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TOPIC

WORK FAMILY CONFLICT AMONGST FEMALES IN A SERVICE ORGANISATION
IN THE WESTERN CAPE

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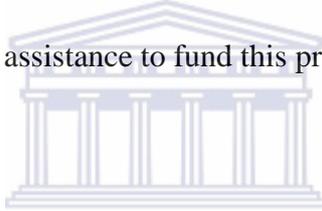
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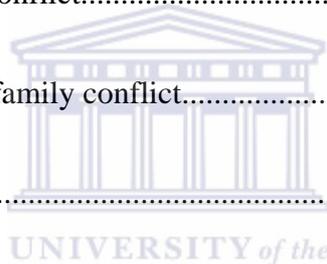
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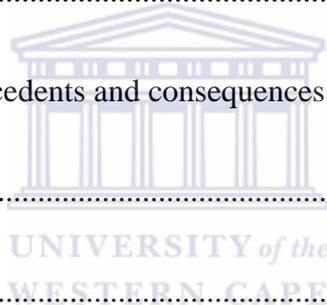
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ABSTRACT

In recent years, there has been a proliferation in research on work-family conflict which has become more prevalent in recent years due to the economic climate in which increasingly large numbers of women are entering or returning to the labour market. Finding equilibrium in work and family arenas has also become more important to South African employees. Traditional gender roles have evolved and the role of females as homemakers is no longer the norm. However, an alternative set of social standards have not yet been established as a substitute to new patterns of work and family life. As a result, it is important to focus on concerns relating to female experiences in the workplace to try and overcome the effects of work-family conflict on females.

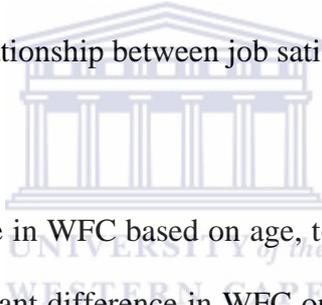


Job stress and role stress have increased dramatically in work and family life, as more women attempt to balance responsibilities at home whilst simultaneously trying to overcome challenges faced with at the office. Typically role ambiguity, role overload and role interference arises and ultimately produces two forms of conflict: time-based conflict and strain-based conflict. Self-efficacy and implementing coping strategies are means to overcome this.

The objective of this study was to explore and add to existing research done on work-family conflict amongst females in the workplace. More specifically the study is to determine whether relationships exist between the variables: job stress, role stress, role overload, inter-role conflict, spousal support, coping behaviours; job, family and life satisfaction, emotional exhaustion; the nature of the relationships and the causal impacts between these variables.

Two hundred questionnaires were administered and 150 were returned to women employed in a service oriented organisation in the Western Cape.

The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was utilized to analyze and present data in this research with frequency tables and graphical illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables in this study. The results reveal that there are statistically significant relationships amongst work overload and work-family conflict (WFC). There was also a significant relationship between parental overload and WFC. Moreover, the strongest relationship emerged between WFC and family-to-work conflict (FWC). Females experiencing WFC showed a tendency to rely on problem-focused coping strategies. In addition, there was an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and WFC.



There was a significant difference in WFC based on age, tenure, number of children, income and tenure. There was no significant difference in WFC on the basis of marital status. There were statistically significant differences in FWC based on some of the biographical characteristics of the respondents. There was a significant difference in FWC based on age, tenure, income and occupation.

Approximately 35% of the variance in WFC can be explained by age, education, income, work overload, parental overload and spousal support. These variables account for 33.53% of the variance in WFC, and suggest that other unexplored variables could explain the variance in WFC levels experienced by respondents. Approximately 38% of the variance in role stressors can be attributed to age, education, income, work overload, parental overload and spousal support in relation to FWC. The results which emanated from the current study assist

in furthering an understanding of WFC and FWC. Individual and organisational implications are discussed and recommendations are made to further enhance this study with additional research into this area being warranted.

KEY WORDS:

Work-family conflict, time-based conflict, strain-based conflict, females, role stress, job stress, work load, emotional exhaustion, life satisfaction, self-efficacy



CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

During the past couple of decades researchers have significantly focused their attention on understanding the work/family interface. Research on work/family conflict has identified its antecedents and consequences, explored gender differences in perceptions of conflict, evaluated the effectiveness of organizational efforts to decrease conflict, and examined the positive aspects of having work and family roles (Frone, 2003; Voydanoff, 2005b). Despite the broadening of the content domain to include both positive and negative aspects of the work/life interface, the majority of work/nonwork research focuses on the interface between work and family roles, such as childcare, eldercare, or marital relationships, with very few studies focusing on defining and measuring conflict and enhancement with nonfamily roles outside work (Kirchmeyer, 1992a, 1992b; Voydanoff, 2005a).

Figures provided by Erwee (1994) confirm the growth in the number of women managers in the South African context during a period when the focus was on black male advancement. In 1985 women constituted 17% of all managerial, executive and senior administrative positions. This figure had risen to 20% in 1992. Comparative statistics from Australia indicate that in 1966 women held 12% of the management positions, whereas by 1991, women constituted 25% of all management positions (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1966; 1991). To this extent, female managers and professionals are presenting a partial challenge to the “gender regime of the workplace”.

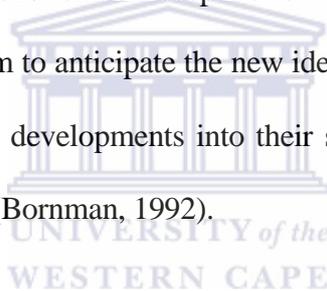
Research reported by Grant (2000) in Australia, Britain, and the United States indicates that in comparison to their male counterparts, women managers are likely to earn less, to have a lower status position (Blau & Ferber, 1987; Freedman & Phillips, 1988), to be childless or to have fewer children, and to be single, divorced, or separated (Alban-Metcalf & West, 1991; Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Davidson & Cooper, 1984).

Over the past two decades, the subject of work-family conflict (WFC) has received widespread publicity and has been subject to increasing investigation (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux & Brinley, 2005; Jones, Burke & Westman, 2004; Pitt-Catsouphes, Kossek & Sweet, 2006). This is mainly because of dramatic changes in the economic, political and social climate which suggest that the integration between the work and family domain are becoming increasingly difficult and that work-family issues will become more and more important. There are now more dual-income families, working heads of single-parent families, working women of all ages, working mothers, men with direct responsibility for family care, workers caring for elderly relatives and workers in the sandwich generation with responsibility for both childcare and eldercare (Duxbury & Higgins, 2006).

Simultaneously, there has been an intensification of work. More women and men are working longer hours and are reporting greater demands in their workplaces. More pressure is placed on employees as they struggle with increased global competition and more demanding customers in an environment where speed and cost have become more important (Lewis & Cooper, 2005).

According to Nadler and Nadler (1994, p. 63), "environmental demands are creating profound stress for most companies. Markets, supplies, and regulations are changing drastically. Competition is on the increase, forcing executives to rethink business strategy and methods of addressing unexpected challenges. As if these external forces are not enough to contend with, organisations have to grapple with demands from within: worker attitudes are shifting; labour-management tensions are increasing, and productivity is declining".

In conjunction with this, the dynamic nature of modern organisations, particularly those competing in global markets and their susceptibility to external pressures, makes it imperative that managers and their organisations remain receptive to new ideas, approaches and attitudes. This receptiveness will enable them to anticipate the new ideas likely to have an impact on their organisations; accommodate these developments into their strategic and operational plans and maintain a competitive advantage (Bornman, 1992).



Within this hyperturbulent environment, organisations are being compelled to adapt in the face of a changing work-force, advances in technology and a fundamental transformation in the values of their members (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992). In accordance with these changes, procuring the highest calibre and qualified personnel requires attention to training and proactive management development programmes, combined with visionary leadership (Milkovich & Boudreau, 1994). Moreover, dealing fairly with minorities and women requires attention to programmes of selection and appraisal (Beardwell & Holden, 1994).

Robbins (1998) maintains that a number of factors, as illustrated in Figure 1.1 have impacted on the changes that have been seen in organisations, one of which resulted in the growing number of women that have either started working in, or returning to formal employment.

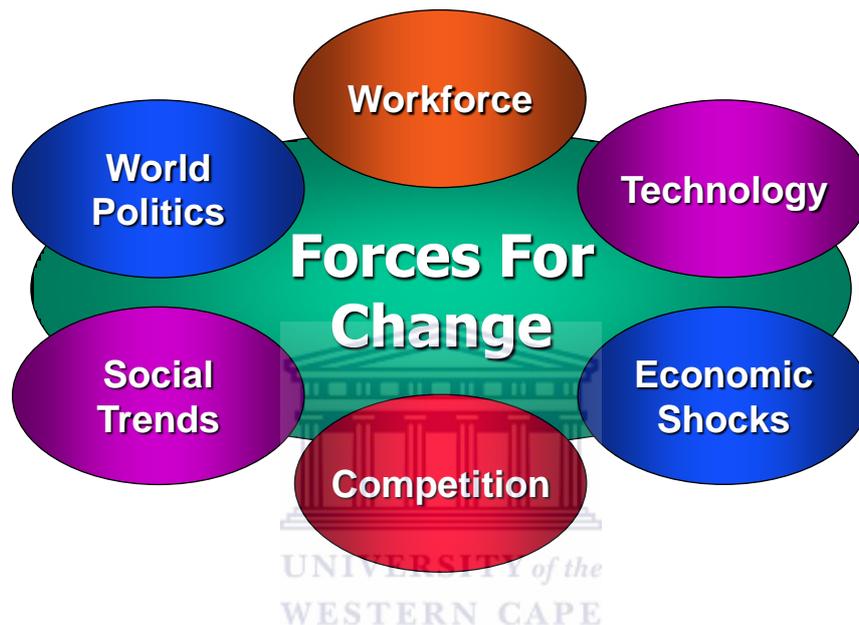


Figure 1.1: Robbins (1998). Organisational Behaviour.

Changes in the demographic make-up of the workforce have been the impetus for the increased focus on work and family issues (Googins, Griffin, & Casey 1994; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997). Also, competing demands, which arise between work and family roles, often result in conflict for employees. Beside the increase in women, dual-earner couples, and single parents in the workplace, technological change and the need to be globally competitive has increased the pressures on organizations and employees alike. The challenges of integrating work and family life are therefore, part of everyday reality for the majority of

working families. While the particulars may vary depending on income, occupation, or stage in life, these challenges cut across all socio-economic levels and are felt directly by both women and men.

Research on work-family conflict has become prevalent in recent years (Eby et al., 2005; Jones et al., 2004; Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006). It is consequential of the changes in the global market, with a concomitant increase in employed women (Butler & Skattebo, 2004). Finding equilibrium in work and family arenas has also become more important to South African employees. Traditional gender roles have evolved (Wallis & Price, 2003). The role of females as homemakers is no longer the norm. However, Nickols (1994) states that an alternative set of social standards have not yet been established as a substitute to new patterns of work and family life. As a result, it is important to focus on concerns relating to female experiences in the workplace to try and overcome the effects of work-family conflict on them.

Job stress (Beutell, & Wittig-Berman, 2008) was found to be a significant variable contributing to work-family conflict. It is also becoming more prevalent in South African organisations (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx, & van der Schyf, 1996). The authors state that it is not easy to establish various stress levels associated within different professions. Increases in absenteeism and resignations amongst others are normally associated with high levels of stress. Role stress (Lu, & Lee, 2007) has increased dramatically in work and family life due to an emergence of females in the workforce. This is due to juggling responsibilities at home whilst simultaneously trying to overcome challenges faced

with at the office. Role ambiguity (Karatepe & Uludag, 2007), role overload and role interference (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Voydanoff, 1993) arise.

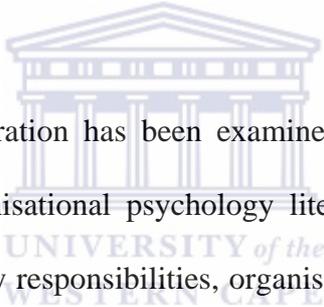
Karatepe et al. (2007) confirm that there is a converse relationship between role ambiguity and emotional exhaustion. A study conducted by Bakker, Demerouti, and Dollard (2008) confirm that irrespective of sex, employment responsibilities give rise to both work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion. Posig and Kickul (2004) are convinced that emotional exhaustion is a result of work-family conflict.

Wallis et al. (2003) state that the conflict that emerges from this interference takes two forms: time-based conflict and strain-based conflict. There is a direct relationship between time-based conflict and role overload (Duxbury et. al, 1991). Increased strain in one role could avert the fulfilment of responsibilities in the other (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986) and implementing coping strategies are means to overcome this. The author states that “self-efficacious beliefs help determine individuals’ willingness to initiate specific behaviours, persistence and emotional reactions in the face of barriers and conflicts” (p. 86).

Work/family conflict may result in negative outcome at the individual, family and work levels (Bellavic & Frone, 2005) such as withdrawal from family and work responsibilities, increased stress, absenteeism, low job commitment and productivity, and the loss of talented men and women (Frone, 2003; Higgins, Duxbury, & Lee, 1994; MacEwen & Barling, 1994). On the other hand, various benefits of fathers’ involvement in childcare have been

demonstrated. These include, for example, children achieving better academically and enjoying a higher sense of self-esteem and social competence (Pleck & Masciadrelli, 2004), fathers having stronger bonds with their children and wives, and greater emotional satisfaction compared with men with fewer life roles (Crosby, 1991).

Work/ family conflict needs to be viewed within the context of the benefits of involvement and the impact on overall life satisfaction. Both work to family conflict and family to work conflict are inversely related to life satisfaction and psychological well-being (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000).



Work- family conflict and integration has been examined quite often in human resource management and industrial/organisational psychology literature. As employees attempt to balance work demands and family responsibilities, organisations will have to decide to what extent they will go to minimise this conflict. Work-family integration clearly remains a major issue among professional women; hence it needs to be on the forefront of all organisations' strategic plans.

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

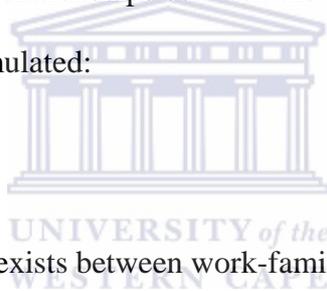
The objective of this study is to explore and add to existing research done on work-family conflict amongst females in the workplace. More specifically the study is to determine:

- Whether relationships exist between the variables: job stress, role stress, role overload, job, family and life satisfaction, emotional exhaustion;
- The nature of the relationships and;
- The causal impacts between these variables.

The relationship between these variables will be investigated.

1.3 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

In accordance with the proposed relationships between the concepts and the research problem the following hypotheses are formulated:



1. A significant relationship exists between work-family conflict and job stress.
2. There is a statistically significant relationship between work-family conflict and role stress.
3. A significant relationship exists between work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion.

1.4 DEFINITIONS AND TERMS

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985, p. 77) describe **work-family conflict** as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect.”

When the time spent to accomplish tasks at work lessens time needed to complete responsibilities at home, and vice versa, **time-based conflict** is said to transpire (Netemeyer et al., 1996; O’Driscoll, Ilgen & Hildreth, 1992; Small & Riley, 1990). This form of work-family conflict is resultant of an accrual of **job stress** and the employee’s ability to balance responsibilities from both arenas (Greenhaus et al., 1985).

Strain-based conflict occurs when “strain produced by one role, such as irritability, fatigue and anxiety, prevents role demands in the other domain from being fulfilled” (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

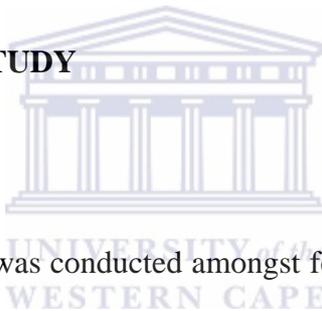
Behaviour-based conflict arises “when certain patterns of role behaviour may well be in conflict with the expectations of behaviour in other roles” (Mostert, 2008, p. 3). Donald and Linington (n.d., p. 661) state that it “refers to the incompatibility of behaviours and values across roles.”

Stress may be defined as “a discrepancy between an employee’s perceived state and desired state, when such a discrepancy is considered important by the employee. Stress influences two behaviours: (1) the employee’s psychological and physical well-being; and (2) the employee’s effort to cope with the stress by preventing or reducing it” (Carrell et al., 1996, p. 418).

Wallis et al. (2003) state that **role overload** occurs when the demands of both work and family roles surpasses what the person is capable of doing – thereby not being able to fulfil the demands of either proficiently. The authors confirm that **role interference** “exist when the demands from two or more roles conflict to the extent that the requirements of neither can be accomplished” (p. 27).

Self-efficacy relates to “the belief in one’s ability to perform a specific task” (Cinamon, 2010, p. 86).

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY



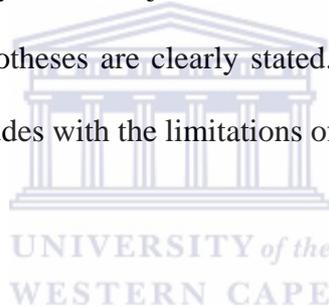
Research on this particular topic was conducted amongst females in a service organisation in the Western Cape. One of the main limitations of the study relates to the use of a non-probability sampling design. As a result, the research findings may not be extrapolated with certainty to the population of females in other industries. There should be awareness that the outcome in different environments may vary from the sample that was selected in this study. Random sampling may vary the outcome of the findings.

It is acknowledged that variables such as coping strategies, organisational support and schedule flexibility may buffer work/family conflict (Sumer & Knight, 2001). Therefore, caution should be exercised in generalising the findings to other samples, particularly given the sample size and characteristics.

Another limitation also includes the relatively small sample size and unparalleled gender ratio. The findings of the study therefore may not be compared to females in a different environment. The external validity of the study could therefore be compromised. Future research may encompass the inclusion of males in the study.

1.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter encompasses an overview of the research study with specific reference to the relationship between work-family conflict, job- and role-stress and emotional exhaustion. The research objectives and hypotheses are clearly stated. Definitions of concepts used are also provided. The chapter concludes with the limitations of the study.



1.7 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter one provides an overview of the concepts work-family conflict, job- and role-stress and emotional exhaustion. A theoretical background is provided thereof. The objectives are introduced to bring perspective to the study and present a holistic outline within which to understand the aforementioned variables.

A literature review on work-family conflict, job- and role-stress, and emotional exhaustion is provided in chapter two. A general discussion of these variables is provided and its relevance to females is discussed.

Chapter three comprises a detailed overview of the research methodology to explore the aforementioned research problem. Herein the research design, sampling method, data collection method and statistical techniques are defined.

The results yielded from the aforementioned chapter may be found in chapter four. The proposed hypotheses are also tested herein.

Chapter five involves a discussion on the results confirmed in the previous chapter. Subsequent thereto, conclusions are drawn and compared to previous research findings based on similar studies. Practical inferences of the findings are emphasised. Recommendations for future studies are summarised.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 WORK FAMILY CONFLICT

As organisations become more vulnerable to environmental turbulence and the vicissitudes of their employees, it becomes increasingly important to maintain a healthy balance between the activities which serve the needs of the individual and those which serve the needs of the organisation. Bolton and Gold (1994) maintain matching individuals to appropriate jobs ultimately raises individual capability, which contributes to the competitive advantage of the organisation. The multi-cultural organisation needs to acknowledge connections between work and family, and seek to create a culture that legitimises work-family issues and helps employees balance their involvements in different life roles (Armstrong, 1995). In essence, organisations are being called on to manage diversity effectively in order to promote efficiency. The nature of diversity is succinctly depicted in Figure 2.1

Four Layers of Diversity

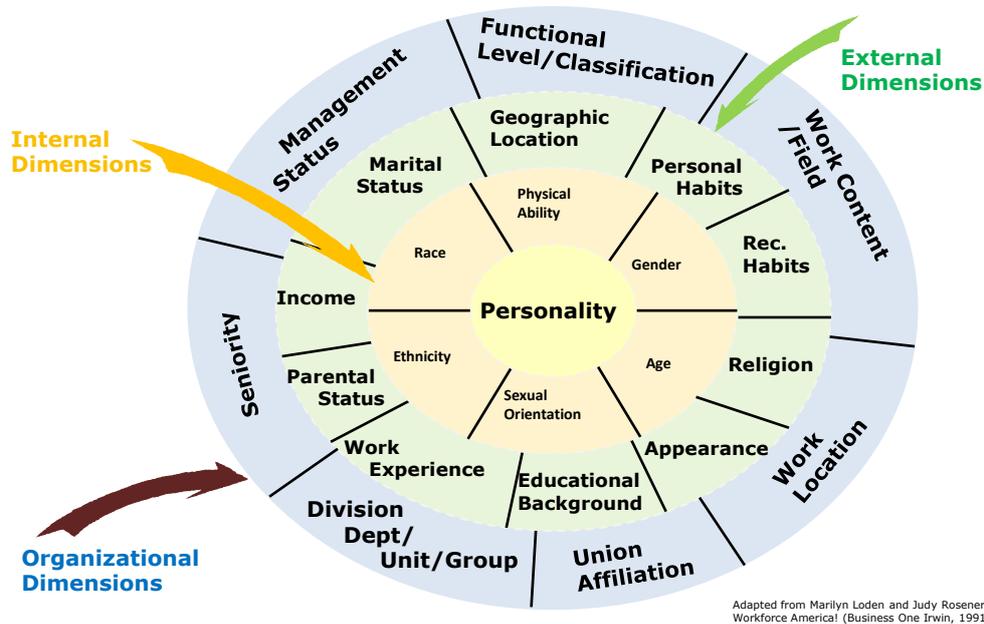
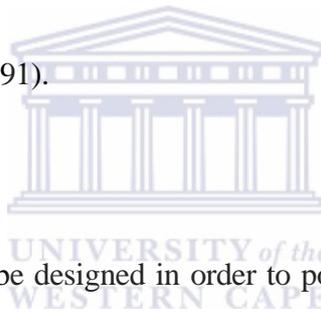


Figure 2.1: Loden and Rosener (1991).



Organisational initiatives need to be designed in order to positively affect productivity and the quality of work life (QWL). Thus issues of part-time employment, telecommuting, compressed work week, parent-tracking, flexitime, job-sharing, elder care and on-site child care centres are becoming an increasingly important feature in organisations (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992).

Although there is a paucity of research on the benefits of flexitime, compressed work schedules and job sharing, research suggests these programmes help employees manage home/work conflicts and have a limited effect on productivity. Hence, the available evidence suggests approaching alternative work schedules with caution when attempting to improve employee productivity (Beach, 1991). Employee diversity will have a sweeping impact on the human resources management function. Therefore, human resource management must be willing and

able to participate fully in solving the problems that face organisations from a strategic, proactive and top-down approach (Messmer, 1990).

Despite the robust body of literature on work-family experiences among European and American families, there is a relative dearth of empirical research on South African women's experiences in managing work and family roles. However, with the promulgation of the Employment Equity Act, the number of women entering the workforce is likely to continue increasing exponentially. The importance of research on work-family issues among employed mothers emerged with changes in demographic patterns across South Africa and societal attitudes about work and family (Zedeck, 1992). Over the last quarter of the twentieth century, there has been a significant increase in the percentage of dual-earner families and the number of married women with young children entering the workforce (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). However, despite the recent expansion of literature on dual-career earners, relatively few studies have examined work-family issues among South African women.

These demographic and structural changes in the workforce and family structure have not only affected work and family roles and their interrelations (e.g. Bond, Galinsky & Swanberg, 1998; Ferber, O'Farrell & Allen, 1991; Sulsky & Smith, 2005), but also have had a significant impact on individual behaviour in an organisational setting and ultimately on organisational functioning itself (Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000; Houston, 2005; Lewis & Cooper, 2005; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1999). According to these studies, work-family issues affect company competitiveness and are therefore not only a problem for employees but also pose a challenge for organisations. Various studies have shown that a large proportion of employed workers, and employed parents in particular, have serious difficulty

in combining work and family/domestic obligations (Bond et al., 1998; Galinsky, Bond & Friedman, 1993; Geurts & Demerouti, 2003).

Poor interaction between work and home is also associated with various negative organisational outcomes, which include reduced job and life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), low organisational commitment and intentions to quit (turnover) (Jamal, 1985), low levels of job performance and the prevalence of accidents (Monk & Folkard, 1985). In addition, a very strong relationship has been found between WFC and burnout, specifically exhaustion (Koekemoer & Mostert, 2006; Janssen, Peeters, De Jonge, Houkes & Tummers, 2004; Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2005).

Traditionally, the guiding assumption has been that work and family were two incompatible domains. The term, work-family conflict, generally refers to the inter-role conflict in which the role demands from work are incompatible with role demands from family (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). More specifically, the relationship between work and family has been conceptualized as a bi-directional construct where work roles affect family roles and vice versa (e.g., Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991).

A recent review reported that there is substantial evidence indicating that work-family experiences, especially work-family conflict, contribute to poor physical health (Greenhaus, Allen, & Spector, 2006). In terms of emotions, the two most commonly measured signs of psychological distress stemming from work-family conflict are anxiety and depressed mood (Grimshaw, 1999, p. 219).

Work Family Conflict (WFC) has been a widely researched topic within recent years (Eby et al., 2005; Mostert, 2008). This is a direct consequence to shifts in the economic, political and social market. Price increases and poverty contribute to females participating more actively in positions outside the domestic front and lead them to be employed on a permanent basis (Theunissen, Van Vuuren, & Visser, 2003). According to Naidoo and Jano (2002, p.69), these shifts greatly affect “the traditional family structures, gender role prescriptions, and the division of domestic labour.”

According to Casale and Posel (2002), South African females are obligated to find jobs due to complete economic desperation. There is an increase in working mothers, employed females and dual-income families, amongst others (Duxbury et al., 2006). The trend of an influx of females is referred to as “feminization” of the workforce (Casale, 2004). At the same time however, pressure in the workplace has increased (Mostert, 2008). Females have the added pressure of having to cope with pressures at work that stunt their performance within their roles at home (Theunissen et. al., 2003). As a result, finding equilibrium between work and family spheres is growing ever more challenging.

Dynamic involvement in both these domains has its pros and cons. It has its advantages to the person participating in the activities. However, the demands on the person’s time and energy may be taxing (Cinamon, 2010, February). WFC is just one negative consequence of this clash between the roles. Frone (2003) generally refers to the negative impact WFC has on behavioural and emotional consequences in both work and family spheres. Some of these effects comprise of “increased health risks for employed spouses, poorer performance in both

roles (at work and home), absenteeism, turnover, poor morale and reduced life satisfaction” (Thomas & Ganster, 1995, p.18).

Previous studies on WFC have recognized its causes and consequences (Fisher, Bulger & Smith, 2009). Variances in awareness by gender were researched, and the efficiency of employers’ attempts to reduce conflict was assessed (Frone, 2003; Voydanoff, 2005b). As previously mentioned, there has been an influx of female employees in the South African workforce in recent years (Census96, 1996). This is as a direct consequence of socio-demographic transformation within the workplace (Mostert, 2008).

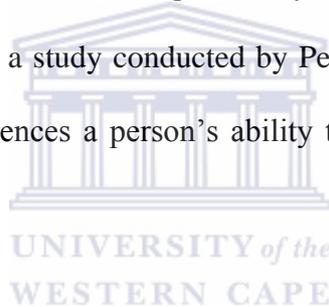


According to Statistics South Africa (2004), 46% of all females and 62% of males are employed whereas 34% of female employees are married. The same may also be true for international markets (Wallis et al., 2003). According to Blau, Ferber, & Winkler (1998), the number of dual-career couples increased from 39% to 61% of all married couples between 1970 and 1993 in America. Stewart and Donald (2006) confirm that these figures symbolize a noteworthy transformation in stereotypical female roles. Consequentially, more females need to deal with both their responsibilities at home and their responsibilities in the workplace. As a result, Erasmus (1997) suggests that concerns around female practices in the workplace should be attended to.

The rise of females in the workplace is coupled with studies based on the relationship between the spheres of work and family (Donald et al., n.d.). Clark (2000) states that the findings of these studies have resulted in the acknowledgement that there is a significant

relationship between the two spheres. Barnett (1998) states on the other hand that most of the studies mentioned previously generally concentrate on females. The latest research has however consisted of males in dual-career couples (Donald et al., n.d.). Voydanoff, (2002) confirms that gender studies in the work/family context have commonly been focussed on gender-role and social-role theory. There is however a lack of research of the correlations that adds to WFC due to a shortage of a comprehensive theory (Sumer & Knight, 2001).

Due to economic globalization, studies conducted on WFC should concentrate on a variety of different labour forces (Grzywacz, Arcury, Márin, Carrillo, Burke, Coates, 2008). It was established that WFC leads to role conflict – specifically in an individual’s work and family life (Netemeyer et al., 1996). On a study conducted by Peus and Traut-Mattausch (2008), it was determined that values influences a person’s ability to find equilibrium between work and family roles.



2.2 DEFINING WORK FAMILY CONFLICT

According to Barnett (1998), the statement that work and family are independent focus areas vying for resources (e.g. time and attention) maintains to be prominent in society at large. Greenhaus et al. (1985, p.76) define work family conflict as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect.” It is a consequence of two factors:

1. Aspects surrounding the time needed to execute work and domestic responsibilities.
Time spent in one domain may not be available for the next.

2. Psychological spill-over of emotions associated with changing roles from one sphere to another. This spill-over can impact the psychological availability and energy levels to execute the other role (Voydanoff, 1988). This spill-over may be encouraging or demotivating.

2.3 FORMS OF WORK FAMILY CONFLICT

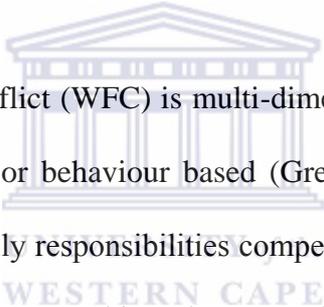
Frone (2000) suggests that Greenhaus et al.'s (1985) definition involves a bidirectional affiliation between an individual's occupation and domestic life. Gutek et al., (1991) are of the same sentiment. As a result, two forms of work-family conflict arise: Work to Family Conflict (WFC) and Family to Work Conflict (FWC).

Initially, work-family literature focused on the negative psychological effects of juggling work and family roles. The phrase "work-family conflict" (WFC) emerged in the 1980s, with the sharp increase in women's participation in the workforce. In terms of role theory, work-family conflict occurs because of an inter-role conflict in which the role demands of one sphere (work or family) are incompatible with the role demands of another sphere (work or family). The assumption that work and family are separate spheres and in competition for resources such as time and attention continues to be dominant in our society (Barnett, 1998).

Currently, the most widely used theory for explaining work-family conflict is the conservation of resources theory (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Hobfoll, 1988; 1989). Unlike traditional theories that define strain in terms of either an outcome or a perception of environmental challenges, the conservation of resources theory also takes into account worries about the possible loss of resources in the future, such as the depletion of energy

required to complete future tasks. This theory proposes that people strive to protect and build resources, such as objects, conditions, energies, and personal characteristics.

Psychological stress occurs when these resources are lost or threatened. Work-family conflict is conceptualized as the consequence of “resources being lost in the process of juggling both work and family roles” (Grandey et al., 1999, p. 352). Since resources are not limited to concrete reserves, the inclusion of personal characteristics and conditions allows for exploration of how cultural contexts influence work-family conflict. It also provides a framework in understanding how coping methods and support ameliorate work-family conflict (Jansen, Kant, Kristensen, & Nijhuis, 2003; Lapierre & Allen, 2006).



The construct of work-family conflict (WFC) is multi-dimensional and refers to conflict that may be time-based, strain-based or behaviour based (Greenhaus et al., 1985). Time-based conflict occurs when job and family responsibilities compete for the individual’s time. Time-related conditions such as long working hours, schedule inflexibility, shift work requirements, and overtime/evening duties are consistently related to WFC (Byron, 2005, Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996). Strain-based conflict suggests that strain experienced in one role crosses-over and interferes with participation in another role. Work stress is caused by conflict within one’s occupational role, work role ambiguity, and work role overload (Kahn et al., 1992) and leads to role pressure and incompatibility (Greenhaus et al., 1985). Conversely, family-related stress such as marital and parental conflict can lead to interference with work roles (Byron, 2005). Behaviour-based conflict occurs when specific behaviours required in one role are incompatible with behavioural expectations in another role. Gutek et al., (1991) also identified the bi-directionality of WFC, such that conflict can take the form of work

interfering with family (work-to-family conflict) or the form of family interfering with work (family-to-work conflict).

As a predictor of work-related consequence, WFC has been associated with negative workplace outcomes such as absenteeism and turnover, intentions to leave work and low job satisfaction. Furthermore, individuals who experienced work-family conflict have been found to incur increased health risks, inadequate performance in family roles, reduced family and life satisfaction, and poor marital adjustment (Boles, Johnston, & Hair, 1997; Hughes & Galinsky, 1994).

2.3.1. Work-To-Family Conflict

Work-To-Family (WTF) conflict occurs when responsibilities at work prevent an individual from carrying out duties at home or with the family (Voydanoff, 2005b). Frone et al. (1992) confirm that WTF conflict is a result of incidences where responsibilities at work hinder domestic tasks e.g. finishing work at home to the detriment of family time.

2.3.2. Family-To-Work Conflict

On the other hand, Family-To-Work (FTW) conflict occurs when responsibilities from home affect occupational tasks e.g. postponing meetings due to family responsibility. Similarly, FTW conflict occurs when family responsibilities prevent the execution of responsibilities in the workplace (Voydanoff, 2005b).

Moreno-Jiménez, Mayo, Sans-Vergel, Geurtz, Rodríguez-Muñoz, & Garrosa (2008) confirm that these forms of conflict influence workers' health and welfare. Psychosomatic strain (Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurtz, & Pulkkinen, 2006), depression and anxiety (Lapierre & Allen, 2006), and insomnia (Williams, Franche, Ibrahim, Mustard, & Layton, 2006) are all linked to these forms of conflict. Life satisfaction in general is also negatively influenced by these forms of conflict (Aryee, Fields, & Luk, 1999).

2.3.3. Models of conflict

Frone et al. (1992) created a WTF conflict model depicted below:

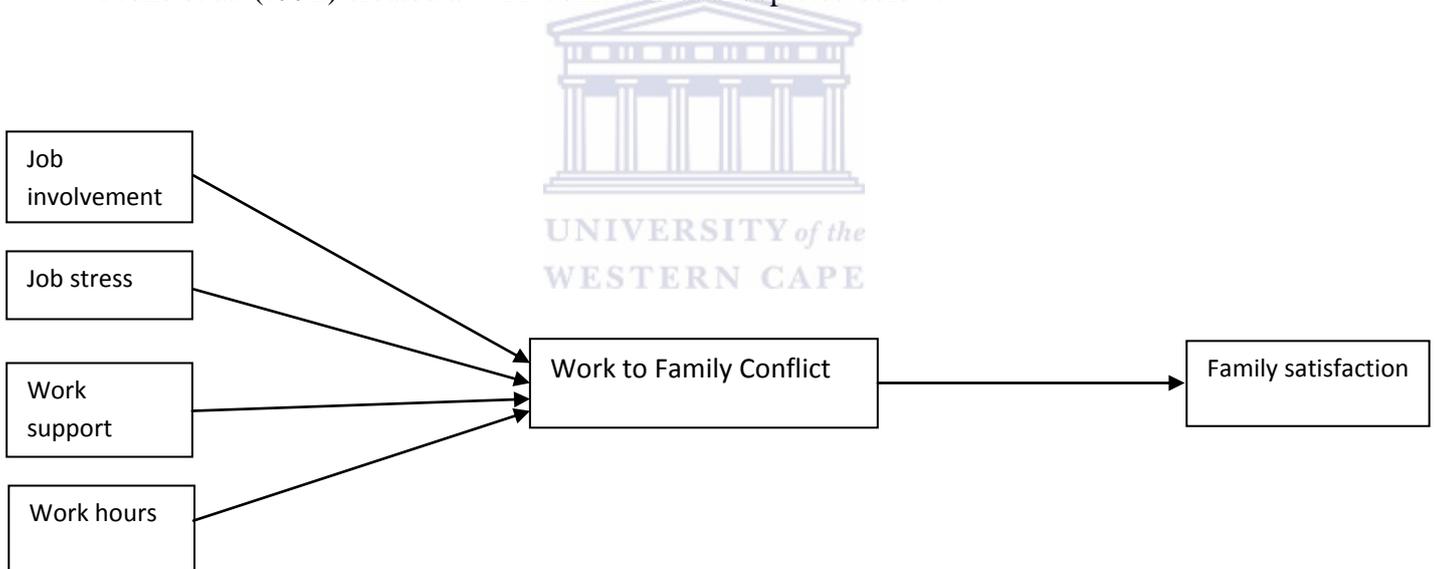


Figure 2.2: Work-to-family conflict model based on Frone et al. (1992).

Figure 2.2 emphasises the affiliation between occupational-related variables when investigating WTF conflict. It also focuses on family related variables when investigating FTW conflict. In addition, the model also shows a cross-domain effect where family satisfaction is explicated through occupation specific factors, and job satisfaction through

family specific factors. This effect has been confirmed through research conducted by Byron (2005).

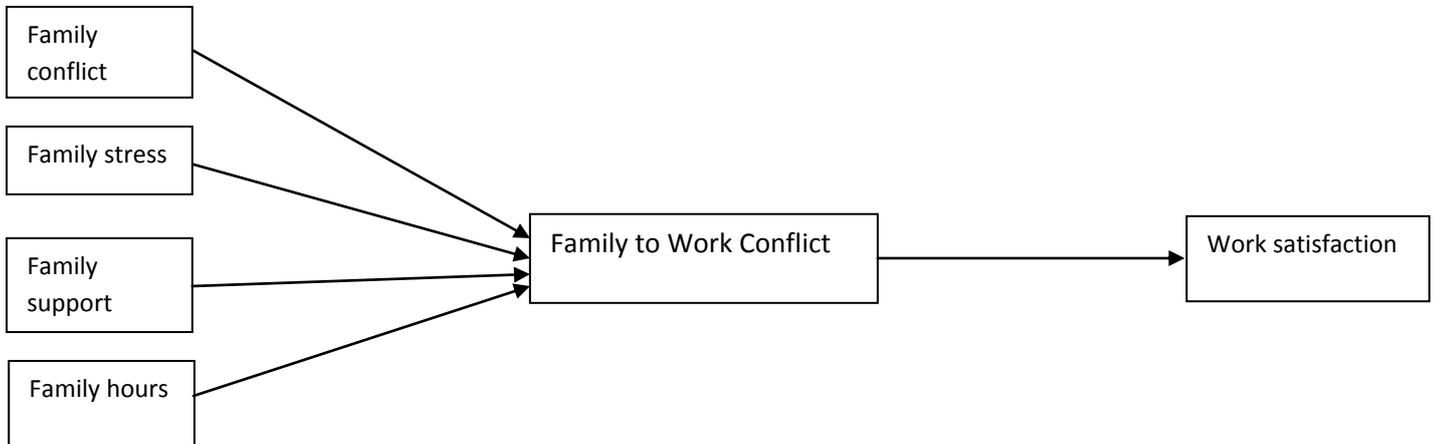


Figure 2.3: Family-to-work conflict model based on Frone et al. (1992).

Both figures 2.2 and 2.3 depict that WFC may be used interchangeably as a predictor and an outcome (Tsai, 2008). It was discovered that occupational factors influenced WTF conflict more than FTW conflict (Byron, 2005). Job- and family stress, and family conflict had the strongest relationship with WTF conflict and FTW conflict.

2.4 TYPES OF WORK FAMILY CONFLICT

Three types of WFC are identified: time-, strain- and behaviour-based conflict (Greenhaus et al., 1985). Mostert (2008) does, however, point out that time- and strain-based conflict is more commonly utilized in WFC studies.

2.4.1. Time-based conflict

Carlson (1999) confirms that time-based conflict is built on the principle that utilizing one's time in one domain (e.g. work) will not allow the individual to commit his/her time in another (e.g. family). For example, an employed parent may forego a school recital due to a deadline at work. The opposite would also apply. Greenhaus et al. (1985) state that time-based conflict is not a consequence of overlapping times alone; it may also be derived from an accrual of workplace stress and the inability to simultaneously deal with responsibilities at work and at home.

Byron (2005), Judge et al. (1994), and Parasuraman et al. (1996) identify the following factors influencing time-based conflict: working overtime, a fixed schedule, shift work and working excessive hours.

2.4.2. Strain-based conflict



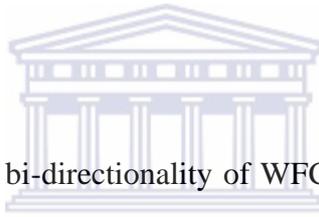
“Strain-based conflict accounts for the negative emotional spillover from one domain into other domains” (Donald et al., n.d., p.661). Greenhaus et al. (1985) state that stresses at work could negatively impact the individual's family life and vice versa. Tsai (2008) provides the following example: an employee may not be able to focus at work should the individual have an ill child at home. Signs of strain like tiredness and depression felt at work may influence active involvement in responsibilities at home (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001).

Kahn, Byosiere, Dunnette and Hough (1992) state that work stress results from conflict in an individual's work role, role ambiguity and role overload. According to Greenhaus et al. (1985), these factors could result in role pressure and incompatibility. On the other hand,

Byron (2005) states that family stress (e.g. marital and parental conflict) could impede with work responsibilities.

2.4.3. Behaviour-based conflict

Behaviour-based conflict may be defined as “the incompatibility of behaviours and values across roles” (Donald et al., n.d., p.661). The compassionate behaviour of a mother, for example, could conflict with emphatic behaviour considered necessary in specific roles in the workplace. Lambert, Hogan, Camp and Ventura (2006) established that behaviour-based conflict was correlated to occupational stress and satisfaction based on research conducted on correctional officers.



Remaining on the premise of the bi-directionality of WFC, Greenhaus et al. (1985) propose that there are both work and family variables that influence time- and strain-based conflict. According to Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999), as a result of limited studies based on behaviour-based conflict, it is more challenging to operationalise. Generally, studies investigating the various forms of conflict are constrained.

2.4.4. Anticipated work-family conflict

Cinamon (2006a) further identifies another type of WFC: anticipated WFC. “Anticipated WFC refers to the anticipation of incompatible pressures from future work and future family roles” (Cinamon, 2006a, p.204). This type of WFC directly influences the way in which young adults plan their professions (Barnett, Garies, James, & Steele, 2003; Cinamon &

Rich, 2004; Weer & Greenhaus, 2006). The authors suggest that a number of young adults could possibly lower their vocational ambitions to pursue family plans or vice versa.

2.5 ROLE THEORY

People typically manage a variety of roles such as marriage, parenthood, paid work, housework, kinship and community roles. This complex process may result in stress, conflict and overload, or may stimulate and challenge the individual to find a balance (Marks, Huston, Johnson & MacDermid, 2001). Work/family conflict (WFC) is most commonly defined as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus et al., 1985, p. 77).

Work/family conflict is bi-dimensional in that work potentially interferes with family (Work to Family Conflict or WtFC) and family life potentially interferes with work (Family to Work Conflict or FtWC) (Carlson, Kacmar & Williams, 2000; Marks *et al.*, 2001). WtFC is more prevalent than FtWC in both men and women (Frone, 2003). Therefore, it would appear that work has a greater degree of impact on family life than vice versa. This probably results from the family’s financial dependency on work and in some situations, the rigidity of work schedules (Gutek et al., 1991).

In addition to being bi-directional, three forms of work/family domain conflict have been identified, namely, time-, strain- and behaviour-based conflict (Greenhaus et al., 1985). As previously mentioned, time-based conflict is based on the premise that time spent in one role cannot be committed to actions in another role. Thus, the more time spent at work, the less time an individual has to devote to family activities and vice versa (Carlson, 1999). Similarly,

strain-based conflict accounts for the negative emotional spillover from one domain into other domains. Thus elements relating to work, such as work overload and job insecurity may create negative emotions which could spill over into the family domain and interfere with the ability to meet the demands of family life (Greenhaus et al., 1985). Lastly, behaviour-based conflict refers to the incompatibility of behaviours and values across roles.

The salience of work and family roles is related to how individuals manage the interface between the work and family domains (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne & Grzywacz, 2006; Cinamon et al., 2004). Therefore the more important a role is to an individual, the more time and energy s/he will invest in it. A large amount of research has assumed that more time spent in one role means less time spent in another role, resulting in conflict between the domains (Bellavic & Frone, 2005). However, research support for this zero-based assumption is inconsistent (Barnett, 1998; Voydanoff, 2002). More recent theories, such as border theory, provide a different interpretation and assume that control in both domains impacts on the work/family interface. Therefore border theory proposes that central border crossers manage the border between work and family more actively than peripheral border crossers and consequently experience less work/family conflict.

This study makes use of role theory to assess how occurrences in occupational and domestic roles influence the person's well being. According to Tatman (2001), this theory purports that role stress and interrole conflict may well result from engaging in several roles. Interrole conflict takes place when occupational roles spillover to domestic roles and vice versa. It has also been researched quite often within recent years (Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Greenhaus et al., 1985; Lorech, Russell & Rush, 1989).

The following outline by Aryee (1999) displays a theoretical model integrating occupational and parental overload, interrole conflict and well-being.

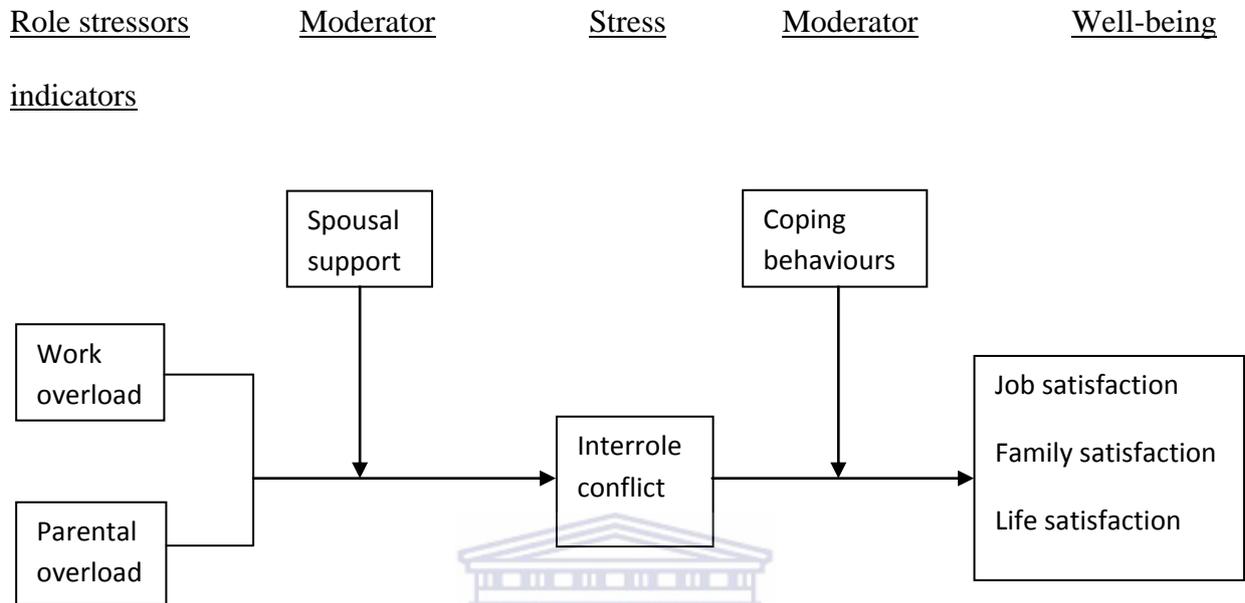


Figure 2.4: A hypothesised model of stressors, social support, stress, coping behaviour, and well being.

The figure implies that the consequences of role stressors may be moderated by spousal support (Aryee, 1999). “This model further suggests that the effects of the interrole conflict and the stress perceived by the individual, will be moderated by various coping behaviours, utilized by that individual effecting well-being” (Aryee, 1999, p.263). The following section contains literature highlighting the variables identified in figure 2.4.

2.5.1 Role overload

Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison and Pinneau (1975, p.14) define role overload as “the perception there is not enough time and/or resources to complete the numerous activities one

has to complete.” There has been an affiliation by researchers with WFC and FWC (Parasuraman et al., 1996; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997). Frone et al. (1997) makes special mention of parental overload and its affiliation to both WFC and FWC. Greenhaus et al. (1985) imply that role overload influences WFC through psychosomatic anxiety with a predetermined role. The consequences of which may include the preoccupation of unfinished responsibilities whilst participating in the responsibilities of another role (Aryee, 1999).

2.5.2 Interrole conflict

Interrole conflict has two spheres: WFC and FWC (Tatman, 2001). Findings have confirmed the influence of these on people’s domestic, occupational and personal lives. Rosen (1991) confirmed that 72% of women and 83% of men recognised considerable strain and conflict between the domains of work and family. According to Crouter (1984), 67% of respondents confirmed that their responsibilities at home influenced their occupational life. Poor attendance, poor timekeeping and the failure to take on additional duties at work were all confirmed to be the result of increased FWC. Other factors affecting FWC include the age (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982; Fox et al., 1999) and number of dependents (Grandey et al., 1999) still living at home. Research on WFC confirms that several variables within the workplace influence the domestic situation. There are some work variables that influence an increase in interrole conflict between work and family (Aryee, 1999; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), parental overload (Aryee, 1999; Frone, et al., 1997) and family and life satisfaction (Aryee, 1999).

2.5.3 Spousal support

The dramatic increase in the number of women in employment over the last few decades (Butler et al., 2004) has been accompanied by research on the interface between the work and home domains. This has led to the influential spill-over and compensation theories of work/family conflict and the recognition that the two domains are inextricably linked (Clark, 2000).

Gendered expectations of domestic, social, and child care for women mean that marriage puts increased demands on female managers who already work long hours in demanding jobs (Grant, 2000). The work and home interface creates much conflict for the dual-career woman because of the different role expectations and demands on her time. It is not surprising that dual-career women suffer from role conflict and role overload (Puckrin 1990). O'Leary (1977) describes role overload as the inability to satisfy all role expectations in the time available, despite recognising the legitimacy of all the demands.

Dual-career women do not have time to perform the tasks of the different roles incumbent on them resulting in a compromise of some degree in one or more roles. This tends to have an impact on either their work or personal life. It was found that in general, the partners of successful women do not help with household chores or childcare, and the added demand of family roles is viewed as a hindrance to a woman's career. Research has found that the majority of successful women do not report role conflict; however, role overload does have an impact on their lives (Hosmer, Lemeshow, May, 2008; White, Cox & Cooper, 1992).

Piotrkowski (1979) found that successful women worked so hard on their careers that they do not have the psychological or physical energy left to invest in their personal lives. To manage the conflict between work and family roles, women practised compartmentalisation as a

means of separating work and home lives. This was achieved by carefully planning or by physically distancing work from home (i.e., working late at the office to avoid taking work home).

Hall (1972) views this as a dysfunctional approach to coping with role conflict. Whether women work or not, they are still expected to perform most of the household work (Hall & Hall, 1980; Puckrin, 1990; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976). A study done by White et al. (1992) found that although successful women in their study took responsibility for the domestic chores, 71% employed outside help. The women in the study did attempt to change the demands of their housewife role but still had to take responsibility for the domestic chores and for supervising employed help to assist them in this.

Research evaluating the gendered division of labour suggests that the revolution of women entering the workplace has not resulted in a consequential shift in the practices of men at home (Risman & Johnson-Sumerford, 1998). Furthermore, although women may be in positions of paid employment external to the home, it does not necessarily follow that roles at home are shared. It is likely that there is a range of behaviours and attitudes in society regarding male and female roles at home and at work.

Spousal support has been recognised as a key factor in reducing WFC (Burk, Weir & DuWors, 1980; Fox et al., 1999; Gilbert, 1984). The same may be said for its role in decreasing interrole conflict (Carlson & Perrew, 1999; Polasky & Holahan, 1998). On the other hand, there is an inverse relationship between spousal support and FWC (Eagle, Icenogle, Maes & Miles, 1998). According to Burley (1995), spousal support facilitates in response to WFC. Aryee and Luk (1996) also state that it improves career satisfaction.

Recently, a study reported that emotional spousal support predicted better marital satisfaction and less marital conflict for women with traditional gender roles whereas both forms of support predicted marital satisfaction for women with egalitarian gender role beliefs (Mickelson, Claffey, & Williams, 2006). Given that women tend to stay committed to traditional patriarchal structure as a way of maintaining their cultural identity and parental authority (Kibria 1993; Lim, 1997), they are more likely to endorse traditional gender roles and thus may be more affected by emotional support than instrumental support.

Viswesvaran, Sanchez and Fisher (1999) state that social support has three significant advantages to individuals:

1. Strain is lessened.
2. The intensity of the stressor is minimised.
3. The consequences of the stressor on the strain are improved.



According to Tatman (2001) however, social support could possibly increase the level of role conflict subjected to. Social support in some instances increased the affiliation between the stressor and strains – thereby not improving the feelings of stress (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986). It was found that there is a possibility that negative social support may enhance and exaggerate the negative situation, convictions and emotions anticipated. Tatman (2001) states that social support with a pessimistic association may intensify the current perceived stressor; eventually leading to increased role conflict and stress.

2.5.4 Coping behaviours

Gilbert (1984, p.18) defines coping as “the active utilization of personal and societal resources in response to stress and strain”. Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p.18) describe it as “the cognitive and behavioural efforts to address conflict.” The authors mention two types of coping strategies: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping.

2.5.4.1 Problem-focused coping

Aryee (1999, p.259) defines problem-focused coping as the “efforts directed at defining the problem and acting to eliminate or circumvent the source of stress.” This type of coping makes use of problem solving techniques focussing on the stress inducing incident, by means of interventions and amendments of rosters, and setting boundaries to the amount of exchanges incurred with a particular stressor (Tatman, 2001).

2.5.4.2 Emotion-focused coping

Gilbert (1984) states that emotion-focused coping tries to facilitate the emotional distress reactions associated with particular situations, rather than focus on the problem itself. This mechanism makes use of cognitive assessments and comprehension of the problem in order to reduce the stressful environment.

2.5.5 Job, family and life satisfaction

A relationship between numerous factors of individual satisfaction and both WFC and FWC was established. Research confirms an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and WFC (Burke, 1988; Bacharach, Bamberger & Conley, 1991; Thomas et al., 1995). According to Wiley (1987), the same may be said about the relationship between job satisfaction and FWC. Duxbury et al. (1991) confirmed that WFC as well as FWC (Wiley, 1987) influenced family satisfaction. Adams, King & King (1996) also established a significant inverse relationship between WFC and life satisfaction.

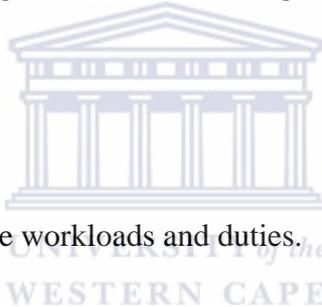
Relationships between the satisfaction-elements have also be researched, with empirical research indicating that job satisfaction and life satisfaction are positively correlated (Adam, et al., 1996; Bamundo & Kopelman, 1980; Rice, Near & Hunt, 1980). Similarly, Kopelman, Greenhaus and Connolly (1983) confirmed a relationship between family satisfaction and life satisfaction. Crouter and Perry-Jenkins (1986) assessed the affiliation between job and family satisfaction. The authors established that increased job satisfaction correlated positively with increased family satisfaction.

2.6 ANTECEDENTS OF WFC

The antecedents and consequences of both WTF and FTW conflict have been investigated (Esson, 2004). Frone et al. (1992) proposed that job stressors and job involvement could lead to WFC which consequently could result in family distress and depression. On the other hand, family involvement and family stressors could lead to FWC which consequently could result in job distress and depression.

Young, Baltes and Pratt (2007) identify job and family stressors as the antecedents of WFC. According to Lazarus (1990, p.513), stressors are “objective external conditions, or events that have actually occurred, which create stressful demands on and threats for individuals.” Due to this description of stressors producing strain on the individual, the stressors in the occupational and domestic fronts have been presented as antecedents of WFC. Greenhaus et al. (1985) propose that stressors in one sphere possibly result in enhanced tiredness and worry with that specific sphere resulting in added pressure to partake in the other sphere.

Frone, Russell and Cooper (1992) suggest that occupational (family) stressors are affiliated to WFC and FWC. The authors suggest that the following occupational stressors are linked to WFC:



- Job pressure: excessive workloads and duties.
- Lack of autonomy: limits on employees in influencing significant facets of work.
- Role ambiguity: uncertainty surrounding expectations and occupational objectives.

Frone et al. (1992) also imply that both parental (e.g. adolescent misconduct) and marital stressors (e.g. spousal strain) are significant factors to think about in connection with family stressors.

FTW conflict has family based antecedents and results in occupational-related consequences, whereas WFC has occupational based antecedents that result in family-related consequences

(Frone et al., 1992; 1997). Esson (2004) is of the opinion that the construct of WFC contains both occupational and domestic outcomes.

A thorough comprehension of how people deal with these antecedents will allow researchers to better understand WFC (Young et al., 2007). Baltes and Heydens-Gahir (2003) emphasise that there are limited studies dealing with individual characteristics that could assist workers to manage with these antecedents of WFC.

2.7 CONCLUSION

This section presented an outline of WFC and made available insights into the diverse motives behind the antecedents amongst females. This chapter aimed to establish the factors under examination in the present research study, that is, work family conflict. Reference to prior studies is given in order to contextualise the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The following chapter will provide information on the research methodology used in the current study: Work family conflict amongst females in a service organisation in the Western Cape. All of the following will be discussed: the selection of the sample, questionnaires used, the method for data collection and the statistical techniques used during the study.

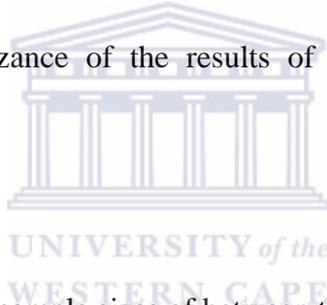
3.2 SAMPLE SELECTION



Babbie and Mouton (2007, p. 173) define a population as “the theoretically specified aggregation of study elements.” It is the full set of items of interest to which the findings of the research should pertain (Aron, Aron, & Coups, 2006). Sekaran (2003, p. 266) defines sampling as “the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible for us to generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements.” The sample in this study consisted of all the females in the participating service organisation. The selection of the sample was based on a non-probability, convenience approach.

When the individuals in the population have no likelihood attached to their being the sample subjects, non-probability sampling takes place (Sekaran, 2000). Convenience (non-probability) sampling, involves selecting a sample dependent on the individuals in the population's availability. Babbie et al. (2007) advise that although justified, generalisability of findings when using this technique is limited. The research design used in this study was mainly due to the benefits of its application. Convenience sampling is as its name suggests, convenient and not costly (Babbie et al., 2007).

The following had to be taken into consideration when selecting the sample size. The sample had to embody the population of all females within the service industry. It also had to be sufficient in size to take cognizance of the results of the study in terms of accuracy, confidence and generalisability.



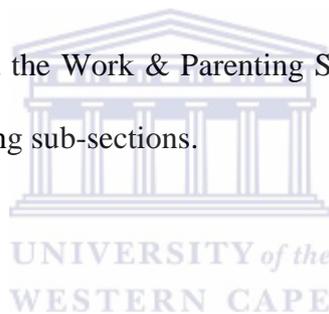
Sekaran (2000) suggests that that sample sizes of between thirty and five hundred subjects are sufficient for most studies. Two hundred (200) questionnaires were distributed for this study. One hundred and fifty (150) questionnaires were completed and returned. This resulted in a relatively high response rate of seventy five percent (75%). An acceptable response rate is thirty percent (Sekaran, 2000). The convenient non-probability sample of 150 subjects meets the stated requirements.

3.3 PROCEDURE

Permission was granted by the Regional Human Resources Director to conduct the research within a retail organisation. The questionnaires were distributed to female employees attending a training course. The respondents were informed about the confidentiality and anonymity of their participation in the study. Participation in the study was voluntary. The objective of the study was explained in a cover letter along with instructions to complete the questionnaires. Two-hundred self administered questionnaires were distributed.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

A biographical questionnaire and the Work & Parenting Survey were administered. Both of these are discussed in the following sub-sections.



3.4.1 Biographical questionnaire

The biographical questionnaire administered extracted information, amongst others, on the participants’:

- Age
- Sex
- Marital status
- Occupation
- Income

- Number of children

3.4.2 Work & Parenting Survey

Data on Work-Family Conflict was collected through responses to the Work & Parenting Survey (Aryee, 1999).

3.4.2.1 Nature and composition of the Work & Parenting Survey

The Work & Parenting Survey was developed by Aryee (1999) to assess the impact of “spousal support and coping behaviours on role stress, interrole conflict and well-being” (Tatman, 2001, p. 22). The following subscales were assessed: well-being indicators, coping behaviours, interrole conflict, spousal support and role stressors.

a) Well-being indicators

Life satisfaction was assessed through a Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” It was “measured with a 5-item Satisfaction with Life Scale” (Tatman, 2001, p. 22). Similarly, a 5-item scale was used to measure both *job satisfaction* and *family satisfaction* respectively.

b) Coping behaviours

Responses used to measure coping behaviours ranged from (1) “never” to (5) “always”. These were each divided into “emotional-focused coping” and “problem-focused coping” (Aryee, 1999).

c) Interrole conflict

A 10-item scale was used to measure *work to family conflict* (WFC) and *family to work conflict* (FWC). Participants could select an option ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree”.

d) Spousal support

Spousal support was measured on a 5-item scale ranging from (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree”.

e) Role stressors

A 5-item scale was used to measure *work overload*. Response options ranged from (1) “strongly disagree” to (5) “strongly agree”. *Parental overload* was also measured using a 5-item scale but with options ranging from (1) “never” to (5) “always”.

3.4.2.2 Reliability and Validity of the Work & Parenting Survey

Foxcroft and Roodt (2005, p. 28) state that “the reliability of a measure refers to the consistency with which it measures whatever it measures.” Similarly, the validity of a measure refers to “what the test measures and how well it does so” (p.33). The reliability and validity of each subscale evaluated by the measuring instrument will now be discussed.

a) Well-being indicators

Pavot, Diener, Colvin, and Sandvik (1991) confirm that the subscale of *life satisfaction* has adequate psychometric properties. The validity and reliability of the *job satisfaction* subscale was made known by Agbo, Price, & Mueller (1992).

b) Coping behaviours

The reliability for *emotional-focused coping* for the sample is .78. Aryee (1999) found the reliability for *problem-focused coping* for the sample to be .74.

c) Interrole conflict

The reliability of the WFC scale is .89 for the sample and .82 for the FWC scale. Netemeyer et al. (1996) present verification for the scale's construct validity and reliability. Aryee (1999) confirmed a reliability of .88 for WFC and .86 for FWC across samples.

d) Spousal support

Aryee (1999) confirms the scale's reliability as .85 for the sample.

e) Role stressors

Work overload's reliability for the sample is .84. The *parental overload* scale's reliability for the sample is .85. Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr (1981) confirmed acceptable psychometric properties for the two scales.

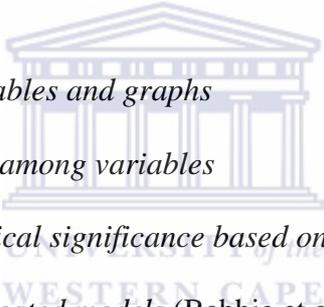
3.4.3 Rationale for inclusion

The motivation for the utilizing the Work & Parenting Survey in this study is based on the instrument's reliability and validity. Furthermore, the Work & Parenting Survey most closely

matches the definition of work-family conflict employed in this study, thereby making it a logical choice.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) will be employed to analyse the data collected in this study. SPSS is a suitable package to utilise as it enables the researcher to:

- 1) *Summarize data*
 - 2) *Compile appropriate tables and graphs*
 - 3) *Examine relationships among variables*
 - 4) *Perform tests of statistical significance based on hypotheses and*
 - 5) *Develop fairly sophisticated models* (Babbie et al., 2007, p. A584).
- 

To test the research hypotheses objectively, various statistical methods were utilised, which included descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. The Pearson Correlation technique, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique and Multiple Regression Analysis are data analysis techniques that were utilised to analyse the results of the study. The following section describes these techniques.

3.5.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics allows the researcher “to summarize and make understandable a group of numbers from a research study” (Aron et al., 2006, p. 2). It is “a method used for presenting quantitative descriptions in a manageable form” (Babbie et al., 2007, p. 459).

According to Sekaran (2003), descriptive statistics relates to:

- a) Frequencies: how often certain phenomena transpire
- b) Averages: the mean score of a set of data collected, and
- c) The degree of the variability in the set, namely the central tendencies and the dispersions of the dependent and the independent variables.

3.5.2 Inferential statistics



Aron et al. (2006, p. 2) state that inferential statistics are employed by researchers “to draw conclusions and make inferences that are based on the numbers from a research study, but go beyond these numbers.” It allows the researcher to make inferences through statistical measures (Babbie et al., 2007) about the association between two variables, the disparities in a variable among various subgroups, and how different independent variables may describe the disparity in a dependent variable (Sekaran, 2000). According to Sekaran (2003), inferential statistics allow researchers to understand how variables are interrelated and whether or not there are any significant differences between two groups.

The two categories of inferential statistics are parametric statistics and non-parametric statistics. Parametric statistics “are those that make certain assumptions about the parameters describing the population from which the sample is selected” (Babbie et al., 2007, p. 476). It assumes that the population is normally distributed and that the data is collected at interval or ratio scales (Sekaran, 2003). Non-parametric statistics makes inferences about the normality of the distribution and is used when the data is collected on a nominal or ordinal scale (Sekaran, 2003). Inferential statistics should be employed when generalising samples to the population (Sekaran, 2003).

3.5.2.1 Pearson’s correlation coefficient



The computational formula for the Product Moment Correlation Coefficient is as follows (Zellar & Carmines, 1978, p. 141):

$$r = \frac{N\sum xy - \sum x \sum y}{\sqrt{[N\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2] [N\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

The product moment correlation coefficient was the appropriate technique for use in this study since it is an index that is used to detect the linear relationship that exists between two variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Two important pieces of information can be derived from the coefficient.

The first is the direction of the relationship between the variables. A positive coefficient indicates that the two variables vary in the same direction, that is, the higher the scores in the one variable, the higher the scores in the other variable. When a perfect positive correlation exists between the variables, the value of the coefficient is +1.00. A negative coefficient, on the other hand, indicates that the two variables vary in opposite directions. As the one variable increases, so the other decreases. A perfect negative relationship between the variables will, thus, be indicated by a correlation coefficient of -1.00 (Keppel & Zedeck, 1989; Mason & Bramble, 1989).

The second piece of information that can be gained from the Pearson correlation coefficient is the strength of the relationship between the two variables. Values near zero indicate a weak linear relationship. The strength of the relationship increases as the value of the coefficient (r) moves toward either -1.00 or +1.00. If r is close to +1.00, it indicates a strong, positive linear correlation and if r is close to -1.00, it is indicative of a strong, negative linear correlation (Viljoen & Van der Merwe, 2000).

To establish whether a statistically significant relationship exists between the variables in the study, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient will be used. The use of this technique will be suitable in this study as it gives the research “a rough idea of the relationship between two variables” (Aron et al., 2006, p. 454). It ascertains whether a linear relationship exists between the variables (Sekaran, 2000).

The coefficient gives rise to two significant points of information. Firstly, the direction of the relationship between the variables is established. A linear correlation (a positive coefficient) depicts two variables that vary in the same direction. “Highs go with highs and lows with

lows” (Aron et al., 2006, p. 454). A coefficient of +1.00 is a perfect positive correlation. Similarly, a negative coefficient signifies the variation of two variables in opposite directions. An increase in one variable leads to a decrease in the other. A coefficient of -1.00 is therefore a perfect negative correlation.

Secondly, the Pearson correlation coefficient signifies the strength of the association between two variables. Weak linear relationships have values closer to zero. As a result of the above, the Pearson correlation coefficient was appropriate for the objective of this study since it attempts to describe the relationship between work family conflict and stress, spousal support, etc.



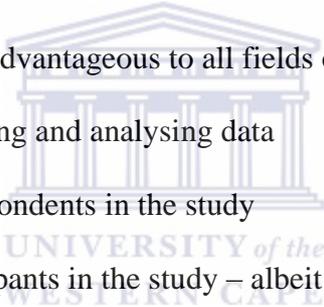
3.5.2.2 Multiple regression analysis

Aron et al. (2006, p. 516) state that an “association between a criterion variable and two or more predictor variables is called multiple correlation. Making predictions in this situation is called multiple regression”. It occurs in instances where a dependent variable is influenced by multiple independent variables at the same time (Babbie et al., 2007). Multiple regression analysis is a resource that impartially analyses the size and direction of each independent variable’s association to the dependent variable.

3.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

“Ethics can be described as the discipline dealing with what is good and bad, right and wrong or with moral duty and obligation” (Carrell et al., 1996, p. 33). A failure to distinguish between right and wrong will result in a misunderstanding and incorrect implementation of the Ethical Code of Professional Conduct. Taking ownership is the most significant standard that directs the association between science and the rest of society (Babbie et al., 2007).

On the basis of giving back to society, Sekaran (2003) believes that those involved in research should:

- 
- Carry out studies that are advantageous to all fields of study
 - Act sensibly when collecting and analysing data
 - Value the rights of all respondents in the study
 - Save from harm all participants in the study – albeit emotional or physical harm
 - Only allow those to participate that clearly comprehend the objectives of the study and are able to add to the body of knowledge
 - Protect the anonymity of all respondents
 - Not mislead the individuals in the study
 - Disclose all inadequacies of the study

3.7 CONCLUSION

The purpose of the aforementioned chapter has served to provide an overview of the research methodology used within the current study. The chapter focussed on the selection of the

sample of participants in the study, the methods employed to collect data and the procedure followed to accumulate information. It also discussed the measuring instruments utilised in the process of collecting data and the variables assessed therein. The reliability and validity of these instruments were also presented in addition to the rationale for their inclusion in the study. The chapter also included a section on how the data was analysed and the statistical techniques employed to do so. It concluded with ethical issues to consider whilst conducting a research study.

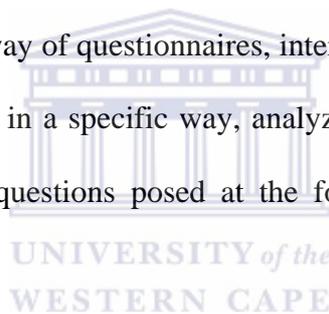


CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

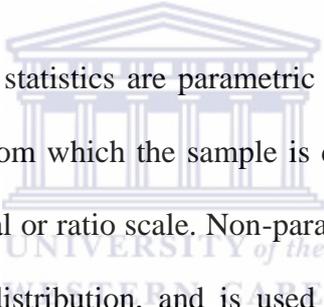
4.1 INTRODUCTION

The data discussed and presented in this research discussion was treated with the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software. Data is the unprocessed feedback that is collected in a research study by way of questionnaires, interviews, observations, or secondary databases; and by arranging data in a specific way, analyzing the data and making sense of the results, the answers to the questions posed at the formulation of the hypotheses are obtained (Sekaran, 2003).



Descriptive statistics enable the researcher to present data in a structured, accurate and summarized way (Huysamen, 1994) and the descriptive data employed in the presentation of the data collected in the survey includes frequencies, percentages, means and deviations. Descriptive statistics look at how frequently certain phenomena occur (frequencies), the mean (average) score of a set of data collected, and the extent of the variability in the set, namely the central tendencies and the dispersions of the dependent and the independent variables (Sekaran, 2003).

Inferential statistics enable the researcher to infer from the data through analysis, the relationship between two variables, the differences in a variable among different subgroups, and how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable (Sekaran, 2000). Inferential statistics enable researchers to know how variables relate to one another, and whether or not there are any significant differences between two groups, and in inferential statistics the researcher is able to infer from the data through analysis that (1) the relationship between two variables (2) the differences in a variable among different subgroups, and (3) how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable (Sekaran, 2003).



The two categories of inferential statistics are parametric statistics, which are based on the assumption that the population from which the sample is drawn is normally distributed and that the data is collected at interval or ratio scale. Non-parametric data makes the assumption regarding the normality of the distribution, and is used when the data is collected on a nominal or ordinal scale (Sekaran, 2003).

In the previous section, the research methodology and design utilised during the current study were outlined. The information provided and discussed in the previous chapters will serve as a background against which the contents of this chapter will be presented and interpreted and is based on the empirical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses.

The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data in this research is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19. The descriptive statistics

computed for the study are presented first in an outline of the characteristics of the sample with regards to the variables included in the study. The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data can clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

Thereafter, the analyses of the constructs relevant to the study are presented with the aid of inferential statistical procedures. Conclusions are then drawn on the basis of the obtained results.

4.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS



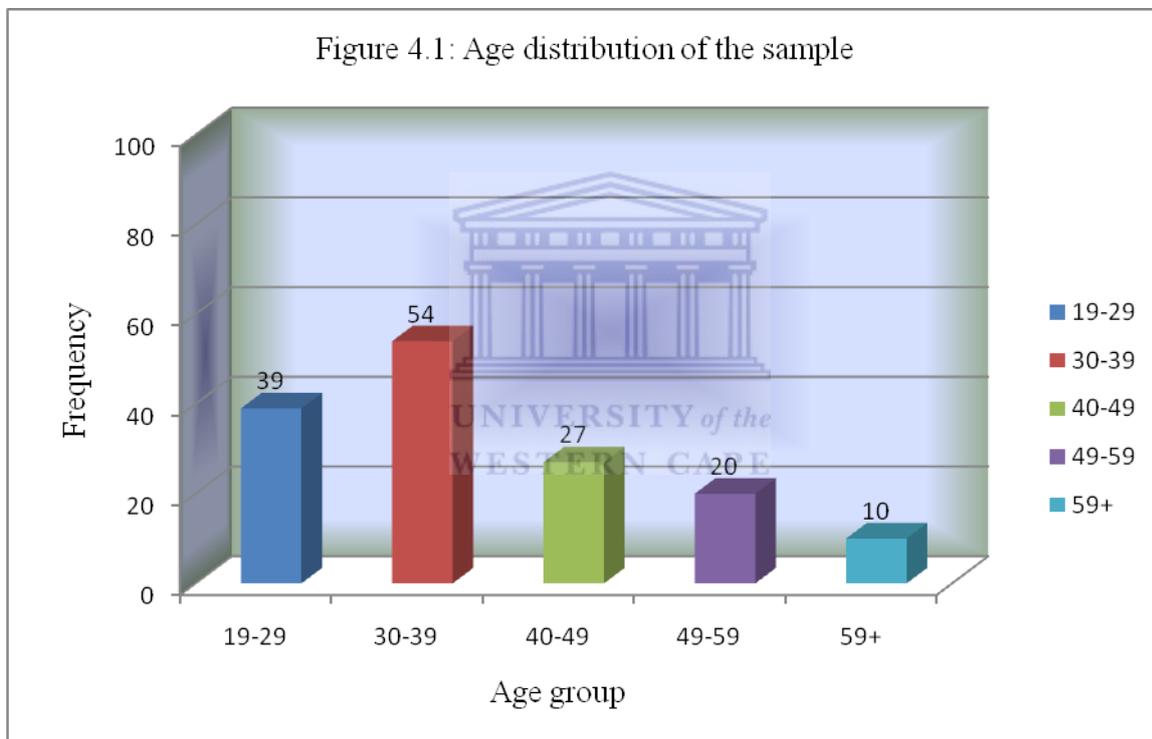
The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. The data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the measuring instruments employed, are summarized by descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and a feel for the data can be established (Sekaran, 2003).

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that receive attention are age, educational level, tenure, marital status, occupational level, income, and number of children. Descriptive statistics, in the form of frequencies and percentages, are subsequently presented

graphically for each of the above-mentioned variables based on the characteristics of the research sample (n = 150).

4.2.1 Biographical information

Figure 4.1 provides an overview of the age of the sample.



In terms of Figure 4.1, 36% of the sample (n = 54) were in the age group 30-39, with a further 26% (n=39) being between 19-29 years of age. This was followed by 18% (n=27) being 40-49, 13% were (n=20) were between 49-59 and 7% (n = 10) being 59 years and older.

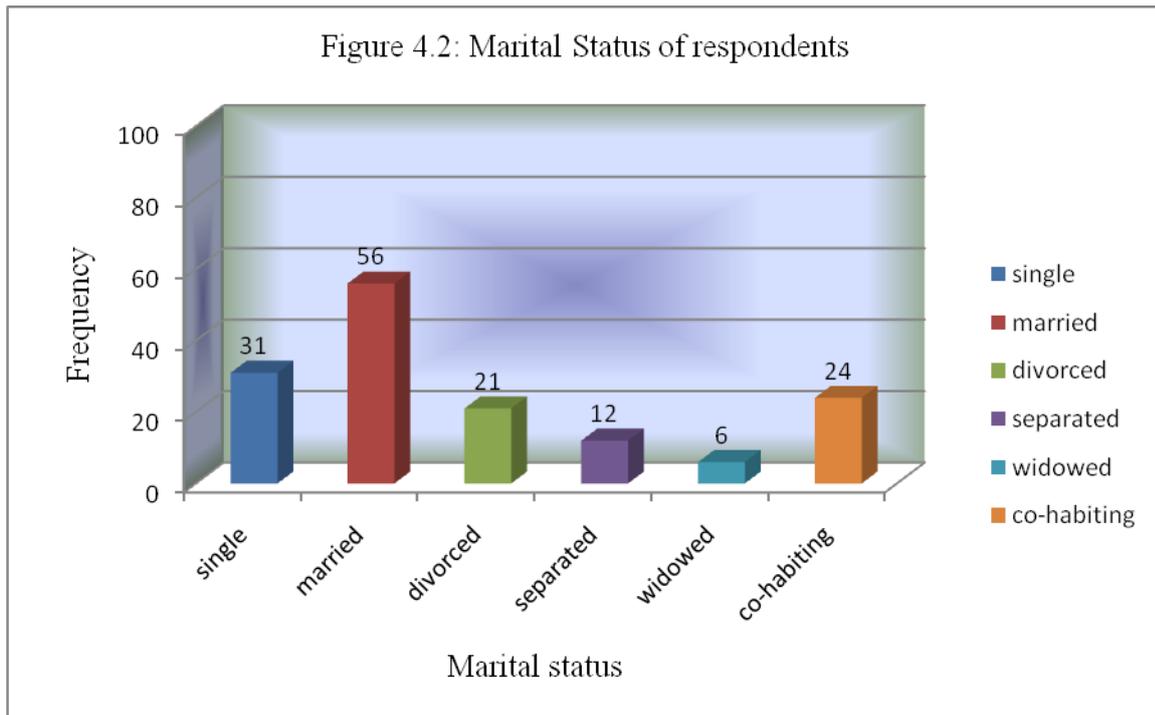
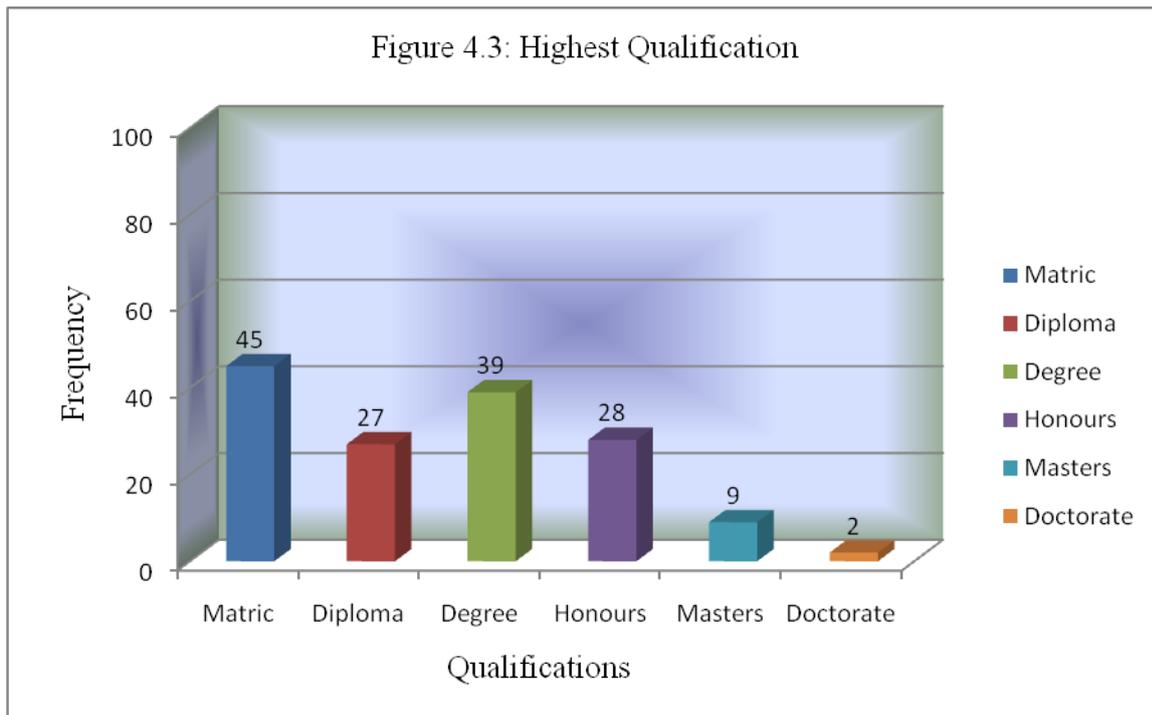
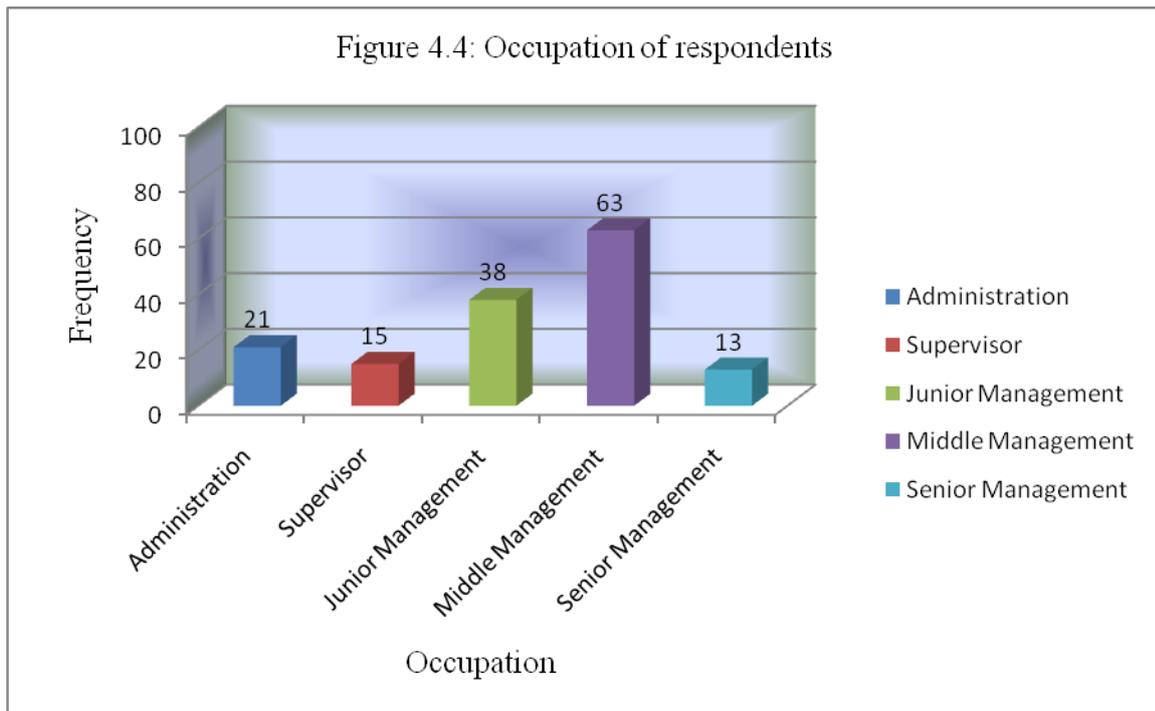


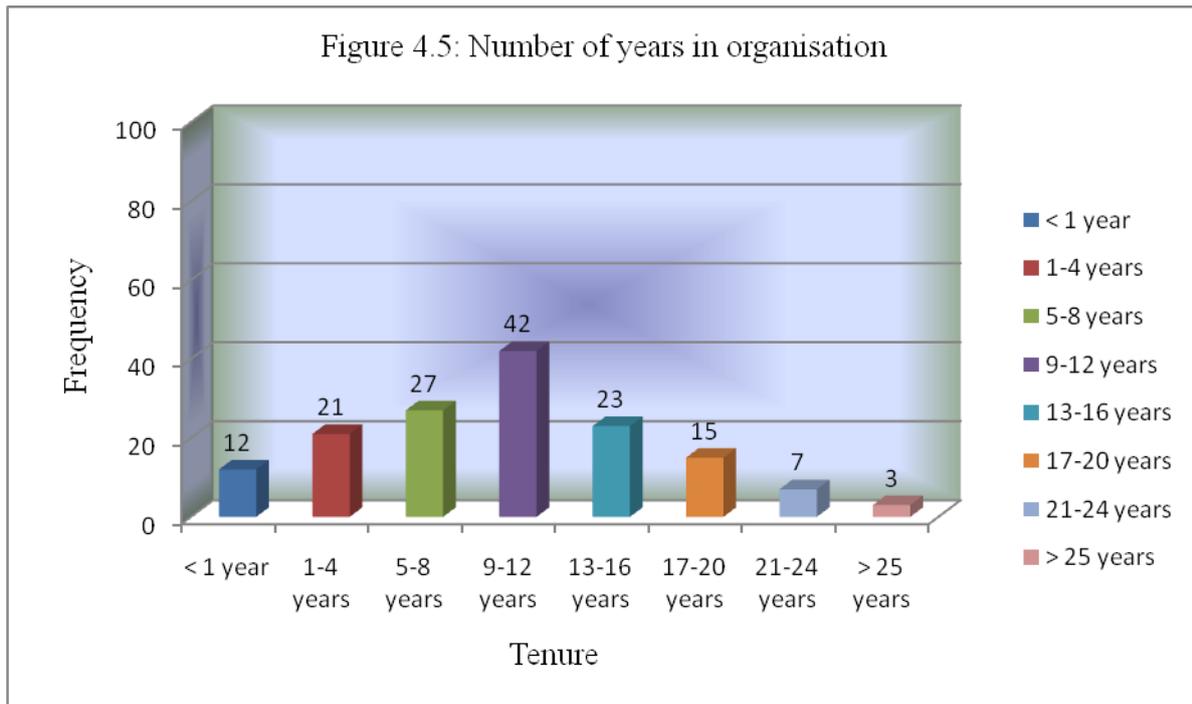
Figure 4.2 depicts that 37% of the sample ($n = 56$), were married, with 21% of the respondents being single ($n = 31$) and 16% ($n = 24$) co-habiting. While 14% of the respondents were divorced ($n = 21$), 8% were separated ($n = 12$) and 4% were widowed ($n = 6$).



Those with matric qualifications comprised 30% of the sample ($n = 45$), while respondents with degrees constituted 26% of the sample ($n = 39$). A further 19% ($n = 28$) had an Honours degree and 18% ($n = 27$) had Diplomas. Respondents with a Masters degree represented 6% of the sample ($n = 9$) and only 1% of the respondents ($n = 2$) had a Doctorate.



With respect to occupation, 42% of the sample ($n = 63$) occupied middle management positions, with an additional 25% ($n = 38$) being in junior management. Administrative level positions were filled by 14% of the sample ($n = 21$), and those in supervisory positions constituted 10% of the sample ($n = 15$), with only 9% of the sample comprising senior management level employees ($n = 13$).



Respondents with 9-12 years comprised the largest proportion of respondents, that is 28% (n = 42), followed by those with 5-8 years in the organisation, representing 18% of the sample (n = 27), those with 13-16 years experience, comprising 15% of the sample (n = 23), and those with 1-4 years experience constituting 14% of the sample (n = 21). Respondents who were employed in the organisation for 17-20 years represented 10% of the sample (n = 15), and those with less than a year's experience represented 8% of the sample (n = 12). While those with 21-24 years' experience comprised 5% of the sample (n = 7), only 2% of the sample had more than 25 years' experience in the organisation.

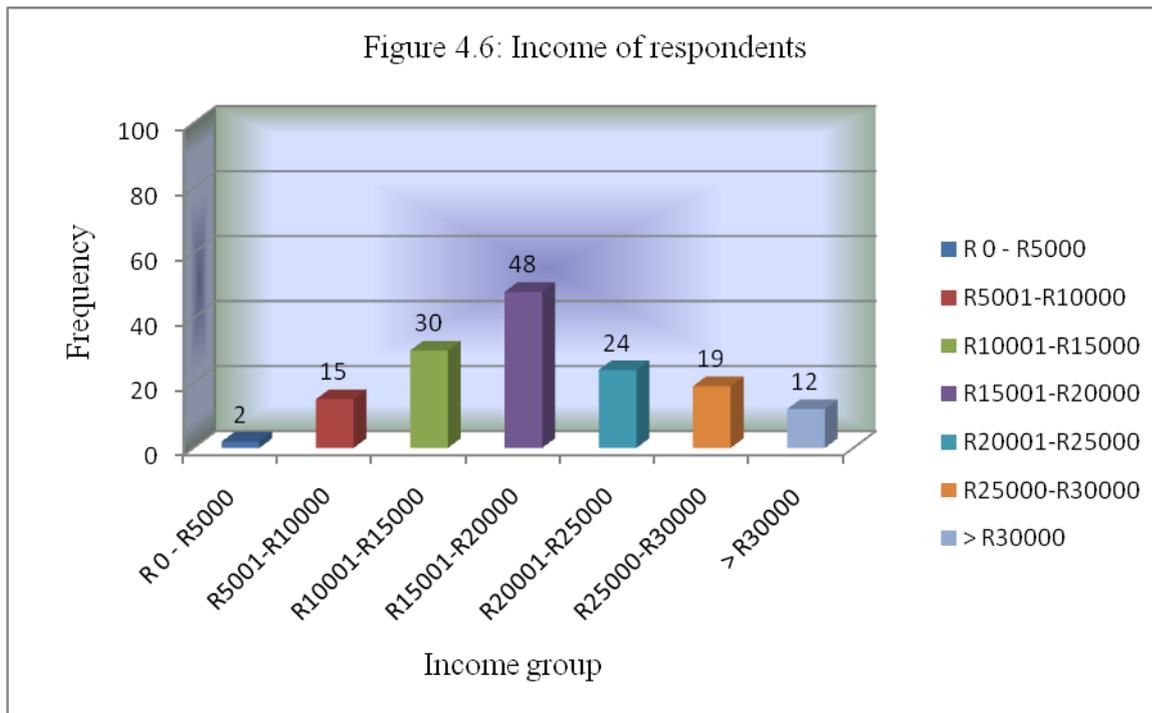
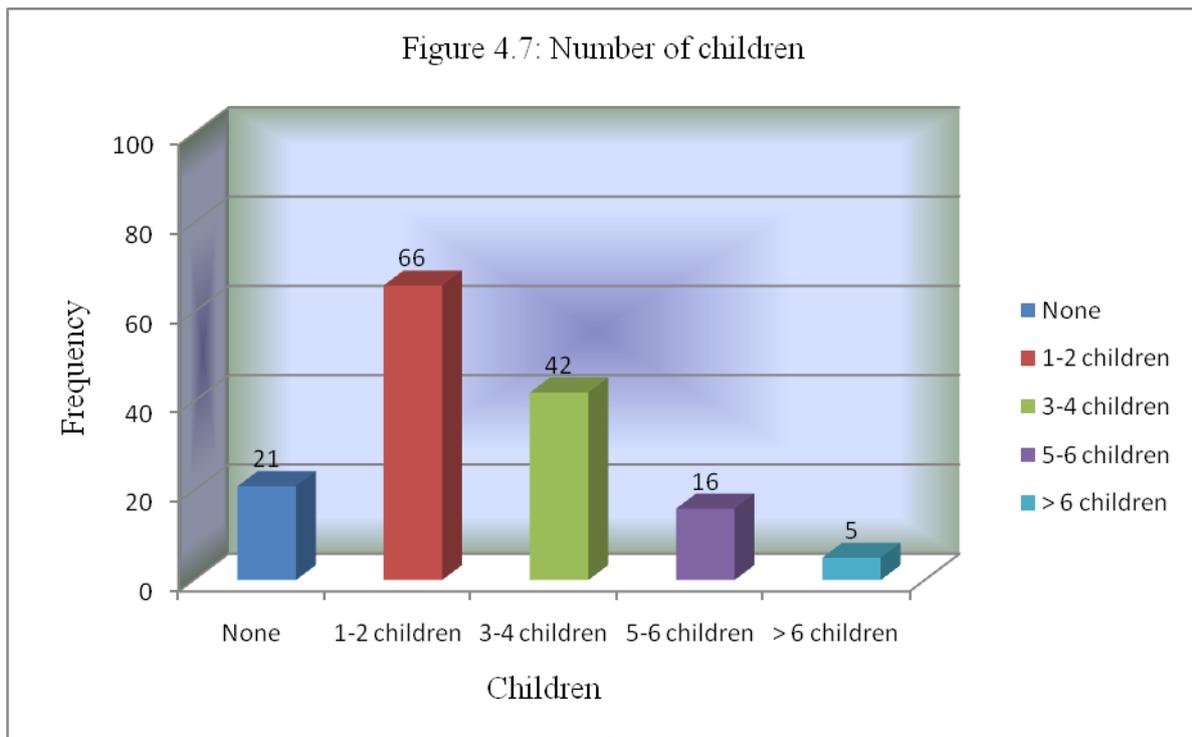


Figure 4.6 indicates that respondents that earned between R15001- R20000 comprised 32% of the sample ($n = 48$), with 20% ($n = 30$) earning R10001- R15000, 16% earning R20001- R25000 ($n = 24$) and 13% earning between R25001-R30000 ($n = 19$). Ten percent (10%) of the respondents earned R5001-R10000 ($n = 15$), 8% earned more than R30000 ($n = 12$) and 1% of the sample earned up to R5000 ($n = 2$).



Respondents with 1-2 children comprised the largest proportion in that they represented 44% of the sample (n = 66), followed by those with 3-4 children, who constituted 28% of the sample (n = 42). While 14% had no children (n = 21), and 11% had 5-6 children (n = 16), 3% of the respondents had more than 5 children (n = 5).

4.2.2 Means and Standard Deviations for variables

Table 4.1: Means and Standard Deviations for variables

Variables	Mean	SD
Age	35.6	16.92
Education	3.12	1.08
Family Income	6.36	1.93
Work Overload	3.47	1.01
Parental overload	3.29	.81
Spousal support	2.79	.93
WFC	3.62	.58
FWC	2.19	.92
Emotion-focused coping	2.26	.38
Problem-focused coping	3.87	.95
Job satisfaction	2.02	.51
Family satisfaction	4.61	.32
Life satisfaction	3.19	.97

The mean for Work-to-Family conflict (WFC) was 3.62, with a standard deviation of .58. This indicates that the respondents experienced relatively high levels of WFC and that the respondents did not significantly differ with respect to this dimension. With respect to FWC, the mean was 2.19, with a standard deviation of .92, which suggests that FWC was not perceived as particularly high, nor did respondents significantly differ with respect to their experiences.

Respondents were likely to use problem-focused coping strategies (mean = 3.87, sd = .95), experienced relatively high levels of life satisfaction (mean = 3.19, sd = .97), and family satisfaction (mean 4.61, sd = .32) and reported relatively low levels of job satisfaction (mean = 2.02, sd = .51)

4.3. INFERENCE STATISTICS

Table 4.2: Work-Family Conflict (WFC), Family-Work Conflict (FWC) and their relationship to variables measured

	WFC	FWC
Age	.062	.86
Education	.174	.412**
Family Income	.067	.154
Work Overload	.639**	.352**
Parental overload	.365*	.129
Spousal support	2.79	-.175
WFC	1	.679**
FWC	.679**	1
Emotion-focused coping	.142	.37
Problem-focused coping	.451**	-.067
Job satisfaction	-.462**	-.421**
Family satisfaction	-.145	-.116
Life satisfaction	-.196	-.397**

The results indicate that there was a significant relationship between work overload and WFC ($r = .639, p < 0.01$). There was also a significant relationship between parental overload and WFC ($r = .365, p < 0.05$). Moreover, the strongest relationship emerged between WFC and FWC ($r = .679, p < 0.01$). Females experiencing WFC showed a tendency to rely on problem-focused coping strategies ($r = .451, p < 0.01$). In addition, there was an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and WFC ($r = -.462, p < 0.01$).

Education was significantly related to FWC ($r = .412, p < 0.01$), and there was a statistically significant relationship between work overload and FWC. There was a negative relationship between job satisfaction and FWC ($r = -.421, p < 0.01$), as well as an inverse relationship between life satisfaction and FWC ($r = -.397, p < 0.01$).

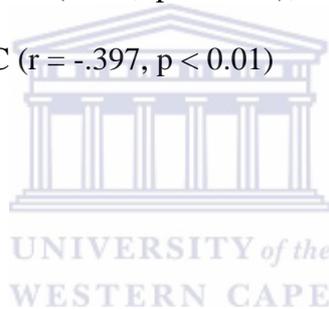


Table 4.3: ANOVA- Biographical data and Work-Family Conflict

	<i>WFC</i>	
	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Age	5.862	.001**
Number of children	4.926	.002**
Income	5.582	.005**
Educational qualifications	6.858	.000**
Occupation	6.854	.000**
Tenure	4.734	.023*
Marital Status	.096	.764

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.3 indicates that there are statistically significant differences in WFC based on the biographical characteristics of the respondents. There was a significant difference in WFC based on age ($p < 0.01$), education ($p < 0.01$), tenure ($p < 0.01$), number of children ($p < 0.01$), income ($p < 0.01$), and tenure ($p < 0.05$). There was no significant difference in WFC on the basis of marital status ($p > 0.05$). **Hence, the null hypothesis is partially rejected.**

There will be a significant difference in Family-Work Conflict based on biographical variables.

Table 4.4: ANOVA- Biographical data and Family-Work Conflict

	<i>FWC</i>	
	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Age	3.432	.014**
Number of children	1.347	.268
Income	3.352	.035*
Educational qualifications	2.273	.093
Occupation	3.349	.034*
Tenure	4.328	.038*
Marital Status	1.021	.383

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.4 indicates that there are statistically significant differences in FWC based on some of the biographical characteristics of the respondents. There was a significant difference in FWC based on age ($p < 0.01$), tenure ($p < 0.05$), income ($p < 0.05$) and occupation ($p < 0.05$). For the remaining biographical variables, there were no statistically significant differences in FWC. **Hence, the null hypothesis is partially rejected.**



Table 4.5 Stepwise regression: Spousal support on Role Stressors and WFC (n = 150)

Multiple Regression	0.65928			
R squared (R²)	0.43465			
R squared (Adjusted R²)	0.35327			
Standard error	0.41228			
			F = 8.047	Significant F = 0.00**
Variables in the equation	B	Standard Error for B	T	P
Age	-2.929	1.235	-3.26	0.02*
Education	-1.224	0.146	5.22	0.00**
Income	-0.452	0.232	3.54	0.06
Work Overload	-3.562	0.152	1.83	0.00**
Parental overload	-2.343	1.664	-1.63	0.00**
Spousal support	-1.426	0.242	-1.42	0.00**

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

The results shown in Table 4.5 suggest a moderate percentage of the variation in WFC explained by the variables entered in the equation ($R^2 = 65.93\%$; R^2 (adjusted) = 35.33%). Thus 35.33% of the variance in WFC can be explained by age, education, income, work overload, parental overload and spousal support. The F-ratio of 8.047 ($p = 0.00$) indicates the regression of Role stressors and WFC expressed through the adjusted squared multiple (R^2 (adj.) = 35.33%) is statistically significant. These variables account for 33.53% of the variance in WFC, and suggest that other unexplored variables could explain the variance in WFC levels experienced by respondents. **Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.**



Table 4.6 Spousal support on the relationship between Role Stressors and FWC (n = 150)

FWC	
Multiple R	0.614
R Square	0.377
Adjusted R Square	- 0.019
Standard error	8.975
Degrees of freedom	
Regression	6
Residual	144
F	3.508
Sign F	0.046*

<i>Variable</i>	Beta	T	Sig T
Age	-.042	- .542	0.762
Education	.271	-2.777	0.043*
Income	.287	3.675	0.000**
Work Overload	- .105	- 1.120	0.026*
Parental Overload	.267	1.28	0.119
Spousal support	- .223	- 2.15	0.034*

In terms of Table 4.6, it can be seen that the correlation of the variables, is 0.614235, as represented by Multiple R. Furthermore, the R Square value of 0.377 suggests that only 37.7% of the variance in role stressors can be attributed to age, education, income, work overload, parental overload and spousal support in relation to FWC. Table 4.6 further shows that the F-statistic of 3.508 at 6 and 144 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the 0.05 level.



Table 4.7 Coping behaviours on the relationship between Inter-role conflict and job satisfaction (n = 150)

FWC			
Multiple R	0.772		
R Square	0.377		
Adjusted R Square	- 0.019		
Standard error	8.975		
Degrees of freedom			
Regression	6		
Residual	144		
F	3.508		
Sign F	0.046*		
<i>Variable</i>	Beta	T	Sig T
Age	-.042	-.542	0.762
Education	.271	-2.777	0.043*
Income	.287	3.675	0.000**
Work Overload	- .105	- 1.120	0.026*
Parental Overload	.267	1.28	0.119
Spousal support	- .223	- 2.15	0.034*

In terms of Table 4.7, it can be seen that the correlation of the variables, is 0.614235, as represented by Multiple R. Furthermore, the R Square value of 0.377 suggests that only 37.7% of the variance in role stressors can be attributed to age, education, income, work overload, parental overload and spousal support in relation to FWC. Table 4.7 further shows that the F-statistic of 3.508 at 6 and 144 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.8 Spousal support on the relationship between Role Stressors and FWC (n = 150)

Multiple R	0.37651
R Square	0.14176
Adjusted R Square	0.10687
Standard error	25.08685
Degrees of freedom	
<i>Regression</i>	5
<i>Residual</i>	145
F	4.06328
Sign F	0.0019 ***

<i>Variable</i>	Beta	T	Sig T
Age	- 0.036760	- 0.385	0.7008
Education	- 0.146630	- 1.668	0.0978
Income	- 0.301364	- 3.003	0.0032**
Work Overload	- 0.079274	- 0.777	0.4385
Parental Overload	- 0.085750	- 0.857	0.3930
Spousal Support	- 0.105214	- 1.120	0.2647

* p < 0.05

** p < 0.01

From Table 4.8 it can be seen that the multiple correlation among the spousal support and role stressors (FWC) is 0.37651, as indicated by Multiple R. Furthermore, given the R Square value of 0.14176, it may be deduced that only 14.176% of the variance in role stressors (FWC) can be accounted for by these variables. It should be noted, however, that the variance accounted for by these variables is relatively small, with the remaining 85.824% of the variance being explained by factors other than those considered.

Table 4.9 Reliability of the Work and Parenting Survey

	N	Cronbach
Work and Parenting Survey	150	0.93

The reliability of the data collection instrument which was administered was assessed using Cronbach’s alpha which provides an indication of the stability, consistency and freedom from error. Since the reliability coefficient was above 0.7, it can be regarded as acceptable.

4.4. CONCLUSION



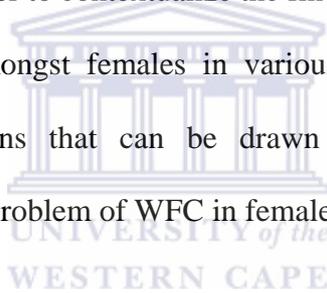
This chapter focused on the presentation of results obtained from the analysis of the descriptive and inferential data that was generated based on the sample of female employees in the Western Cape. Both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were applied. With respect to the inferential techniques, Pearson’s product moment correlation and regression analyses were used to indicate relationships between salient constructs being investigated in the current research. In the following chapter, the results arising from the empirical data analysis will be discussed and contextualised based on previous research within the field.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate Work Family Conflict (WFC) amongst females in the Western Cape. This chapter presents a summary of the most important findings of the research conducted. In order to contextualize the findings, comparisons are drawn with available literature on WFC amongst females in various settings. The remainder of the chapter provides the conclusions that can be drawn from the research as well as recommendations to address the problem of WFC in females.



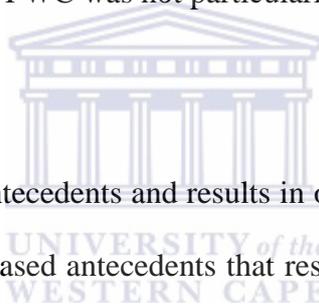
5.2 SOURCES OF WORK FAMILY CONFLICT

The findings of the research indicate that females in the Western Cape experience relatively high levels of WFC. FWC on the other hand was not perceived as particularly high.

Young et al. (2007) identify job and family stressors as the antecedents of WFC. Greenhaus et al. (1985) propose that stressors in one sphere possibly result in enhanced tiredness and worry with that specific sphere resulting in added pressure to partake in the other sphere.

Frone et al. (1992) suggest that occupational (family) stressors are affiliated to WFC and FWC.

Frone et al. (1992) proposed that job stressors and job involvement could lead to WFC which consequently could result in family distress and depression. Respondents in this study reported relatively low levels of job satisfaction (mean = 2.02, sd = .51). As a result, relatively high levels of WFC were experience. On the other hand, family involvement and family stressors could lead to FWC which consequently could result in job distress and depression. Respondents in this study reported relatively high levels of family satisfaction (mean 4.61, sd = .32). As a result, FWC was not particularly high.



FTW conflict has family based antecedents and results in occupational-related consequences, whereas WFC has occupational based antecedents that result in family-related consequences (Frone et al., 1992; 1997). Esson (2004) is of the opinion that the construct of WFC contains both occupational and domestic outcomes.

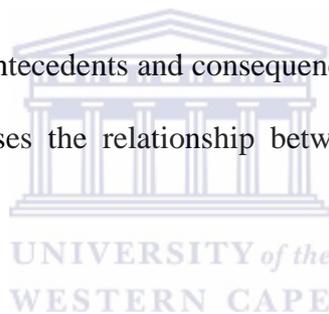
A thorough comprehension of how people deal with these antecedents will allow researchers to understand better WFC (Young, et al., 2007). Baltes et al. (2003) highlight that there are limited studies dealing with individual characteristics that could assist workers to manage with these antecedents of WFC.

5.3 HYPOTHESES

HYPOTHESIS 1: A significant relationship exists between work-family conflict and job stress.

Frone, et al. (1992) conducted research evaluating the antecedents and outcomes of both work-family conflict and family-work conflict. The researchers proposed that job stressors and job involvement would predict work-family conflict, eventually resulting in family distress and depression. Similarly, family stressors and family involvement would predict family-work conflict, eventually resulting in job distress and depression.

Figure 5.1 depicts the model of antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict (Frone et al., 1992). The model proposes the relationship between all factors mentioned in the preceding paragraph.



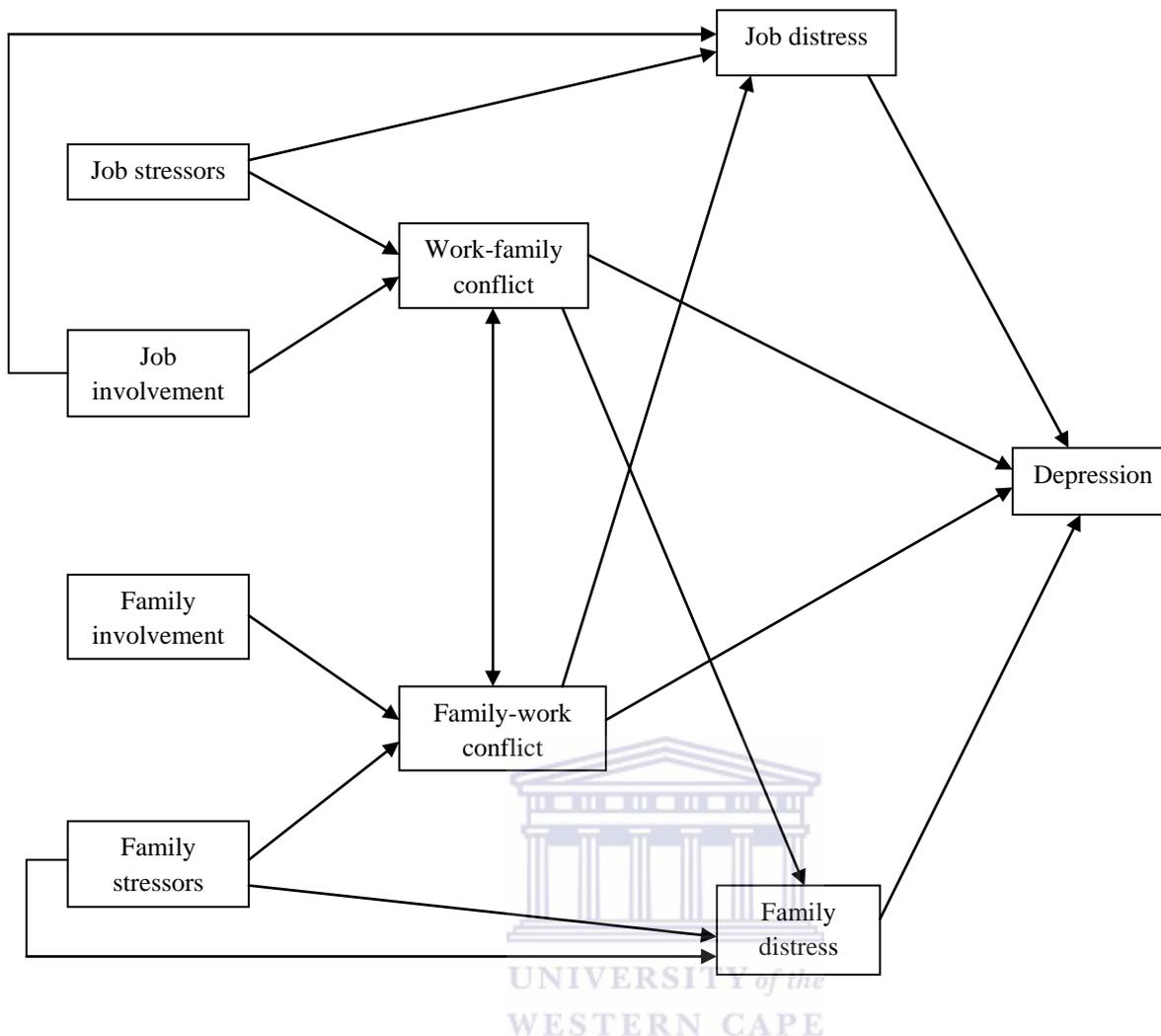


Figure 5.1: Model of antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict (Frone et al., 1992).

The sample used in this particular research study involved 631 employees - both white and blue collar. A strong affiliation between work-family conflict and family-work conflict was established, purporting that the two spheres comprise of a larger work-family construct. More explicitly and only applicable to the blue collar employees, it was found that job stressors predicted work-family conflict which predicted job distress.

In another study conducted by Byron (2005) it was established that occupational factors have a larger influence on work-to-family conflict than family-to-work conflict. Job stress (among other antecedents) had the greatest affiliation to both work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict.

Netemeyer, Brashear-Alejandro and Boles (2004, p.402) also proposed “that work-family conflict predicted job-stress which in turn predicted job satisfaction which affected intentions to turnover.” Three separate samples consisting of US, Romanian and Puerto Ricans were used in this study. The findings confirmed a difference of fit for each of the samples. However, work-family conflict predicted job stress in all three groups.

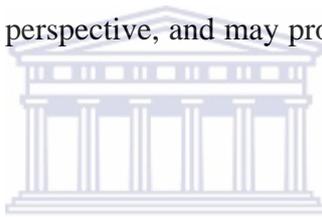
HYPOTHESIS 2: There is a statistically significant relationship between work-family conflict and role stress.



It is assumed that the more roles an individual participates in, the greater they may experience WFC (Greenhaus et al., 1985). It has been suggested that work-family conflict exists when time devoted to the requirements of one role, strain from participation in one role, and certain behaviours required by one role make it difficult to fulfil the requirements of another role (Brink & de la Rey, 2001). Thus, inter-role conflict may have an adverse effect on an individual and his or her psychological well-being (Baruch & Barnett, 1986; Greenberger & O’Neil, 1993). It has been found that women who experience more role conflict have poorer health, morale and life satisfaction (Cooke & Rousseau, 1983; Greenhaus et al., 1985). However, role accumulation theory asserts that multiple roles are able to yield considerable

gratification. Multiple roles provide more rewards than they create burdens, as they provide a variety of sources of stimulation (Baruch et al., 1986).

The relationship between inter-role conflict and life satisfaction has not been found to be linear and research has shown that there are various moderators of this relationship, including career salience (Karim, 1997), the age of the individual's children (Crouter, 1984), self-esteem and social support (Barling, 1990). Sense of Coherence (SOC) has been identified in the literature as a moderator and a main effect variable, as well as a component in the dynamics of stress-strain relationships (Fritz, 1989; Ortlepp & Friedman, 2001). However, SOC has not been researched in the context of the work-home relationship. Thus, focusing on SOC in this context is an original perspective, and may provide a contribution to the existing literature.

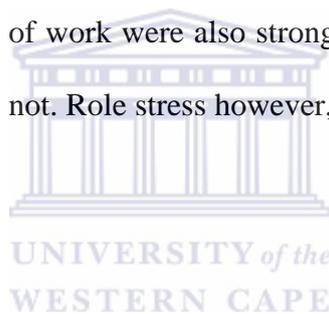


Previous research done on role conflict has found decreased psychological well-being to be related to increased inter-role conflict (Baruch et al., 1986; Greenberger et al., 1993; Kopp & Ruzika, 1993). People with increased inter-role conflict tend to have reduced life satisfaction, owing to heightened anxiety and stress (Cooke et al., 1984). It has been suggested that social expectations regarding women's role behaviour may also create strain, but that the decision to work and have a family plays an important role in an individual's motivation to cope with both her work and family responsibilities (Brink et al., 2001).

Occupational stress literature has looked to two theories to explain the negative and positive aspects of the interface between work and nonwork. First, role theory (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964) is based on the premise that roles accumulate in a person's life, including roles at work and roles outside of work. Role interference occurs when two (or

more) sets of pressures occur at the same time such that compliance with the demands of one set makes compliance with the other more difficult (Kahn et al., 1964). However, role accumulation can also have positive consequences. Sieber (1974) suggested that managing multiple roles could result in the strain of interference, but could also result in enhancement such that it affords the acquisition of beneficial resources.

Yu, Lee and Tsai (2010) conducted research evaluating the affiliation between job stress, role stress, work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion. The sample comprised of 466 electronic industry employees in China. Data for the study was collected through the use of questionnaires. It was found that role stress has a major impact on emotional exhaustion. Gender, marital status and nature of work were also strong influences of job- and role stress on work-family conflict. Age was not. Role stress however, did not have a major influence on the other variables in the study.



Grandey et al. (1999) conducted a study to examine the consequences of role stress and work-family conflict. The sample comprised of university professors. The relationships of work and family stressors with outcomes of work, family and life distress, physical health and turnover intentions were examined by employing a time-lagged research design and path analysis. The researchers proposed that work role stress and work-family conflict are correlated. Similarly they proposed that family role stress and family-work conflict are correlated.

HYPOTHESIS 3: A significant relationship exists between work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion.

Emotional exhaustion was also examined in the same study conducted by Yu et al. (2010). The results of the research established a correlation between job- and role stress and emotional exhaustion. It was found that work-family conflict has a positive effect on emotional exhaustion: The more prevalent work-family conflict, the greater the chance of emotional exhaustion. The findings of this study are similar to the results of a study conducted by Posig et al. (2004). For employees in the electronic industry in China it was confirmed that work-family conflict was the root source of emotional exhaustion.

Camerino, Sandri, Sartori, Conway, Campanini and Costa (2010) conducted a study with a sample of 750 Italian nurses. Data was collected using a modified Italian version of the NEXT questionnaire. The findings confirmed that there was a strong relationship between work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion. The relationship between these two variables was stronger than for other occupational-related risk factors (e.g. work schedule and poor social interactions). The outcome of this study is in line with findings of preceding research confirming that work-family conflict proceeds as an intermediary between job demand and emotional exhaustion (Rupert, Stevanivic, & Hunley, 2009; Montgomery, Panagopolou, & Benos, 2005).

In order to evaluate the relationship between work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion, Lingard and Francis (2006) conducted a study on the basis of social support. It was found that:

1. Organisational support had a great impact on emotional exhaustion, and

2. There was an indirect influence of work-family conflict on emotional exhaustion.

Senécal, Vallerand and Guay (2001) conducted a study to evaluate a motivational model of work-family conflict. The model suggests that the actions of an individual's spouse in the domestic environment influences the individual's motivation towards family and work. The negative consequence of which leads to work-family conflict; and in turn emotional exhaustion may arise. The findings of the study confirmed that family alienation was positively correlated with work-family conflict, which was associated with emotional exhaustion.

5.4 WFC & FWC AND BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

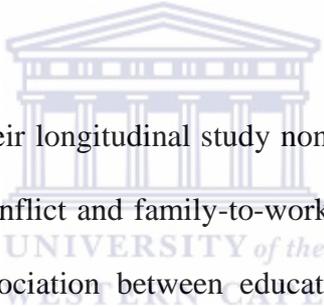


The biographical variables included in the current sample of females were age, marital status, educational qualification, occupation, tenure, income group and number of children.

There was a significant difference in WFC based on age ($p < 0.01$), education ($p < 0.01$), tenure ($p < 0.01$), number of children ($p < 0.01$), income ($p < 0.01$), and tenure ($p < 0.05$). There was no significant difference in WFC on the basis of marital status ($p > 0.05$). **Hence, the null hypothesis is partially rejected.** There was a significant difference in FWC based on age ($p < 0.01$), tenure ($p < 0.05$), income ($p < 0.05$) and occupation ($p < 0.05$). For the remaining biographical variables, there were no statistically significant differences in FWC.

Hence, the null hypothesis is partially rejected. The findings revealed there are significant differences ($F = .096$, $p = .764$) in WFC based on the marital status of respondents.

The results comparing WFC based on the occupation of the respondents confirms statistically significant differences ($F = 6.854$; $p < 0.01$) in the WFC levels of females based on occupation. The results comparing WFC based on the income of the respondents confirms statistically significant differences ($F = 5.582$; $p = .005$) in the WFC levels of females based on income. The findings revealed there are significant differences ($F = 4.926$, $p = .002$) in WFC based on the number of children of the respondents.



Frone et al. (1992) reported in their longitudinal study non-significant relationships between education with work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Other studies, however, have documented a positive association between education and work-to-family conflicts (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). Because education influences the type of jobs attained, one expects to see a stronger association with work-to-family rather than family-to-work conflict. A potential explanation is that women tend to internalize the need to prioritize familial obligations before their work responsibilities due to the cultural expectation for women to be responsible for domestic activities. Higher education may increase their workload and complexity of their daily tasks but it does not necessarily exempt them from their familial responsibilities, thus increasing their family-to-work conflict.

Grzywacz and Marks (2000) found that affective (emotional) support from one's spouse and from family members were related to family-to-work direction of positive spillover whereas

increased decision latitude and decreased pressure at work were related to both directions of positive spillover.

5.5 LIMITATIONS

In terms of methodology, the study is cross-sectional and thus cannot be used to infer specific causation without future longitudinal research. A major limitation of this research is the reliance on cross-sectional, perceptual measures. Data collected through self-report measures at one point in time have the potential to inflate the observed relationships spuriously, introducing common method variance. The use of self-report questionnaires has been a source of debate in organizational psychology literature (Howard, 1994; Spector, 1997), and has been criticized for resulting in artificially inflated correlations among measures of psychological constructs.

Although method bias due to the use of a self-report research design may have artificially inflated the magnitude of the observed correlations, the direction of the observed relationships would not be altered. The constructs included in the present study were most appropriately measured by asking employees to report their own attitudes and perceptions (Eaton & Schmitt, 1994).

The present study was based on a cross-sectional research design, in which it is not possible to infer causal relations among variables. Future research should incorporate other methods of measurement (co-workers' or family members' perceptions) and employ longitudinal

research designs to rule out the explanation that cross-sectional, self-report research methodology accounted for any of the results in this study.

Moreover, this research design does not allow for an inference of the direction of the relationship between the variables. A non-probability sample was used, which implies that the findings cannot be generalised to other settings.

5.6 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Due to the limitations of the current study, the findings thereof should be interpreted cautiously and with care. Although the response rate of 75% is relatively high for this type of research, the exclusion of male respondents could have biased implications. The research was conducted in a homogenous sample consisting of females only. The sample size ($n = 150$) was relatively small. As a result, clear limitations in comparing with potentially different groups and in generalizing the results of the present study exist.

Although a quantitative design was more practical to utilise in this study, qualitative data may have increased the value of the research. More subjective input from those who participated could possibly have provided a better conceptualisation of the WFC experienced by females in the Western Cape.

As with most research conducted in the context of WFC, the study was conducted in a large organisation. Wallis et al. (2003) propose that future studies conducted on WFC in South

Africa should investigate work and family concerns on employees in smaller organisations. The authors base their recommendation on the country's small business sector's rapid growth. The influence of social, political and economic factors should also be taken into account; in particular the effect of race and class on single working mothers in South Africa.

A comparative study between single and working mothers could also be considered. Comparing the experiences of the two groups could assist to locate the results in terms of their significance (Wallis et al., 2003).

The findings also have implications for organizational contexts. Work variables such as number of work hours, support of familial obligations, and role quality were found to be important in predicting work-to-family conflict. Women will benefit from family-friendly resources such as flexible work schedules, childcare assistance, and parental leave. When assessing their work role quality, employers should also evaluate if their work satisfaction is impacted by acculturative stress and/or workplace prejudice. In terms of family-to-work conflict, working mothers appear to be prone to impacts from familial stress.

There are many potential directions for studying work-family experiences among women. On an organizational level, future studies can also examine ways in which employees may benefit from a workplace network, such as working with other women who are also juggling parenting and work roles. More broadly, researchers can also examine the effects of diversity on work productivity and efficiency. Focus on systemic influences beyond individual differences can further inform policy-makers on ways to help working families while benefiting the society as a whole.

Robbins (1998) suggests, as depicted in Figure 5.2 that the increase in women in the work environment necessitates careful attention to the management of diversity, the provision of mentoring and coaching to women as well as diversity training and the introduction and further refinement of existing policies to promote family-friendly work environments.

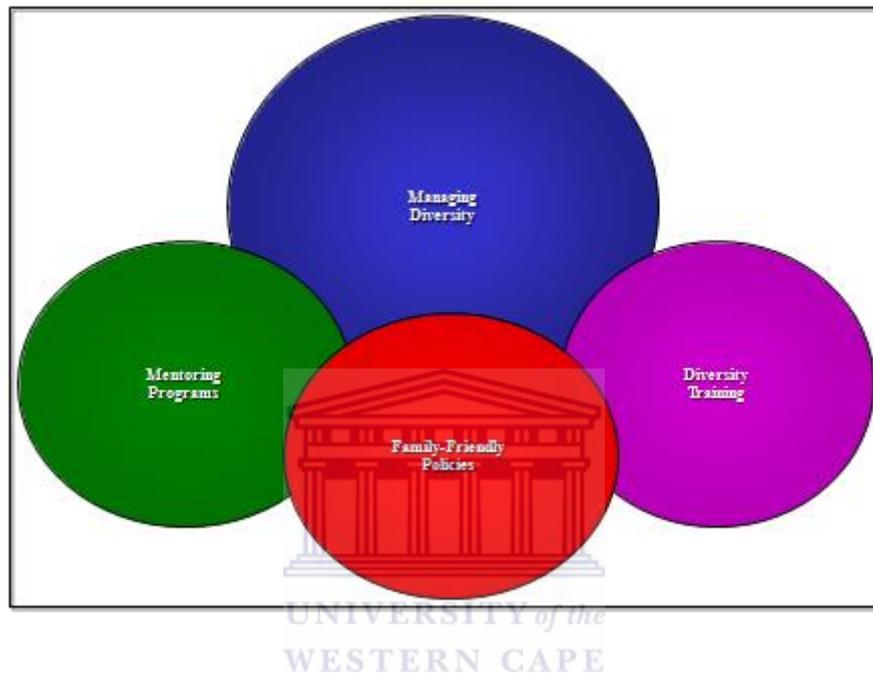


Figure 5.2: Robbins (2008), Organisational Behaviour

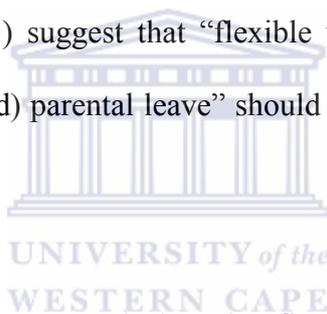
In addition, Major and Lauzun (2010, pp. 73-78) make the following recommendations:

1. Develop and sustain a positive work-family culture that encourages and supports managers' efforts to decrease work interference with family.
2. Equip managers with information regarding how the job is likely to contribute to work interference with family.

3. Empower managers to negotiate work-family idiosyncratic deals with their direct reports.

Mostert (2008) also recommends that both supervisors and workers should take note of the impact and consequences of WFC and exhaustion. Preventative measures should be implemented before the effects are too serious. The author suggests “job redesign, flexible work schedules and goal setting” (p.14).

Mostert and Oosthuizen (2006) recommend that organisations implement employee assistance programs to allow staff to find equilibrium between both life spheres – family and work. Geurts et al. (2003, p.441) suggest that “flexible working hours, compressed work schedules, childcare facilities (and) parental leave” should be considered in conjunction with the informal work environment.



Greenhaus and Powell (2003) suggested that the first step in extending research on work/family enrichment is measurement development. Carlson et al. (2006) developed a measure of work/family enrichment, and Hanson, Hammer, and Colton (2006) developed a multidimensional measure of work/family positive spillover. These measures focus solely on enhancement between work and family. One study reported the development of a measure that focuses on singles-friendly work culture aimed at helping researchers and organizations identify work-life issues beyond family (Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga, 2007).

Additional research in this area should continue to broaden the scope of the work/nonwork interface by measuring work/nonwork rather than work/family, and examine specific sources of work/nonwork interference and enhancement. Identifying such sources would be useful

for research on the work/nonwork interface to better understand the stress process in relation to work/ nonwork boundaries. In addition, this would provide an opportunity to better understand specific work/nonwork issues in relation to sample characteristics as well as more fully capture the work/nonwork domain for workers with families.

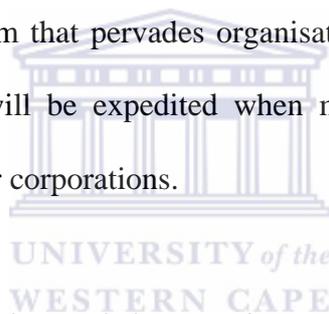
Koekemoer et al. (2006) suggest future research on different professions and their exact job characteristics and domestic circumstances. Heterogeneous populations are critical as occupational circumstances are different within various professions.

With regard to recommendations, managers and employees should become aware of the effect of demands and resources on WFC and exhaustion, and intervene before the effects are too serious. Since job demands play a central role in the process that might lead to high exhaustion, WFC and other health-related problems, reducing those demands seems to be warranted. Many preventive organisational-based strategies exist to tackle high job demands, such as job redesign, flexible work schedules and goal setting. Increasing job resources (e.g. through participative management, increasing social support and team building, providing sufficient contact possibilities with colleagues, and providing women with sufficient growth opportunities) could also provide a buffering effect on the impact of demands on WFC and exhaustion.

Dual-career women do not only consider the work role as highly salient but are invested in furthering their career development. Programmes of career development need to take into account the different spheres of a woman's life and the role conflict implicit in the multiple roles they have to juggle. With more and more women entering full-time employment further research is required to understand how women cope with the tensions and barriers they

experience within both the work role and the home and family role and in attempting to integrate these roles. While employment equity legislation will help to strengthen women's position in the workplace, companies should be proactive in developing support structures (child-care facilities, maternity and paternity leave) and flexible mechanisms (flexitime, home-based office) and contracts within their organisation to accommodate the role demands on dual-career women and to facilitate their career development.

It is possible that, if career counsellors are attempting to help women clients make informed vocational choices, their major task may be to help women deconstruct their perceived role expectations and strengthen their career-related efficacy expectations (Hackett & Betz, 1981). The male dominated value system that pervades organisations also needs to be challenged. Transformation in this regard will be expedited when more women become part of the decision-making echelons of their corporations.



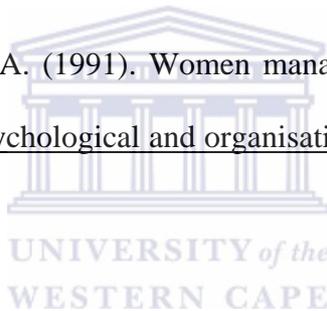
Further research is needed to understand the experience of black women managers whose culture may impose very different gendered role prescriptions. Understanding how the evolving dual-career life styles are maintained might help to suggest better and more egalitarian coping strategies for dual-career families. Research also needs to explore how investing in a full-time career impacts on the life choices of young single women. While the dual-career life style offers women the potential of pursuing both career and family interests, it also presents tensions, difficulties and challenges affecting the salience and interplay of these roles and how these roles need to be constructed, negotiated and reconciled in their lives with both their spouse and employer.

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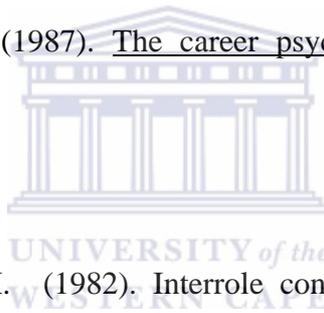
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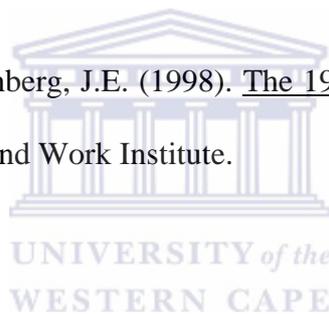
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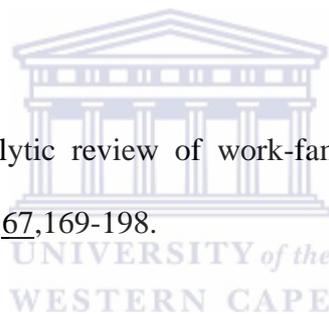
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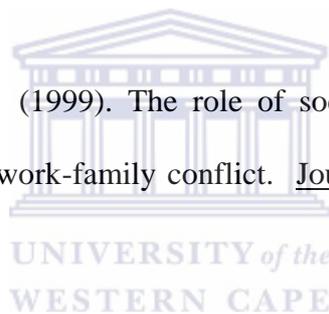
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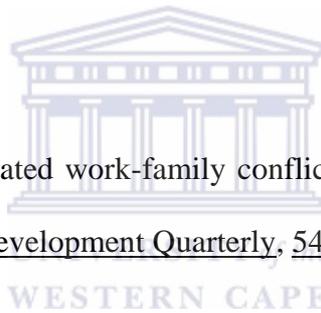
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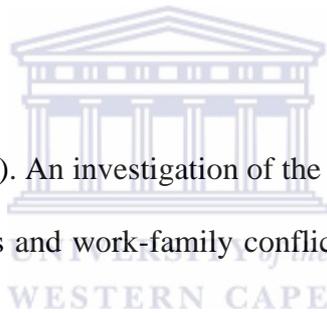
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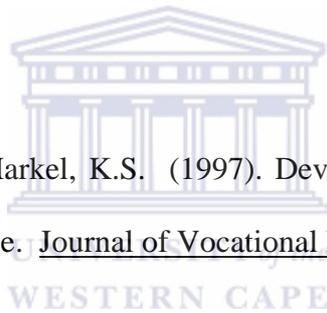
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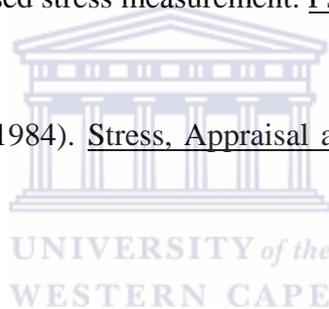
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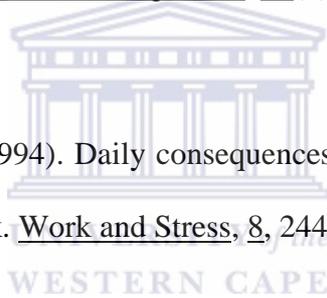
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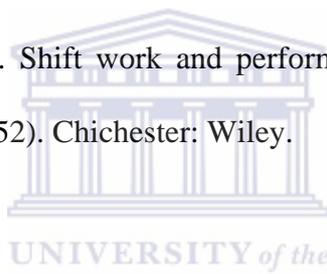
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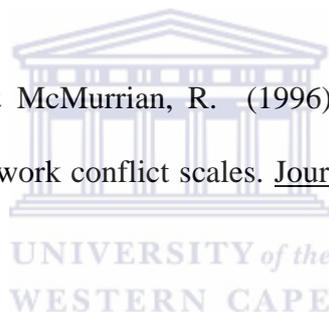
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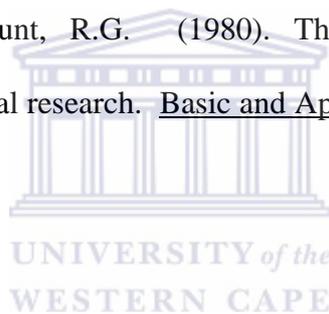
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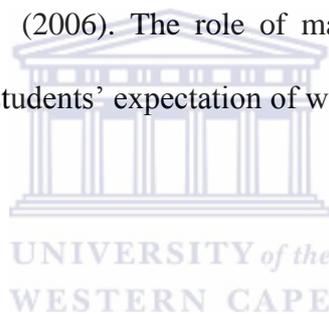
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