Psychology at Griffith University, I am required to complete a research thesis. I am interested in obtaining a better understanding of the ways in which people manage the balance between their work and family demands. The aim of this research is to determine what coping strategies people use, as well as if there are any gender differences. The research is also focused on what strategies people find effective and ineffective.

The questionnaire is for research purposes only. Each questionnaire will remain anonymous and confidential. Please do not write any identifying information (e.g., name, address, phone number) on the questionnaire. There is no penalty if you do not choose to participate, and you have the right to withdraw at any time. **Your participation is completely voluntary. Completion of this questionnaire will be taken as informed consent.**

The questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Please read the instructions at the beginning of the questionnaire, and be sure to answer all questions. There is no right or wrong answers – it is your own responses that are important. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please return it as soon as possible in the envelope provided.

A summary of my findings will be available at the completion of the research. If you have any questions please contact me on 3875 3319, or my supervisor Dr. Briony Thompson on 3875 3369.

The University requires that all participants be in informed that if they have any complaints concerning the manner in which the research project is conducted it may be given to the researcher, or, if an independent researcher is preferred, either

The University's Research Ethics Officer, Office for Research, Bray Centre, Griffith University, Kessels Road, Nathan, 4111, ph 3875 6618.

Or – The Pro-Vice Chancellor, Bray Centre, Griffith University, Kessels Rd, Nathan, 4111, ph 3875 7343.

Thank-you for your assistance with my research.

Yours Sincerely,

Chief Investigator Date

SECTION ONE

The questions in this section ask you to provide background information about yourself. Please answer all questions.

Please answer the following questions by circling the most appropriate response, or writing your answer in the space provided.

1. What is your gender?

   Female…….1
   Male…….2

2. What is your age?

   …….years

3. What is your current marital status?

   Single……1
   Married……..2
   Partner you don't live with……3

4. How many children do you have?

   ……..children

5. How many stepchildren do you have?

   ……..stepchildren

6. What are the ages of your children/stepchildren?

   Child 1: …….years
   Child 2:……..years
   Child 3:……..years
   Child 4:……..years
   Child 5:……..years
   Child 6:……..years

7. Do you still live at home with your parents?

   Yes……1
   No…….2

8. What is your general job title? (e.g., manager, administration officer, solicitor)

9. What is your highest level of education obtained to date?

Junior (grade 10)…….1
Senior (grade 12)…….2
Technical College Certificate…….3
Technical College Associate Diploma/Diploma…….4
University Diploma…….5
University Undergraduate Diploma……6
University Postgraduate Degree……..7

10. Approximately how many hours do you work each week?…….Hours

11. Do you work shift work?

Yes……1
No…….2

SECTION 2

The following questionnaire describes strategies for managing the balance between work and family demands.

Rate each item in terms of how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement as it is for you at this point in your working life. **Please answer each question with reference to what you actually do, not what you would like to do.**

Please note that some of the questions may seem to be asking something similar. This is part of the intended research. Please respond to all questions asked.

Rate each statement by circling one of the numbers, using the following scale:

Circle 1 if you ***strongly disagree*** that you use this strategy to manage the balance between your work and family demands.
Circle 2 if you ***disagree*** that you use this strategy to manage the balance between your work and family demands.
Circle 3 if you are ***uncertain*** if you use this strategy to manage the balance between your work and family demands.
Circle 4 if you ***agree*** that you use this strategy to manage the balance between your work and family.
Circle 5 if you ***strongly agree*** that you use this strategy to manage the balance between your work and family.

"When I am having difficulty achieving both my work and family demands…..":

1. I am assertive with my work superior in negotiating my work role. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
2. I use hired help to achieve some of my role demands (e.g., gardener, housekeeper, child care). 1 2 3 4 5 NA
3. I constantly remind myself that I cannot do everything. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
4. I find that time to myself is important for me. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
5. I depend on myself to manage, but will rely on my partner if I need help. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
6. I pay people to do chores. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
7. It helps to keep my work and family roles separate from each other. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
8. I check with a friend or relative about what they would do. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
9. I wouldn't consider meeting with my work superior to discuss my demands. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
10. I look for the silver lining. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
11. I take time out to relax. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
12. I need practical support from my work superior. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
13. I always talk to my partner to get out my frustrations. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
14. I am able to cope because my workplace accepts my family responsibility needs. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
15. I talk to my partner to develop my understanding of the situation. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
16. I work on mentally separating my work and family roles. 1 2 3 4 5 NA
17. I am able to cope because my workplace allows me the opportunity to perform my job, as well as allowing me to perform home-related duties adequately. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

18. I often employ the services of a child care center or babysitter. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

19. I never talk to my partner about how I am feeling. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

20. I think about what is important to me personally as well as what I know I should do. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

21. I reduce the hours I spend at work, so I can attend to my family demands. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

22. I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to discover what is important in life. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

23. I make time for recreation (e.g., sports, reading, television, movies). 1 2 3 4 5 NA

24. I often ask a friend or relative I respect for advice. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

25. I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to change things about myself in a positive way. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

26. I hire outside support. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

27. I do not allow my family life to interfere with my work life. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

28. I communicate my needs to my partner. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

29. My child/children assist with tasks around the house so I have more time to devote to work. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

30. I accept less than perfection within my work and family roles. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

31. I cope by taking time out to do enjoyable activities. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

32. My ability to cope is assisted by the part-time or flex-time opportunities my workplace allows. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

33. I do not need to have emotional support from a close friend or relative. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

34. I take a look at what I am asking of myself, and what I may be able to cut back on. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

35. I carefully allocate my time so that I get things done. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

36. I do not seek out sympathy and understanding from a close friend or relative. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

37. I would cope more effectively if I had greater flexibility in my work scheduling. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

38. I negotiate with others to take on tasks. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

39. It is easy to talk to my fellow work-mates about the problem. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

40. I frequently use support services to give me the time to attend to other tasks. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

41. I set clear priorities so that I feel less pressured and more in control. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

42. I am not terribly organized. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

43. I do not allow my work life to interfere with my family life. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

44. I rarely discuss my feelings about my demands with my partner. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

45. I do something to take my mind away from it all. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

46. I break up the problem into smaller parts, and then deal with the smaller parts based on priority. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

47. I reduce the hours I spend at home so I can attend to my work demands. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

48. I plan what I am going to do and concentrate on each step. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

49. I ask a close friend or relative for practical support (e.g., helping out with tasks that need doing). 1 2 3 4 5 NA

50. My work superior makes the situation
less stressful by discussing work-family related problems. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

51. I look for something good in what's happening. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

52. I ask a close friend or relative for emotional support. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

53. I seek out support from my partner when I need the opportunity
to "take time off" from my work and family demands. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

54. I work on seeing things in a more positive light. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

55. I think about how lucky I am to have the ability to do more
than one role. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

56. I prefer not to ask a close friend or relative to help me out. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

57. I appreciate that my work superior is understanding when
I need support. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

58. I make use of restaurants and fast food outlets so I have
more time to devote to other tasks. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

59. I learn something positive from the experience. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

60. I count my blessings knowing I have more than one role in life. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

61. I engage in activities I enjoy. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

62. I find that my work superior's management style allows me
to cope more effectively. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

63. I focus on thinking positively about the situation. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

64. It is important for me that the organisation for which I
work has a number of supportive policies (e.g., parental leave,
family leave, rostered days off). 1 2 3 4 5 NA

65. I am unable to mentally separate my work and family roles. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

66. I don't leave things that I could do today until tomorrow. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

67. My family shares in home maintenance activities (e.g., cooking, cleaning, outdoor jobs) so that we help each other out. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

68. I take advantage of the supportive work options that this organisation offers (e.g., maternity leave, flexible working hours, family leave). 1 2 3 4 5 NA

69. I make a plan of action and follow it. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

70. I sometimes overlook pressing demands 1 2 3 4 5 NA

71. I only deal with one role at a time. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

72. I find that my ability to cope is strongly influenced by the emotional support provided by my partner. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

73. My child/children go to day care so my partner and I get the chance to work. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

74. I try to relax certain standards I have for how I do things to decrease the pressure I am feeling. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

75. I find that exercise helps me relax. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

76. I make a list of tasks in order of importance. 1 2 3 4 5 NA

Appendix F

Study 3 Questionnaire

GRIFFITH UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY

Chief Investigator: Dr Briony Thompson (Senior Lecturer – Applied Psychology)

Assistant Investigators: Leith Middleton & Shelley Barratt

Dear Participant,

We are currently conducting research to investigate the ways in which people manage the balance between their work and family demands. The aim is to determine which coping strategies are most effective for women and for men.

This questionnaire is for research purposes only. Each questionnaire will remain anonymous. Please do not write any identifying information (e.g., name, address, phone number) on the questionnaire. **Your participation is voluntary. There is no penalty if you chose not to participate, and you have the right to withdraw from answering the questionnaire at any time. Completion of this questionnaire will be taken as informed consent.**

The questionnaire will take approximately 25 minutes to complete. Please read the instructions, and be sure to answer all questions. There are no right or wrong answers – it is your own responses that are important. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please return it as soon as possible in the envelope provided.

A summary of the findings of the study will be available at the completion of the research. If you have any questions please contact Leith Middleton on 3875 3319, or Dr. Briony Thompson on 3875 3369.

The University requires that all participants be informed that if they have any complaints concerning the manner in which a research project is conducted it may be given to the researcher, or, if an independent researcher is preferred, either

- The University's Research Ethics Officer, Officer for Research, Bray Centre, Griffith University, Kessels Road, Nathan, 4111, ph. 3875 6618, **or**

- The Pro-Vice Chancellor, Bray Centre, Griffith University, Kessels Rd, Nathan, 4111, ph. 3875 7343.

Thank you for your assistance with our research.

Yours sincerely,

…….

Chief Investigator Date

SECTION ONE

The questions in this section ask you to provide background information about yourself. Please answer all questions.

Answer the following questions by circling the most appropriate response, or writing your answer in the space provided.

1. What is your gender?

   Female……1
   Male……2

2. What is your age?

   ……..years

3. What is your current marital status?

   Single……1
   Married……..2
   Living with partner……3
   Partner you don't live with……4
   Separated or Divorced……...5
   Widowed…….…..6

4. How many children / stepchildren do you have?

   …….children

5. What are the ages of your children /stepchildren?

   Child 1:……..

   Child 2:……..

   Child 3:……..

   Child 4:……..

   Child 5:……..

   Child 6:……..

6. Which category best fits your current employment?

Professional……..1
Clerical……..…2
Operational……..…….3

7. What is your highest level of education obtained to date?

Junior (grade 10)……..1
Senior (grade 12)……2
TAFE/Technical College Certificate or Diploma……3
University Diploma……...……..4
University Undergraduate Degree……..….5
University Postgraduate Degree……..6

8. Approximately how many hours do you work each week?

…….hours

9. Do you work shift work?

Yes……1
No…….2

SECTION TWO

The following questions describe how satisfied you are with your present job. Please use the following scale to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Please circle one number for each statement:

Circle 1 if you *strongly disagree* with the statement
Circle 2 if you *disagree* with the statement
Circle 3 if you are *uncertain* whether you agree or disagree with the statement
Circle 4 if you *agree* with the statement
Circle 5 if you *strongly agree* with the statement

1. My job is like a hobby to me	1	2	3	4	5
2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored	1	2	3	4	5
3. It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs	1	2	3	4	5
4. I consider my job rather unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5
5. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am often bored with my job	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job	1	2	3	4	5
8. Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am satisfied with my job for the time being	1	2	3	4	5
10. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get	1	2	3	4	5
11. I definitely dislike my work	1	2	3	4	5
12. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people	1	2	3	4	5
13. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work	1	2	3	4	5
14. Each day of work seems like it will never end	1	2	3	4	5
15. I like my job better than the average worker does	1	2	3	4	5
16. My job is pretty uninteresting	1	2	3	4	5
17. I find real enjoyment in my work	1	2	3	4	5
18. I am disappointed that I ever took this job	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION THREE

The following questions describe how much work-family conflict that you experience. Please use the following scale to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Please circle one number for each statement:

Circle 1 if you *strongly disagree* with the statement
Circle 2 if you *disagree* with the statement
Circle 3 if you are *uncertain* whether you agree or disagree with the statement
Circle 4 if you *agree* with the statement
Circle 5 if you *strongly agree* with the statement
Circle NA if the question is *not applicable* to your current situation

1. My job keeps me away from my family too much	1	2	3	4	5	NA
2. I feel I have more to do than I can handle comfortably	1	2	3	4	5	NA
3. I have a good balance between my job and my family time	1	2	3	4	5	NA
4. I wish I had more time to do things for my family	1	2	3	4	5	NA
5. I feel physically drained when I get home from work	1	2	3	4	5	NA
6. I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work	1	2	3	4	5	NA
7. I feel I have to rush to get everything done each day	1	2	3	4	5	NA
8. My time off from work does not match other family members' schedules well	1	2	3	4	5	NA
9. I feel I don't have enough time for myself	1	2	3	4	5	NA
10. I worry that other people at work think my family interferes with my job	1	2	3	4	5	NA

SECTION FOUR

The following questions describe how satisfied you are with your family life. Please use the following scale to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Please circle one number for each statement:

Circle 1 if you *strongly disagree* with the statement
Circle 2 if you *disagree* with the statement
Circle 3 if you are *uncertain* whether you agree or disagree with the statement
Circle 4 if you *agree* with the statement
Circle 5 if you *strongly agree* with the statement
Circle NA if the question is *not applicable* to your current situation

1. I am satisfied with belonging to my family.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
2. I am satisfied with the family's way of life.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
3. I am satisfied with the possibility of expressing what I feel in my family.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
4. I am satisfied with the extent to which family members are close to each other.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
5. I am satisfied with how the family spends its leisure time.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
7. I am satisfied with the way family members communicate with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
8. I am satisfied with how my family fits into the neighborhood.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
9. I am satisfied with the social relations my family has.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
10. I am satisfied with the way my family relates to the wishes of all the family members.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
11. And now, think of what for you would be an ideal family, one which is perfectly adjusted. Where on the scale would you rank your family compared to the ideal family? **(1 = a family which is not at all well adjusted; 5 = a family that is ideally adjusted)**	1	2	3	4	5	NA

SECTION FIVE

The following questions describe how satisfied you are with your current relationship. **If you are currently single then please do not complete Section Five.**

Please use the following scale to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Please circle one number for each statement:

Circle 1 if you *strongly disagree* with the statement
Circle 2 if you *disagree* with the statement
Circle 3 if you are *uncertain* whether you agree or disagree with the statement
Circle 4 if you *agree* with the statement
Circle 5 if you *strongly agree* with the statement

1.	My partner meets my needs	1	2	3	4	5
2.	In general I am satisfied with my relationship	1	2	3	4	5
3.	My relationship is good compared to most	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I wish I hadn't gotten into this relationship	1	2	3	4	5
5.	My relationship has met my original expectations	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I love my partner	1	2	3	4	5
7.	There are many problems in my relationship	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION SIX

The following questions describe the ways in which people cope with their work and family demands.
Please use the following scale to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Please circle one number for each statement:

Circle 1 if you *strongly disagree* with the statement
Circle 2 if you *disagree* with the statement
Circle 3 if you are *uncertain* whether you agree or disagree with the statement
Circle 4 if you *agree* with the statement
Circle 5 if you *strongly agree* with the statement
Circle NA if the question is *not applicable* to your current situation

"When I am having difficulty achieving both my work and family demands……..."

1.	I always talk to my partner to get out my frustrations	1	2	3	4	5	NA
2.	I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to rediscover what is important in life.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
3.	I find that time to myself is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
4.	I check with a friend or relative about what they would do.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
5.	I carefully allocate my time so that I get things done.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
6.	I am able to cope because my workplace accepts my family responsibility needs.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
7.	I talk to my partner to develop my understanding of the situation	1	2	3	4	5	NA
8.	I remind myself that managing both roles assists me to change things about myself in a positive way.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
9.	I pay people to do chores.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
10.	I take time out to relax.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
11.	I often ask a friend or relative I respect for advice.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
12.	I set clear priorities so that I feel less pressured and more in control.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
13.	I am able to cope because my workplace allows me the opportunity to perform my job, as well as allowing me time to perform home-related duties adequately.	1	2	3	4	5	NA

14. I never talk to my partner about how I am feeling.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
15. I work on seeing things in a more positive light.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
16. I make time for recreation (e.g., sports, reading, television, movies).	1	2	3	4	5	NA
17. I take immediate action to get rid of the problem.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
18. My ability to cope is assisted by the part time or flex-time opportunities my workplace allows.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
19. I communicate my needs to my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
20. I think about how lucky I am to have the ability to do more than one role.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
21. I hire outside support.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
22. I cope by taking time out to do enjoyable activities.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
23. I ask a close friend or relative for practical support (e.g., helping out with tasks that need doing).	1	2	3	4	5	NA
24. I plan what I am going to do and concentrate on each step.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
25. I find that my work superior makes the situation less stressful by discussing work-family related problems.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
26. I depend on myself to manage, but rely on my partner if I need help.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
27. I count my blessings knowing that I have more than one role in life.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
28. I frequently use support services to give me the time to attend to other tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
29. I do something to take my mind away from it all.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
30. I ask a close friend or relative for emotional support.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
31. I try to relax certain standards I have for how I do things to decrease the pressure I'm feeling.	1	2	3	4	5	NA

32. I appreciate that my work superior is understanding when I need support.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
33. I constantly remind myself that I cannot do everything.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
34. I prefer not to ask a close friend or relative to help me out.	1	2	3	4	5	NA
35. I make a list of tasks in order of importance.	1	2	3	4	5	NA

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE. IT IS MUCH APPRECIATED.

REMEMBER: DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE.
PLEASE PLACE IT IN THE SEALABLE ENVELOPE.