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**WORK-FAMILY INTERFERENCE AMONG GHANAIAN
WOMEN IN HIGHER STATUS OCCUPATIONS**

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**Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham for the
degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

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Abstract

Work-family interference (WFI) is becoming one of the principal hazards to occupational health, family satisfaction, well-being and job satisfaction in the 21st century, especially among women professionals. With obvious increases in female participation within the upper echelons of the labour force both in the developed and developing world (Wirth, 2000); the need to effectively combine work and family roles has become quite a critical issue in occupational and organisational psychology, as well as family studies.

Thus identifying and assessing the nature and amount of work-family interference experienced by women professionals and the damage it causes to women's well-being, organisational productivity, family cohesion and job satisfaction are therefore important questions for applied psychology. So too is the identification of whatever might attenuate or exacerbate the scale of WFI or its negative impact. Such fundamental knowledge has a vital role in informing action and intervention to improve the occupational, as well as family health of women professionals especially in emerging economies like Ghana.

This thesis is built around three separate studies conducted among Ghanaian professional and their spouses, using face-to-face interviews, open-ended questionnaires and structured questionnaires.

A number of research questions and hypotheses have been addressed in this research. Findings showed that women generally experience work-related stress and work family interference. However receipt of quality supervisor support moderates their experience of work-related stress while quality spouse and child support attenuates their experience of work-family interference. Additionally, work-family interference only affected women's feeling of worn out and tense, but not family satisfaction or job satisfaction. Finally the findings of this research have highlighted the need of using mixed methods in organisational research in developing countries especially where published studies are lacking locally.

Keywords: work-related stress, work-family interference, spouse support, well-being, job satisfaction, family satisfaction, worn out, tense, coping, social support.

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Preface

Over the last 30 to 40 years, major changes have taken place in the workplace worldwide. The growth in the use of information technology at work, the globalization of many industries, organisational restructuring, changes in work contracts, work time scheduling and out-sourcing of contracts have radically transformed the nature of work in many organisations. The workforce itself is also diversifying, with an increase in female participation, and a growing number of dual-earner couples and older workers. The steady increase of women into the upper echelons of the world of work has been well documented. Kingdon & Knight, (2005, p. 5) report of an increase in the female participation rate in the labour force in South Africa with the female participation rate rising by 15 percentage points and the male rate by 5.2 percentage points in the period 1995 – 2003. Wirth (2002) also reports that whereas only 2.4% of women occupied chief executive positions in 500 of the largest companies in the US as at 1996, the figure had gone up to 5.1% by 1999. Wirth further asserts that women have been making steady progress into a wider range of professional jobs with countries such as Poland, Russian and Lithuania ranking among US, Britain Canada and Ireland in having women holding between 20 and 30 percent

of all legislative, senior official and managerial positions in their respective countries.

The difficulty of balancing such middle, senior and executive positions with family life among professional women has also been well documented (Aryee, 1992; Gareis and Barnett, 2002).

Increases in numbers of professional women into the upper echelons of organisations within the developing countries, especially in administrative and managerial positions are also well documented. Wirth (2002) points out that as at 1999 countries like Colombia, Bermuda, Philippines, Honduras and Venezuela, had between 37 and 47% of women occupying top positions in administration and management.

Studies on work-family interference among women in higher status occupations, especially in occupations represented in the present study in less developed nations like Ghana, is virtually non-existent, even though there have been several tangential studies dealing with women's issues (Ampofo and Boateng 2008; Oppong,2001; Sam, 2001; Sackey, 1999).

Aims and focus of the thesis.

The thesis presents the findings of this research conducted to examine work-family interference among Ghanaian women in higher status occupations (professional women). It also discusses the impact of work-related stress on the women's experience of work-family interference, as well as the impact of these stressors on the well-being and health outcomes of this coterie of professional Ghanaian women.

The thesis focused on Ghanaian professional women because most of them are in dual earner relationships and combining work and family roles can be a difficult act, especially in a developing country like Ghana when patriarchal tendencies still exist.

Structure of the thesis

Chapter 1 of the thesis presents the background and rationale for the study. The chapter explains the prevailing socio-economic conditions in Ghana over the past two decades that led to rise of women into the upper echelons of formal labour in Ghana. The lack of clear cut legislation on work-related stress and work-family interference in the labour laws of Ghana is also examined. Additionally, the state of work-family interference research in the Ghanaian and African contexts is

briefly discussed.

Chapter 2 discusses the theories which formed the framework for the thesis. Work-family interference and stress, work and the stress of higher hypothesis, together with how the boundary/border theory influences work-family interference are discussed. Again job-demand resources model of work-family interference, together with work-family positive spillover/enhancement are also discussed. Finally, theories on social support and coping as they related to the research problem are also examined.

The third chapter of the thesis discusses the methodology used in the thesis. Specifically, a brief discussion of the qualitative-quantitative debate to conducting research is examined, together with the rationale for the choice of data collection methods. Further, the basic framework for both the qualitative and quantitative approaches used in this thesis are discussed, together with the rationale for the choice of the analytical strategies for these approaches.

Chapter four presents the qualitative approach to the thesis. The use of face -to- face interviews, the procedure from data collection, as well as ethical issues underpinning the

qualitative study of the thesis are discussed in detail. The chapter further examines the analytical strategy used, as well as how the reliability and validity of the qualitative study was established. The findings are also presented, together with their discussion. The findings of this particular study formed the basis of study on men's perception of their spouses' experience of work-family interference (Chapter 5), as well as the design for the quantitative study (Chapters 6 and 7). Findings from the qualitative analysis revealed that Ghanaian professional women experienced work-related stress and work-family interference. However, even though there are no specific legislation to help them deal with these stressors, receipt of quality social support at work and at home buffered the effect of work-related stress and work-family interference.

Chapter five dealt with Ghanaian men's perception of their spouses' experience of work-related stress and how this affected women's family lives and well-being outcomes. Findings suggest that men acknowledged the impact of work-related stress on the spouses' well-being. Men also acknowledged their spouses' financial contribution to the family income. Finally men gave and acknowledged the impact of social support in helping their spouse's deal with work-family inference.

Chapter six focused on the quantitative study of the thesis. The findings and models developed in Chapters four and five are amalgamated and used at the framework development of the survey questionnaire and subsequent processes in the quantitative study. An initial research model is also presented. Scales are developed using factor analysis leading to the refining of the initial research model, using descriptive analysis.

Chapter seven presents the use of multivariate statistics such as correlation to further refine the refined research model into a modified research model. Hierarchical regression analysis is used as part of the multivariate statistics to refine the modified research model. Moderator and mediation analysis are also conducted in this chapter to check underlying relationships within the modified research model.

The final chapter of the thesis presents the outcome of the research more comprehensively by relating the overall findings to existing literature. The chapter further discusses the contribution of this research to existing literature. The limitations of the approaches adopted in the thesis as well as suggestions for future research..

Reflections

Research in developing countries using exploratory and confirmatory strategies can be daunting, especially when there is a dearth of published local studies. It can be an exciting adventure into the unknown, with all its attendant traps and inevitable challenges. This research reflects the challenges researchers face using Western theories, models, methodologies and methods in developing countries. The research culture in Ghana is not as high in the UK, Europe or USA. Coupled with the lack of local published works on work-family interference, conducting research in this area is almost a non starter. These problems thus called for fortitude, creativity and innovation to realizing the goals of the research.

The multi-strategy approach used in this research as well as its multidisciplinary nature made it unduly difficult to gain access to the organisations and participants. The unfamiliarity with the multi-strategy approach meant that some participant and organizations viewed the research with suspicion; thinking it was a probe-like investigation into their work performance.

These difficulties notwithstanding, this research has been an insightful and valuable learning adventure for me. The

creativity and unyielding resilience in the face of challenges that this research has birthed in me, I believe puts me in a good stead to continue my career as a lecturer and more importantly as an occupational health psychologist.

It is my hope that this research will provoke the interest in occupational psychology in the developing countries.

Chapter 1

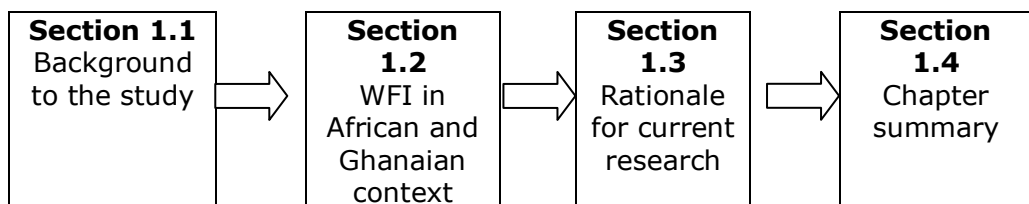
1.0 Overview

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the background to the study, together with the state of studies on work-family interference in the African and Ghanaian contexts.

Additionally the basic rationale for the research is explained.

The structure of the chapter is displayed in Figure 1.1

Figure 1.1: Chapter 1 structure



1.1 Background to the study

'Work should be arranged in a way which makes it possible for the individual worker to satisfy time claims from roles and obligations outside work, e.g. family, social, and political commitments, etc' (Gardell, 1981, p.73).

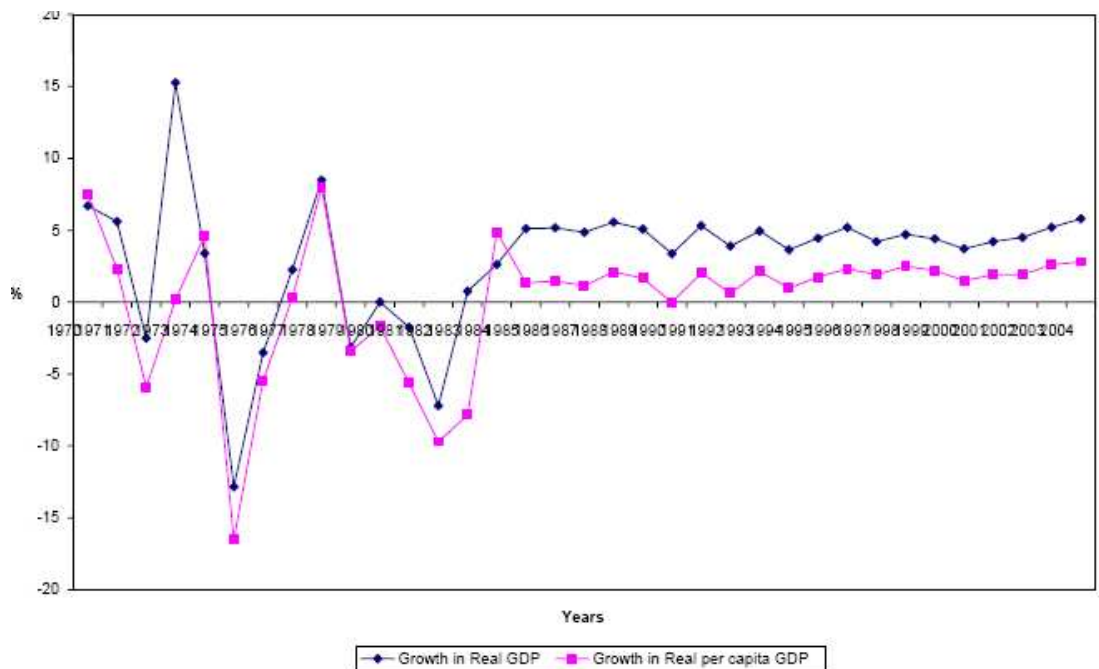
In the past decade and a half the number of Ghanaian women who have entered formal employment has more than doubled.

This has come about as a result of two main factors. The first

is the modest economic upturn of the Ghanaian economy in the past two decades. In their assessment of the Ghanaian economy at half century Aryeetey and Kanbur (2006) point out that the following: ... *'the last two decades have seen steady and significant economic growth in spite of considerable instability in macroeconomic performance and a growing dependence on aid and other foreign inflows. An average of 4.9% GDP growth and a per capita GDP growth of about 2.9% have been recorded for the best part of that period. While the growth performance may not be exceptional this has been significantly above average by African standards'* (p.1). Again in their study of the "Drivers of Change" in Ghana, Booth et al (2004) identify economic liberalisation in the 1980s and political liberalisation in the 1990s as the key factors behind the fairly decent growth performance.

Even though Aryeetey and Kanbur (2006) contend that not much has changed in the sense that Ghana's economy is driven mainly by external donations, they are quick to acknowledge the modest gains especially over the last two decades of relative stability in the political sphere. Figure 1.1 gives a snapshot of the modest rise in Ghana's economic growth from 1970s to about 2004.

Figure 1.2: Real GDP and Real Per Capita GDP Growth (1970-2004)



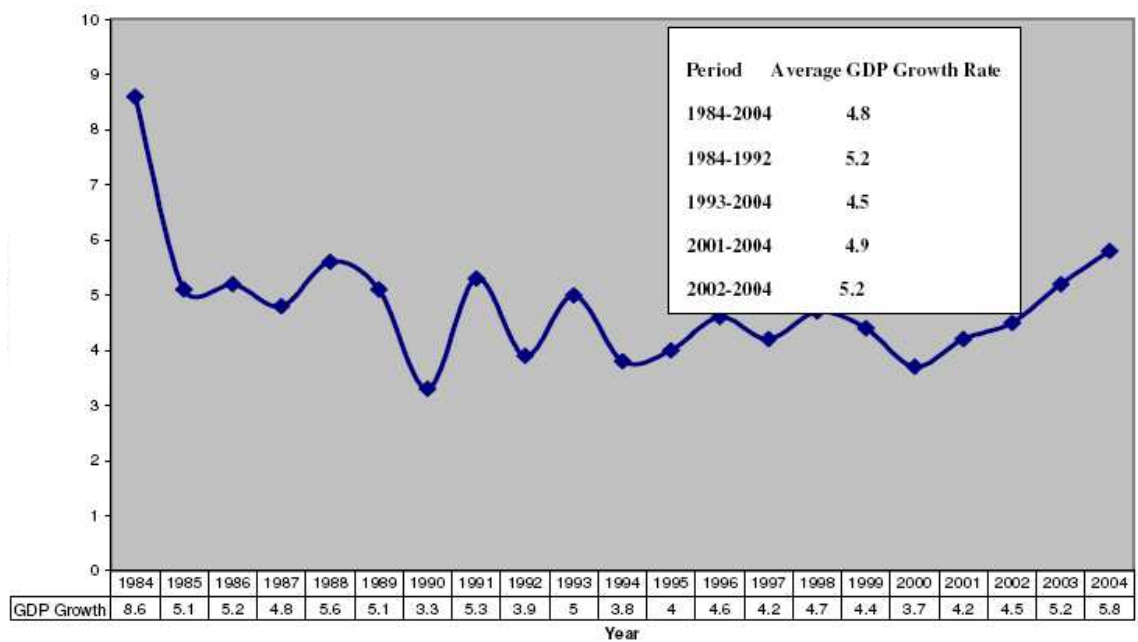
Source: Aryeetey and Kanbur, 2006.

Figure 1.2 shows how the economic growth rate in Ghana appears to have settled around the 5% level for two decades with some improvement in 2004 at 5.8%. As in the past few years, the growth has been led by the agriculture sector which grew by 7.5% in 2004 compared to 6.1% in 2003. The sector contributed 46.7% of the overall growth which may be compared to 41.4% in 2003. Cocoa was the driving force in the sector’s growth with a 29.9% increase in the subsector. The industrial sector grew by 5.1% contributing 22.1% to overall growth in 2004. The highest growth in the industrial sector came from construction which experienced a 6.6%

growth in 2003. Finally the service sector grew by 4.7%, contributing 24.3% to overall growth

Indeed even though the gains are modest, one particular sector, the services sector which is the focus of this thesis grew by 4.7%, contributing 24.3%, which by African standards is quite substantial. This must be juxtaposed with the fact that the growth rate had dropped to a dangerously low level of about -14% in 1975. Indeed a recent white paper on Ghana's strategic economic direction dubbed Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) (2006 – 2009) point to the fact that this growth is still being sustained. Figure 1.3 shows the GDP growth for Ghana spanning two decades.

Figure 1.3: GDP Growth Rates: 1984 - 2004



It was these modest economic gains from the early 1980's that gave rise to the second factor; which is the increased access given the female population in Ghana especially in relation to education. Constituting about 51.2 % of the population according to the 2000 Housing and Population census of Ghana, many governments both past and present have all sought to empower women through increased access to education, to enable them to contribute to the economic development of Ghana. Indeed all previous governments, including the present one, see a sustained supply of a well-educated human resource as the most viable method to sustain the trend in economic growth to keep the engines of economic growth running.

One key trend in this regard, has been the desire of successive governments to achieve parity between boys and girls, at least at the basic level of Ghanaian education. However a recent draft document issued by the Ministry of Women's and Children's Affairs in Ghana (2004) alludes to the fact that despite efforts made at increasing women's education, women lag behind in educational attainment and training. Another trend was the introduction of the Science Technology, Mathematics and Education (STME) clinics in the senior secondary schools some eighteen years ago to expose more

girls to the science, technical and mathematics education. According to the report as a result of this the number of girls who participate in these clinics has increased sixty fold. These trends seem to have had a ripple effect on the number of women going on into the polytechnics and the universities. Table 1.1 shows the male /female ratio in Ghanaian Polytechnics from 2001-2004.

Table 1.1: Enrolment in Arts and Sciences in the Polytechnics (Tertiary Higher National Diploma Programmes) 2001/2002 - 2002/2003

YEARS	ARTS		SCIENCE	
	MALES (%)	WOMEN (%)	MALES (%)	WOMEN (%)
2001/2002	71	29	82	18
2002/2003	72	28	83	17
2003/2004	68	32	77	23

Source: National Council for Tertiary Education, Ghana: June 2004

The increase in female enrolment in the polytechnics was mainly concentrated in the Business, Home Economics and Fashion departments according to the report. Indeed even within the University sector as shown in Table 1.2, there was a 3% increase in female enrolment from 2001 to 2004. Most of these women go in for courses that are likely to give them employment in the Service Sector.

Table 1.2: Student Enrolments in the University and Polytechnics, 2000/2001 – 2003/2004

YEARS	UNIVERSITIES		POLYTECHNICS	
	MALES (%)	WOMEN (%)	MALES (%)	WOMEN (%)
2000/2001	70	30	78	22
2001/2002	71	29	76	24
2002/2003	69	31	76	24
2003/2004	67	33	78	22

Source: National Council for Tertiary Education, Ghana: June 2004

Even though figures for the exact number of women in formal employment, both in the public and private sectors are not easily available, it is obvious from both perceptive and cursory observation that the cumulative effect of all these increases in female enrolment in all levels of Ghanaian education is that fact more educated Ghanaian women have entered the world of work in Ghana from the latter part of the 1970s to 2006, and the number is still on the increase.

More strikingly is the fact that a cursory observation shows that most of these women are entering into high status occupations like teaching, medicine, banking, advertising, law, insurance, accountancy, education, and even into the higher echelons of the Civil Service in Ghana. The attendant problem with this surge in numbers is the fact that most of these women, who are co-breadwinners of the family, have had to

deal with the increasing demands associated with their jobs as well as dealing with the arduous task of keeping a home (Ampofo and Boateng, 2008).

It is pertinent to point out that there have been quite a number of legislations to ensure that women in the work place are not discriminated against, as well as receive all the benefits associated with their sex. Two examples of such legislation are:

- i. The former labour laws of Ghana, which provided for paid holidays, sick leave and maternity leave (section 34 and 36 Labour Regulation, 1969, L 1.632). Also the new labour law, which was given Presidential accent in March 2004, Ghana Labour Act 2003, Act 651, provides for paid holidays, sick leave and maternity leave (section 57 (1). The 1992 constitution also provides that: workers be assured of rest, leisure and reasonable limitation of working hours and periods of holidays with pay, as well as remuneration for public holidays (Articles 24 (1) and (2). Article 2 and 3 of ILO Convention 103 (revised) 1952 guarantees women at least twelve weeks of maternity leave. Article 5 provides for additional leave in the case of illness arising out of pregnancy. These provisions have been incorporated into Ghanaian Law Article 27(1) of the constitution and Article 57 of the new Labour Act 2003 (*CEDAW –Final Report, 2005*) and
- ii. Article 43 of the previous Labour Decree 1967 and likewise Article 57 (8) of the new Labour Act 2003 both

made and make provision for maternity leave with pay and protection from dismissal whilst away due to maternity. However, even though the laws are in existence, not all classes of women benefit from them. Many private, informal sector employers ignore the laws protecting workers' rights and these benefits usually accrue to mostly unionised organizations that have enshrined these rights in their Collective Bargaining Agreements (CBA). The discrepancy between sections of public and private sector employment is also evident in terms of maternity leave granted to women employees. In some parts of the private sector, some employers do not pay full salary during maternity leave and sometimes do not pay any salary at all if the maternity leave occurs within the first twelve (12) months of employment. A thorough research will be required in this area to provide actual statistics on these discrepancies and for appropriate measures to be taken. The Labour Advisory Board, on which Ghana's National Machinery is represented, is currently reviewing those ILO conventions to remove any form of discrimination against women. (*CEDAW - Final Report, 2005*)

Indeed even though these two provisions in the labour law seem to have gone a long way to ease some of the stresses women go through at the work place, a careful study of these two provisions reveals an absence of any provision of 'safety nets' to help women cope with both the stress they may undergo at work and more importantly how they are able to cope with family stresses as well, especially if stress from work

permeates the family domain. Even a casual observation of the Ghanaian 'city' landscape would reveal that combining these two demanding activities is a task that most women in such higher status occupations seem to grapple with. This is the focus of the study. That is to find out how Ghanaian women in higher status occupations (i.e. occupations characterised by autonomy, high levels of responsibility, longer working hours, high level of decision-making, and high pay levels) are able to cope with work-family interference.

1.2 Work family interference (WFI) in the African and Ghanaian context

Work-family interference (i.e. when pressures from work roles are incompatible with family demands), both as a concept and as a phenomenon, seems to have been under researched in Africa in general and Ghana in particular. Although there have been several tangential studies on women's issues such as Kattara (2005); Opong (2006, 2004, 2001); Sackey, (1999); Sam (2001); Ampofo and Boateng (2008); Ardayfio, E. (1986); Songsore and McGranahan (2003) ; Stephanie Vermeulen (2006); and Alutu and Ogbe (2007), none seem to address the issue of work-family interference in the specificity of the current research. So for example whereas Kattara (2005) deals with work-family conflict, as part of a wider

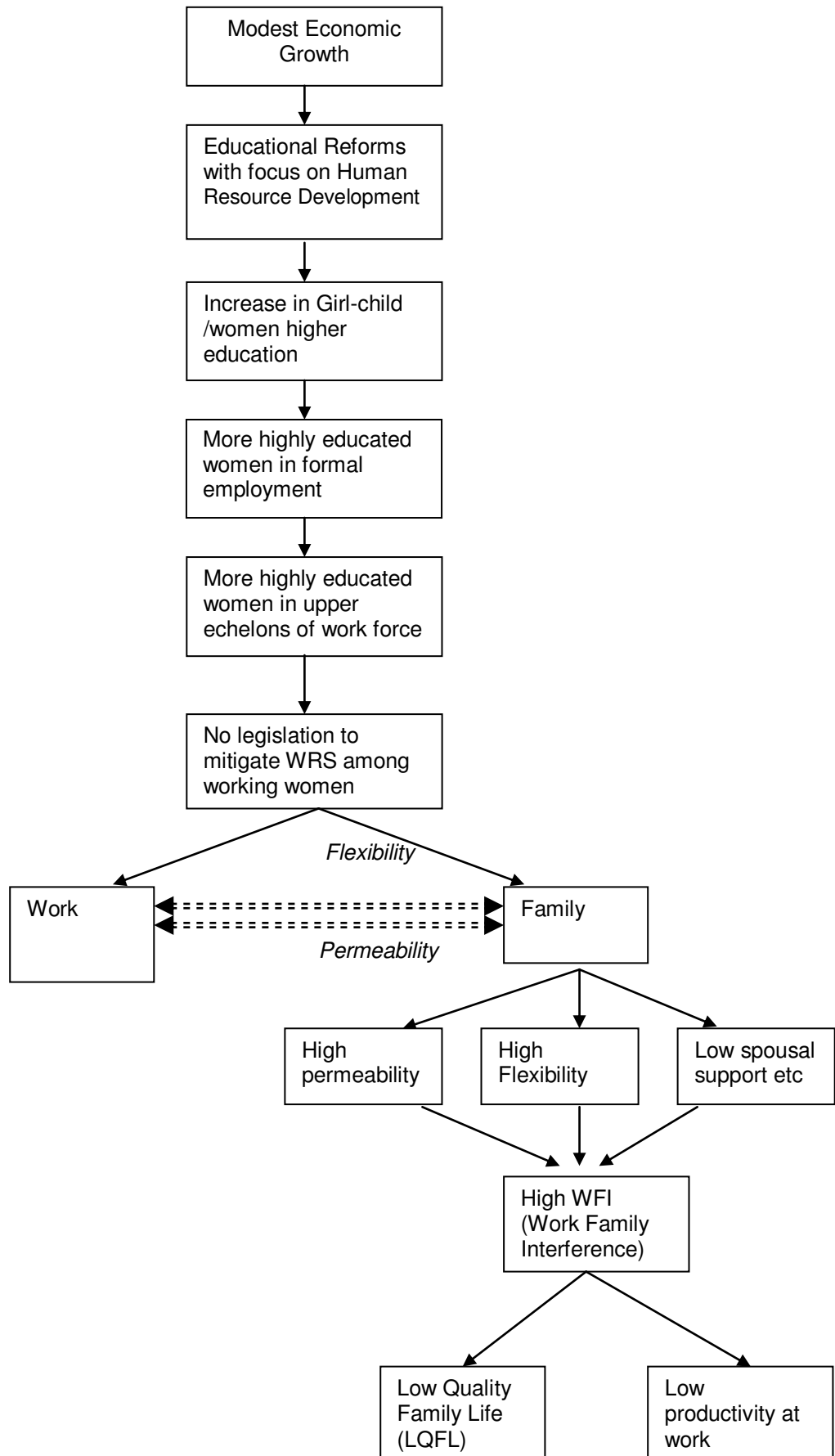
compendium of variables that affect the upward mobility of women in the Egyptian hospitality industry, DeRose, L.F. (2007) attempts to deal with the issue of work family conflict in the context of work and breastfeeding among Ghanaian working women. Additionally Alutu and Ogbe (2007), address the issue of WFI and women in the context of men's view about the issue among Nigerian female scientists. Even recent studies like Sackey and Sanda (2009), only concentrate on how occupational stress affects the mental health of Ghanaian professional women.

This situation is not surprising since most African countries like Ghana are now coming out of long periods of economic stagnation into real economic growth, which have now resulted in many women entering into the formal sector of employment. Thus the issue of WFI among women working in the formal sector has not received much attention. Even in South Africa which may be the most developed countries in Africa, it is just recently that issues of WFI are coming to the fore (Vermeulen, 2006). Consequently theoretical frameworks for WFI with a pure African focus are just nonexistent. It has thus become imperative to adopt some of the western models of WFI and examine how they fit into the Ghanaian context.

1.3 The rationale for current research

The rationale for this study stems from the previously discussed issues relating to the increase in the number of Ghanaian women entering into the upper echelons of the work force and the concomitant effect of having to deal with increased and tight work schedules, as well as well as ensuring a good balance between work and family roles. The resultant work-family interference that may occur if women do not maintain a proper balance between the two roles, especially in a developing country like Ghana, has thus become the focus of this study. And this may be represented graphically as a model shown in **Figure 1.4**.

Figure 1.4: Basic rationale of the research



Key: WRS = Work-related stress; WFI = Work-family interference

This preliminary research model envisages that the modest economic growth achieved by Ghana (see Figure 1.1) with emphasis on human resource development, resulting in increases in girl and women education, has led to more women joining the Ghanaian work force in higher capacities. However the lack of clear legislation on work-related stress and work-family interference is envisaged to make the boundary between work and family permeable for Ghanaian women working in higher status occupations (professionals). It is further envisaged that higher levels of permeability (between work and family) and flexibility (in work schedules), and low social support like spousal support will lead to women experiencing work-family interference (WFI). Finally the experience of WFI by women was also envisaged to lead to low quality of life (e.g. lack of family satisfaction) and low productivity at work.

After examining the issues relating to the dearth or non-existence of appropriate legislation to tackle any incidence of WFI via interviews and documentary analysis, the influence of 'flexibility', 'permeability', spousal support and other variables

on WFI among Ghanaian professional women is explored through qualitative and quantitative research. This addresses how WFI (if any) affects a Ghanaian professional women's quality of family life and well-being.

Indeed Griffith (1983) in Swanson-Kauffman (1987) and Staats and Staats, also in Kauffman (1987), all attest to the fact that combining work and family roles is more stressful for women than for men. The emphasis of this research on women in higher status organizations is very significant. Indeed research on WFI especially pertaining to women in African is under-studied. In Ghana however, apart from Bedu-Addo (1998) who studied WFI among Ghanaian bankers, and a few others who have studied work stress among women managers (Sackey and Sanda, 2009), no concrete study has attempted to find the incidence of WFI among only women, and particularly those engaged in higher status occupations. Hence this study is of crucial importance especially in the Ghanaian context where the professional married woman, is still expected to play her role in the home when she comes back from work.

This becomes more important when it becomes apparent from even casual observation that quite a substantial number of

Ghanaian women are entering into the upper echelons of the Ghanaian working environment. And since work place cultures may create a “coerced” climate, or pressure for higher-status employees to commit greater attention and affiliation to the organization (Hodson 1996, 2004), it becomes imperative to find out how such women are able to give attention or affiliation to other roles such as familial duties. However it is also the aim of this research to find out whether any positive spillover, (Edwards and Rothard, 2000), work-family facilitation (Grzywacz, 2002), or work-family enrichment (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006) experienced by Ghanaian professional women within the Ghanaian work-family interface.

The lack of published studies on work-family interference in Ghana meant that the study was both exploratory and confirmatory at the same time. This is because the theories, methods and models are mainly adopted from western literature. And even though some of the issues which emerge from the qualitative study would be tested in the subsequent quantitative phase, the qualitative study also served as a confirmatory process. This is in line with Herzog’s (1996) assertion that exploratory research should not be questioned as opposed to hypothesis –testing research, since the task of

exploring new ideas and perspectives, and testing a number of assumptions not previously researched represents a 'braver' path.

In line with the background of the study the following aims of have been proposed to guide this thesis:

- To investigate the impact of work-related stress and work-family interference on the well being of a sample of Ghanaian professional women.
- To test the appropriateness of the adopted Western theories, methodologies and models using a multi-strategy approach consisting of qualitative and quantitative methods.
- To further investigate the perceptions of a sample of Ghanaian men on Ghanaian professional women's experience of work-related stress and work-family interference, and their impact on family life.
- To build a suitable Ghanaian model for work-family interference.

These aims are discussed in the context of the overall research model and translated into a series of research questions from Chapter 4 onwards. The methodology used to answer the questions is presented earlier in Chapter 3.

1.4 Chapter summary

This chapter introduced the background to the study, followed by a brief discussion of the state of studies on work-family interference in Africa and Ghana. Additionally, the rationale for the research was highlighted and discussed in detail. Finally the major aims of the research were presented.

The next chapter presents the theories which constituted the theoretical framework of the thesis.

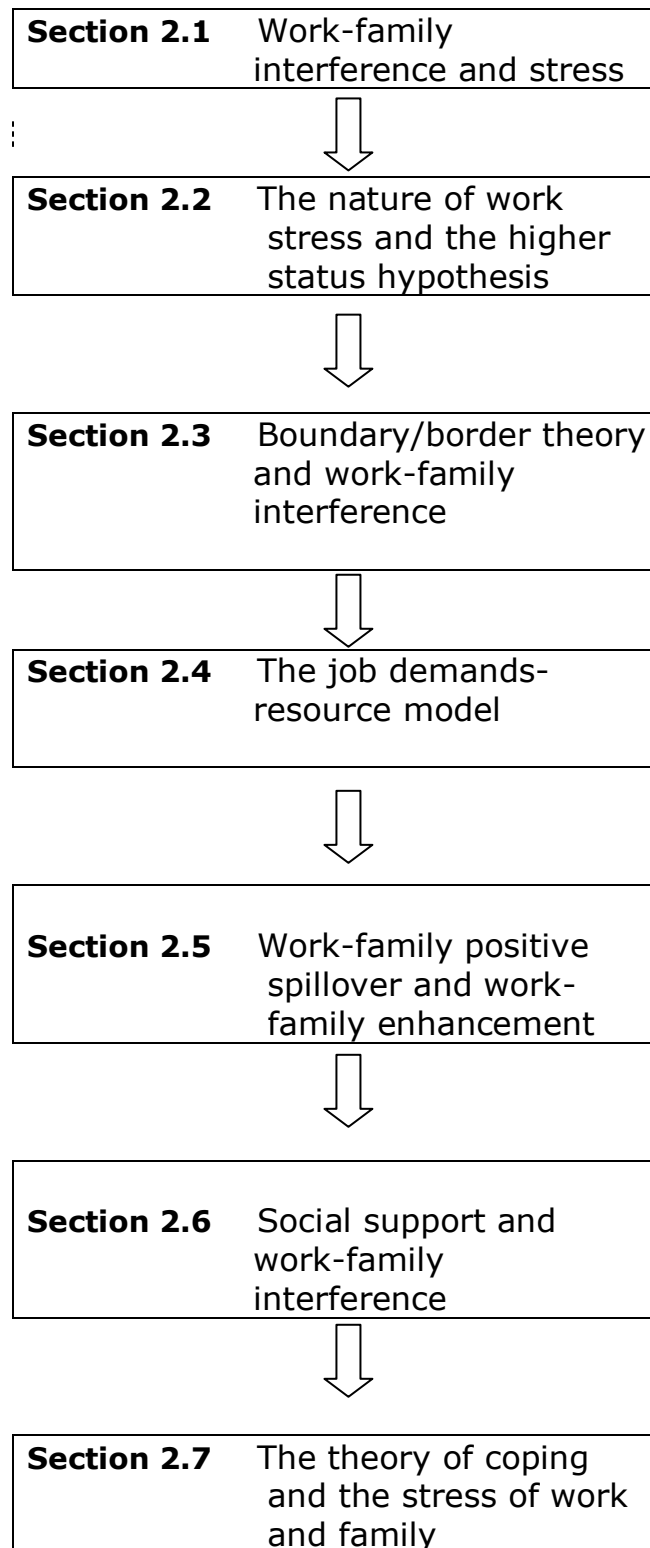
Chapter 2

Theoretical underpinnings of the research

2.0 Overview

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the theoretical underpinnings of this thesis. First, the link between work-family interference and stress is briefly explained. This is followed by a discussion of work and the higher status hypothesis and the boundary-border theory. Additionally, the job demand-resource model, as it relates to the thesis is discussed, followed by a detailed discussion of work-family positive spillover and work-family enhancement theories on. The final theories discussed in the current chapter are social support and coping. The structure of the chapter is displayed in Figure 2.1

Figure 2.1: Chapter 2 structure



1

Two styles of chapter structure like this one had to be adopted to accommodate the length of sections in Chapters 2, 4, 5 and 8.

2.1 Work–family interference and stress

A substantial body of evidence suggests that tension between family and work roles can lead to decreases in the psychological and the physical well-being of workers. Authors such as Pleck (1989), Shinn et al (1989) and Kahn et al (1964) have all used role theory to describe such tensions as interrole conflict. Interrole conflict is said to occur when the compliance with one role is incompatible with the full compliance with another role. The accompanying forces to perform two incompatible roles produce strain. Work–family interference is a particular type of interrole conflict in which pressures from the work role are incompatible with pressures from the family role. One of the first studies documenting the extent of work–family conflict was the Michigan Quality of Employment Survey (Quinn and Staines, 1979). Quinn and Staines found that 38% of men and 43% of women who were married and who had jobs and children reported that job and family life conflicted “somewhat” or “a lot.” Since then, a number of different occupations and measures of work–family conflict have been examined in relation to strain (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1987). These studies have indicated that, in addition to other consequences, the strain of balancing work

and family responsibilities may lead to job dissatisfaction (Bacharach, Bamberger, and Conley, 1991), depression (Burden and Googins, 1987; Frone, Russell, and Cooper, 1992), absenteeism (Goff, Mount, and Jamison, 1990), and coronary heart disease (Haynes, et al, 1984).

Additionally, Kohn (1990) identifies the role of stress as a potential mediating link between work and personal functioning in his review of unresolved issues in the literature on work and personality. Although he did not specify the links between inter-role conflicts and work conditions, his conclusions reveal a paradox: Self-directed work entails more responsibility and obligation which in turn may *increase* exposure to some forms of stress. Kohn and Schooler (1973, 1982) have alluded to the potential "costs" of higher status positions, stating that "an increased risk of being held responsible for things outside one's control is the price one pays for holding an interesting and responsible job (p.109). By extension then one can contend that work-to home conflict can be another potential cost (Schieman, Whitestone and Van Gundy, 2006). Finally it would be prudent to focus on the interference between work and home roles because it is a stressor that can erode well-being.

2.2 The nature of work and the stress of higher status hypothesis

The stress of higher status hypothesis predicts that higher-status occupations and work conditions *increase* exposure to work-to-home conflict. The theoretical rationale for this prediction is derived partly from Coser's (1974, p. 21) depiction of work as a "greedy institution" that demands effort and energy from its workers, especially those in higher-status positions (Hodson 2004). Despite prior observations that professional or managerial workers are more likely to feel "overworked" (Clarkberg and Moen 2001; Jacobs and Gerson 2004) or as if they are in a "time squeeze" (Hochschild 1997), little is known about levels of work-to-home conflict (WFI) across a full range of occupations (Bellavia and Frone 2005).

Furthermore although some authors have documented higher levels of work-to-home conflict among professional or managerial workers (Grzywacz, et al., 2002; Kinnunen and Mauno 1998; Moen and Yu 2000), many studies of the predictors of work-to-home conflict exclude occupational status, compare broad categories of high- and low-status groups, or focus exclusively on professionals or the well-educated (Duxbury and Higgins 1991; Greenhaus et al. 1989;

Grzywacz and Marks 2000; Gutek, Searler, and Klepa 1991; Kopelman et al. 1983; Voydanoff 2004a, 2004b). The focus of this research then will be to study the incidence of WFI among women across three key occupational spectra in Ghana, namely Education, Finance and Health since very little is known about WFI across occupations (Bellavia and Frone 2005), and more especially among women in higher status occupations in Africa in general and Ghana in particular.

While the psychosocial and material conditions associated with professional occupations are generally beneficial (Hodson 2004) the *stress of higher status* hypothesis also identifies their potential costs. Specifically, workers in professional jobs are known to have more job demands and work longer hours (Clarkberg and Moen 2001; Maume and Bellas 2001; Moen and Yu 2000). In turn, demands and hours are associated positively with work-to-home conflict (Grzywacz and Marks 2000; Gutek et al. 1991; Major, Klein, and Ehrhart 2002; Parasuraman et al. 1996; Voydanoff 2004b). Professionals also are more likely to experience other forms of high workplace status, especially high levels of authority, autonomy, nonroutine work, and better pay (Reskin and Ross, 1992). Higher-status jobs often entail greater responsibility for vital operations that may shape the course and success of

the organization (Kohn and Slomczynski 1990). Thus, workers in higher-status occupations with more responsibilities and demands may feel greater devotion to their jobs as a source of identity (Bielby, 1992) and higher levels of involvement (Duxbury and Higgins 1991) than workers in lower-status jobs.

The *stress of higher status* hypothesis draws upon these ideas and upon evidence that job demands and work hours are associated positively with job authority; job autonomy, and nonroutine work (Reskin and Ross 1992; Voydanoff 1988, 2004a, 2004b). Moreover, higher-status work conditions are often interrelated. For example, job autonomy and authority are often correlated positively with nonroutine work, and all three are related to higher levels of pay (Reskin and Ross 1992; Ross and Reskin, 1992; Schieman 2002; Voydanoff 2004a). Taken together, individuals in higher-status occupations are more likely to experience demanding, nonroutine, and autonomous work, but those conditions may obligate workers to commit to more hours, which may induce work-family interference among such workers. And despite the centrality of nonroutine work as an indicator of status and resources, its relationship with work-to-home conflict is often overlooked (Bellavia and Frone, 2005). Consequently in

Ghana where a higher percentage of women working in higher status conditions also have family roles to play, the study of any WFI among them cannot be more urgent.

Furthermore higher-status workers are expected to create a more exclusive relationship with their work at the expense of other roles, and these expectations and obligations are manifest i.e. more demanding and involved work with longer hours (Hochschild 1997). Consequently one wonders the time the typical Ghanaian female in high status occupations, will have for family interaction, after a strenuous day at work, and battling through the excruciating traffic jams in these two metropolises (i.e. Accra and Kumasi) to get home. Herein lies another important reason why this study is necessary at this time.

On the other hand, job authority, autonomy, nonroutine work, and income may be viewed as resources that allow greater flexibility in the spatial and temporal parameters of work and help workers manage work-related stressors (Bakker and Geurts 2004). Studies have documented that these work conditions are associated positively with psychosocial resources such as self-esteem, sense of control, and supportive co-worker relations (Schieman 2002, 2006). The

alternative to the stress of higher status view is the resources of higher status hypothesis which predicts that; higher status conditions – especially nonroutine jobs with more authority, autonomy and higher pay- provide workers with resources that help workers avoid exposure to work-family-conflict (Bakker and Geurts, 2004).

Nonetheless, many studies in the occupational health literature identify the deleterious effects of some job conditions, such as job demands and long hours at work as central links between work and health (Bakker and Geurts 2004). Even though a tradition of sociological enquiry into the effects of work also yields the broad consensus that higher-status work conditions – professional, nonroutine, autonomous jobs with greater authority and pay – have positive effect on well-being (Tausig 1999), it would be prudent, in agreement with Schieman, Whitestone and Van Gundy (2006), to investigate the possibility that people in higher status work conditions are exposed to a higher level of a particular chronic stressor: *work-to-home conflict*.

Moreover it can be argued that an individual's activities within the work environment, as well as the stresses he or she may undergo can permeate into the home environment, with

negative consequences; or if there are adequate resources to deal with such stresses such as good spousal support, some level of positive spillover could emerge. Indeed one theory that clearly elucidates this is the Boundary/border theory.

2.3 Boundary/border theory and WFI

“Boundary/border” theory provides additional reasons for expecting work conditions to influence work-to-home conflict, proposing that social roles are often separated by physical, temporal, or psychological parameters (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). Ashforth et al (2000) further assert that “flexibility” and “permeability” characterize the boundaries between work and family roles. Flexibility involves the extent to which role-related tasks and responsibilities may be conducted beyond the usual spatial and temporal workplace parameters. For example, flexible work allows workers to perform duties at home and provides greater latitude in scheduling. By contrast, permeability is “the degree to which elements from other domains may enter” (Clark 2000:756). High permeability implies that work-related dimensions (i.e., people, materials, thoughts) are able to enter the home domain more easily. Boundary/border theory predicts that

higher levels of flexibility and permeability foster integration between roles and ease transitions between them, but the potential for interference between domains is also increased.

Conversely, lower levels of flexibility and permeability imply greater segmentation but less work-family interference.

Although there are no direct measures of flexibility and permeability, one can apply those ideas in the *stress of higher status* hypothesis. Higher-status work conditions probably increase flexibility and permeability, which, in turn, increase the likelihood of work to- home conflict. At first glance, this effect may appear to be somewhat paradoxical because we typically think of “flexibility” as a resource that helps people to avoid or manage role-related conflict. However, the boundary/ border theory implicates flexibility as contributing to greater fluidity in the boundaries of work and family, creating more potential for inter-role conflict. For example the typical Ghanaian woman in a higher status occupation, may decide to attend to some family related issues before going to work owing to the flexible time schedule for starting work. This may give her less time to complete all her tasks for the day, resulting in her being ‘compelled’ to bring home some of the work tasks to complete. This will inadvertently give her

less time to attend to family issues which might be pertinent, thus creating a conflict between work and family roles.

To summarize, then, the boundary/border theory suggests that professionals, whose work schedules are characterised by high levels of flexibility, as well as permeability between work and family domains are more likely to experience work-family interference than those who experience less flexibility and permeability.

The focus of the thesis in this regard, is to find whether higher or lower levels of flexibility and permeability exists in the work-family nexus of Ghanaian women in higher status occupations; and also to find the extent to which either levels is impinging in the work-family interference paradigm.

2.4 The job demands-resources model

The main tenet of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker et al., 2003b; c; Demerouti et al., 2001a, b) lies the assumption that whereas every occupation may have its own specific risk factors associated with job stress, these factors can be classified in two general categories: (i.e. job demands and job resources), thus constituting an overarching model that may be applied to various occupational settings,

irrespective of the particular demands and resources involved. Job demands refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007, p.312) and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs. Examples are high work pressure, an unfavourable physical environment, and emotionally demanding interactions with customers. Since the typical Ghanaian professional woman does not only have to deal with work demands, but also family demands, that may also impinge on their well being, it is argued this theory sits quite appropriately with the aims of this research. This is because the job demands-resources model categorises psychosocial factors into global categories of job demands and job resources to see how these affect employees' illness and organisational commitment (Mark and Smith, 2008; Llorens, et al., 2006). The investigation of the impact of job demands, on the health of Ghanaian professional women is one of the aims of this thesis; hence the appropriateness of this theory to the study. Although job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires high effort from which the employee has not adequately recovered (Meijman and Mulder, 1998).

Job resources on the other hand, refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that allows for achieving work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007, p.312). Consequently, it is argued that supervisor and peer work support, and good work design are likely to engender productivity among this sample of Ghanaian professional women, while ensuring that their health is not unduly affected. This means resources are not only necessary to deal with job demands, but they also are important in their own right. This view is in line with Hackman and Oldham (1980) job characteristics theory that emphasizes the motivational potential of job resources at the task level, including autonomy, feedback, and task significance. In addition, this is aligned on a more general level with conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2001) that states that the prime human motivation is directed towards the maintenance and accumulation of resources. Accordingly, resources are valued in their own right or because they are means to the achievement or protection of other valued resources. Job resources may be located at the level of the organisation and may include things like pay, career opportunities, job security; the interpersonal and social

relations such as supervisor and co-worker support, team climate; the organization of work which includes role clarity, participation in decision making; and at the level of the task that deals with issues such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and performance feedback.

A second premise of the JD-R model is that two different underlying psychological processes play a role in the development of job strain and motivation. In the first process, health impairment, poorly designed jobs or chronic job demands (e.g. work overload, emotional demands) are seen as exhausting employees' mental and physical resources leading to the depletion of energy (i.e. a state of exhaustion) and to health problems (e.g. Demerouti et al., 2000, 2001a, b; Leiter, 1993). The second process proposed by the JD-R model is motivational in nature. This process assumes that job resources have motivational potential and lead to high work engagement, low cynicism, and excellent performance. In this regard job resources are envisaged as playing either an intrinsic motivational role because they foster employees' growth, learning and development, or playing an extrinsic motivational role because they are instrumental in achieving work goals.

2.5 Work-family positive spillover and work-family enhancement

The term *positive spillover* has been used in the literature since the early 1980s (Crouter, 1984). Staines (1980) originally proposed three competing mechanisms for understanding the relationship between work and family roles: segmentation, compensation, and spillover. To test among these competing mechanisms, researchers examine the correlation between job and family satisfaction. Segmentation here refers to the separation of work and family and is indicated by a small to zero correlation between work and family satisfaction. A negative correlation between the work and family roles demonstrates compensation, where what is lacking in one role is sought after and obtained in the other role. A positive correlation is an indication of spillover, or the transfer of characteristics from one domain to the other domain, resulting in similarities between the two domains. It is important to point out that spillover can be negative (e.g., interfering with role performance) or positive (e.g., promoting better role performance). Edwards and Rothbard, 2000) have contributed to the understanding of spillover by delineating four types of positive spillover and describing the processes by which these different types of spillover may occur. The four types of spillover they propose are affect, values, skills, and

behaviours. Each of these types of spillover is believed to occur from work to family and from family to work.

Edwards and Rothbard (2000) suggest that affect may be transferred between roles in one of two ways. In the first case, positive affect experienced in one role (the originating role) may increase self-efficacy, motivation, and positive interpersonal interactions in another role, resulting in better performance in the other role (the receiving role). Improved performance may in turn result in recognition or praise from role partners or feelings of personal accomplishment, thus elevating one's mood in the receiving role. It is also possible that affect in one role may influence a person's general affect and thereby influence their affect in a second role (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000).

The two processes Edwards and Rothbard (2000) propose for the spillover of values, skills, and behaviours are very similar. In the first process, values, skills, or behaviours learned in one role influence more general personal schemas and thereby influence other roles. Values learned in one role, for example, may have a socializing influence on one's general life values and thus vicariously affect what is valued in other roles. For example, according to Vondracek et al (1986) work socialization begins in childhood when children imitate adult

behaviour in play and participate in household chores. Kanter (1977) suggests that family culture may influence work by affecting family members' work-related values, such as their work ethic. Skills and behaviors may also be transferred through this indirect process. Learning research suggests that the transfer of knowledge, skills, and behaviours is more likely when they are generalized into abstract schemas, facilitating skill transfer despite situational dissimilarities (Albin and Horner, 1988; Bandura, 1977).

The second process involves the transfer of values, skills, and behaviors directly from one role to another without influencing more global schemas. This may be more common when values, skills, or behaviours are in the earlier stages of developing and/or the situational similarities between the two roles are very strong. Drawing on the theoretical frameworks of work-family positive spillover (Staines, 1980), Edwards and Rothbard (2000), define work-family positive spillover as the transfer of positively valenced affect, skills, behaviors, and values from the originating domain to the receiving domain, thus having beneficial effects on the receiving domain. The literature provides examples of the types of affect, skills, behaviors, and values that can be transferred from work to family and vice versa. Examples of positive affect that may be

transferred from one role to another are excitement, enthusiasm, and happiness (Williams and Alliger, 1994). Workers have reported that skills such as interpersonal communication and multi-tasking learned in one role can make them more effective in another role (Crouter, 1984; Ruderman et al., 2002).

Behaviour such as a teacher's disciplinary style or a worker's use of a communication device (e.g., e-mail or cell phone) may spill over to influence their behavior at home (Isipa et al., 1984). In addition, there is some evidence that values such as autonomy, curiosity, consideration, and obedience stressed at work may affect the values that parents promote at home (Kohn, 1963; Pearlin and Kohn, 1966). In other research, workers report that values learned through interactions with family members such as respecting individual differences and patience make them better employees (Crouter, 1984; Ruderman et al., 2002). These are just a few examples of the types of affect, skills, behaviors, and values that may spill over from one role to another.

Another term that has been used recently to describe the benefits of participating in both work and family is work-family facilitation (Grzywacz, 2002; Wayne, Musisca, et al., 2004; Carlson, et al., 2006). Work-family facilitation has been

defined as “the extent to which an individual's engagement in one domain of life (e.g., work or family) yields developmental, affective, capital, or efficiency gains that result in enhanced functioning in another life domain (e.g., family or work” - Carlson et al., 2006, p. 6). Although both positive spillover and facilitation are concerned with how individual participation in one domain (e.g., work) is beneficial for the second domain (e.g., family), at least one distinction can be made between the two constructs: positive spillover involves the transfer of personal characteristics (or personal gains) such as affect, skills, behaviors, and values from one domain to another, thereby benefiting the second domain; in contrast, facilitation is proposed to occur not just through personal gains but through capital gains as well (e.g., money, employment benefits, and social contacts).

Greenhaus and Powell, 2006) have introduced the construct of enrichment, which is said to occur when resources are generated in one role (e.g., family) that improve the quality of life in another role (e.g., work). Given this definition, constructs such as work-family positive spillover, and even work-family facilitation (at times), can be broadly categorized under the rubric of work-family enrichment. The concept of resources, according to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), is

defined widely to include personal resources, similar to those discussed in the definition of spillover, as well as social capital and material assets, which go beyond traditional definitions of positive spillover (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000; Staines, 1980). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) suggest that there is both an instrumental path and an affective path to enrichment. They further explain that the instrumental path occurs when a resource such as a skill is transferred directly from one role to another, leading to increased performance in the receiving domain. It is likely that the positive spillover of values, skills, and behaviors as described earlier occurs through this path. The affective path is said to occur when a resource generated in one role promotes positive affect in that role, which in turn produces high performance in a second domain, leading to positive affect in the second domain. This path is similar to one of the paths we described earlier that Edwards and Rothbard (2000) suggest for the spillover of affect.

Finally, in distinguishing the concept of work-family positive spillover, it is also important to clarify its relationship with work-family interference. As defined in the literature (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985), work-family interference occurs when participation in one role (i.e., work) interferes

with participation in the other role (i.e., family). It is important not to see work-family interference and work-family positive spillover as conceptually distinct constructs whereby one is not simply the absence of the other; thus, it is possible that an individual can experience high levels of both conflict and positive spillover at the same time or high levels of one and low levels of the other.

2.6 Social support and work-family interference

The study of social support, as it is known today, can be traced to several published works in the 1970s (e.g. Cassel, 1976; Cobb, 1976; Moss, 1973). In spite of the differences in definitions of social support, these authors all agreed that social relationships can moderate the effects of stress on individual's health and well-being. Again social support has been identified as an important resource or coping mechanism that can reduce the negative effect of stressors (Gore, 1987; Thomas and Ganster, 1995). Generally definitions of social support that have emerged from recent literature can be described in three broad perspectives (Burleson and MacGeorge, 2002; Goldsmith, 2004; Sarason et al.,1994).

The first is the sociological perspective that focuses on the degree to which individuals are integrated into a social group. The second is a psychological perspective that emphasises the perceived availability of support. Adherents of this view 'typically assess the type or amount of support that individuals perceive they get from their social network (received support) or the type or amount they believe is available to them (perceived support)' (Vangelisti, 2009; p.40). Communication perspective is the third view which focuses on the interactions that occur between the providers and those who receive support. It is usually the verbal and non-verbal behaviours of individuals that are evaluated when the process of support is in play (enacted support).

In relation to work-family interference, it has been argued that the degree of social support an individual obtains in a given situation may affect the entire stress process. For example, if an individual perceives conflict on the job but receives a fair amount of social support from peers or supervisors, it is likely that the resulting strain from experienced role conflict may not occur. Similarly, although an individual may have a high level of family time demands, social support from the spouse may attenuate the impact of that source of strain (Voydanoff, 2004; Carlson and Perrewe, 1999, Erdwins et al., 2001).

Consequently to understand the impact of role conflict on the overall strain of individuals, it is expedient, in relation to this study to consider the social support in both the work and non work environments.

Work-related social support can come from a number of sources, such as supervisors or peers, which could create a more positive work environment. For example, a supportive supervisor can make the work environment less stressful by discussing family related problems and being flexible when emergencies arise (Roskies and Lazarus, 1980). This type of social support has been found to moderate the situational stressor's effect on work-family interference. For example employees with supportive supervisors are known to experience lower work-family interference (Jansen et al., 2003, Schaffer, 2001; Goff, Mount, & Jamison, 1990; Jones and Butler, 1980). Lack of social support on the hand, is related to higher levels of work-family interference (Burke, 1988; Greenhaus et al., 1987). Social support has also been found to affect the influence of work-related stress on outcomes. For example supportive supervisors have been found to facilitate employee job satisfaction (Bakker et al., 2005, Erdwins et al., 2001), and supportive organisations have been found to be associated with increased organisational

commitment (Lok and Crawford, 2004; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Scandura and Lankau, 1997).

On the other hand social support in the non-work domain such as the family may result in less work-family interference (Luk and Schaffer, 2005; Fu and Schaffer, 2001; Burke, 1988).

Specifically, spousal support as a non work social support has received a great deal of attention the work-family interference literature. For example it is known that a good and open relationship between spouses can result in less marital stress (Bodenmann and Shantinath, 2004; Erdwins et al., 2001; Suchet and Barling, 1986). Low support from spouses regarding their partners' work has been found to be associated with high levels of work-family interference in dual career couples (Holohan and Gilbert, 1979). Again a husband's support is known to be crucial in determining if the wife's employment had negative consequences for the family system (Nasurdin and Hsia, 2008; Arnott, 1972). In addition, studies have found that a husband's support of his wife's is critical to the reduction of her conflict (Berkowitz and Perkins, 1984; Beutell and Greenhaus, 1982). Rosin (1990) for example also found men to have more career satisfaction when their career was supported by their wives. Furthermore, wives' careers were perceived to prove independent sources of support, thus

reducing dependent of men and allowing them to meet career demands. This evidence suggests that non-work related social support, may play an important role in buffering in the non-work conflict process

2.7 The theory of coping and the stress of work and family

Even though scientific interest in coping began to change in the 1970s, with the expansion of coping research and theory, the basic idea of coping is not very new (Lazarus 1999). Lazarus (1999) further suggests that coping as known in modern times, has its antecedents in the ego defence mechanism emphasised in clinical psychology and psychiatry. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) define coping as the "constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (p.141). Coping has to do with the way people manage life conditions that are stressful. To some extent, stress and coping could be said to be reciprocal of each other. Thus when coping is ineffective, the level of stress can be high; but when coping is effective, the level of stress is envisaged to be low. Coping can occur as a response to an event or in anticipation of upcoming

demands, but it also can involve a proactive approach to self-imposed goals and challenges (Schwarzer and Knoll, 2003). In this regard, coping theory has a crucial place in this thesis. Since one of the aims of this thesis was to investigate Ghanaian women's experiences of work-related stress and work-family interference, it was also important to check whether women used any coping strategies to deal with these stressors.

Pearling and Schooler (1978) also describe coping as the things that individuals do to avoid being harmed by life strain. The relationship between strain and coping has been noted to be theoretically grounded in the motivational aspect of person environment transactions (Scheck, Kinicki, and Davy, 1997). They further suggest that strain creates disequilibrium in people's lives thereby motivating them to do something to restore equilibrium. So for example the sample of women to be investigated in the thesis are envisaged to seek behaviours that will attempt to restore the emotional, psychological and physical disequilibrium that may result from their experience of work-related stress and work-family interference. This is important as this ensures that their well being is not put at risk, as a result of experiencing these stressors.

The coping process is initiated in response to the individual's appraisal that important goals have been harmed, lost, or threatened (Folkman and Moskowitz, 2005). Folkman and Moskowitz further suggest that these appraisals are characterized by negative emotions that are often intense. Coping responses are thus initiated in an emotional environment, and often one of the first coping tasks is to down-regulate negative emotions that are stressful in and of themselves and may be interfering with instrumental forms of coping. Emotions continue to be integral to the coping process throughout a stressful encounter as an outcome of coping, as a response to new information, and as a result of reappraisals of the status of the encounter. If the encounter has a successful resolution, positive emotions will predominate; if the resolution is unclear or unfavourable, negative emotions will predominate.

The types of coping strategies identified in the literature and aligned to this thesis are cognitive restructuring, person/environment transaction and seeking social support to cope with the stressful situations.

Cognitive restructuring can simply be seen as a re-appraisal of the person-environment relationship, where the stressful

situation can be re-evaluated with the view to seeking behaviours and/or resources that can assist in attenuating the strain such a situation may be exerting on an individual's mental, emotional, physiological or psychological well-being. For example a professional woman who constantly receives a call from colleagues asking for help in completing their task may find this stressful, especially if it means in helping them her work for day nearly always get undone. In reappraising the situation she may think about asking colleagues to contact her when she has been able to deal with most of the day's work. Lazarus (1999, p.76) sees this as the "cognitive underpinning for coping".

Person/environment transaction coping strategy on the other hand refers to the individual making use of what is perceived as resources in the environment to deal with tight schedules or work overload. An example is an employee going for a short walk to get in some fresh air before coming back to continue the day's tasks. This 'cooling off' period may not only allow such an individual time to think about how best to strategise and complete the day's tasks, but it also allows for the recouping of lost energies, even if it is for a short period. In this regard the transaction between the individual and the

environment enables the individual to probably tackle the work tasks with new insights and renewed vigour.

Seeking social support as a coping mechanism is the process where an individual seeks help in the form of advice, information or insight into how to deal with for example a work situation that has induced, or is inducing stress.

Research has shown that social resource factors may either serve as buffers in the coping process, or may directly improve well-being (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Hobfoll, 1988).

Greenglass (1993) contend that the buffer argument in this case suggests that stress may affect some persona adversely, but those who have social support resources are relatively resistant to the deleterious effects of stressful events.

Furthermore Greenglass suggests that social support may provide acceptance and intimacy (i.e. emotional support); advice and guidance (i.e. informational support), and financial assistance, good and services (i.e. instrumental support).

Indeed even though past research on coping and social support have tended to be kept conceptually and empirically separate, recent studies has directed attention towards linking coping and social factors in order to evolve an interpersonal theory of coping with stress (Greenglass,1993).

For example DeLongis and O'Brien (1990), point to the importance of drawing upon others' social support in coping with stressful events. In this regard, social relationships serve a protective function by providing people with a sense of being valued and loved which tends to increase people's self-efficacy and esteem (Krause, Liang and Yatomi, 1989). Again perceptions of self-esteem (DeLongis, Folkman and Lazarus, 1988) and control (DeLongis, Bolger and Ressler, 1988) are also predictive of the effects of a stressor on well-being.

2.8 Chapter summary

This chapter examined the theories that informed this thesis. First, work-family interference and stress were discussed, together with the stress of higher hypothesis. Second, the boundary/border theory, together with the job-demands resource model was also examined. Finally social support as it relates to work-family interference, and coping as a resource in dealing with work and family stress were also discussed. The next chapter discusses the methodological framework that underpinned the thesis.

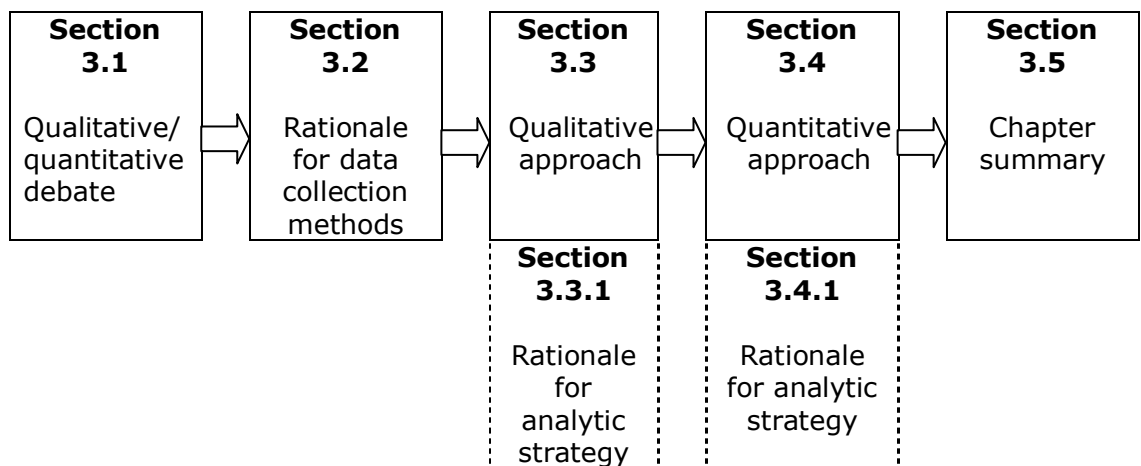
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the general, and other specific techniques used in this thesis. First, the chapter briefly explores the qualitative-quantitative debate in relation to the study, and further discusses the rationale for the choice of combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies in this study. Second, the rationale for the choice data of collection methods as well as the analytical strategies for the study is discussed. Details of the methods used are presented in the appropriate chapters. The structure of the chapter is showed in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Chapter 3 structure



3.1 The qualitative and quantitative approaches debate

The exploratory, confirmatory as well as the multidisciplinary nature of this research called for a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods. Consequently face-to face interviews (Study 1) were used in the qualitative study in this thesis to elicit the views of a sample of Ghanaian women working in higher status occupations within the finance and education sectors on the existence and severity of work-related stress (WRS) and work-family interference; and also to investigate their impact on women's well being. Additionally open -ended questionnaires (Study 2) were used to seek the views of selected spouses of women on the same issues. Finally closed ended questionnaires (Study 3) were used to test the findings of Studies 1 and 2. Consequently even though much earlier literature of the 1980's, attest to the fact that there is a gulf of difference between qualitative and quantitative research (Layder, 1988), recent literature is bringing to the fore the realization that these two methods may not in a sense belong to two different paradigms after all. This is because this thesis has shown that these approaches can be used in tandem. And this supports Brennen (1992) suggestion that all researchers soon come to realise that the practice of research is a 'messy and untidy business' that rarely conforms to models and consequently the employment

of a combination of research methods in a single piece of research, may facilitate the more appropriate exploration of the research problem.

In Ghana, where the study was undertaken there was a serious dearth of published studies at the time of the research, on work-family interference in the general sense, and work-family interference relating to women in higher status occupations. Work stress as a distinct entity seems not be very well researched in Ghana. Additionally even though 'family life' as a distinct entity is somewhat researched (Bawah, et al., 1999; Oppong, C., 2006, 2004, 2001), the emphasis is more on helping women and men understanding the various role expectations in the family domain, the understanding of nutritional, family planning as well as typical gender issues. There is however very minimal emphasis on work-family interference as an issue that affects Ghanaian women's family life, well-being and general career aspirations. Hence using qualitative method for example allowed the study to capture the "ipssisima verba" (the very words) of the participants on work-family interference, as well as their feelings, which gave room for a more 'life-like' analysis of the issues underpinning the research problem. This is because to have just used western theories, models, and possibly methods without

taking into account the peculiar socio-linguistic and cultural differences between Ghana and the West, would have opened this study and the consequent findings and conclusions to fundamental mistakes. One reason for this is even though the western theories and models that formed the framework for this thesis have been tested and validated in the West, it does not mean one could necessarily apply the same methods and theories to the Ghanaian situation. Indeed one would not know if the cultural and other differences alluded to earlier would point to a further modification or to fundamental change(s) in these existing theories and models.

Additionally, one would not know prior testing it in the Ghanaian context, whether the changes would be theoretical, methodological or both. So to have just used these western theories and models would not have made the findings and conclusions sound and acceptable. Consequently there was the need to 'step back' and find out how these theories, methods and models could be used in the Ghanaian context. In order to do that it was important to check and see which of the models, theories and methods was appropriate for the Ghanaian context.

As such the epistemological position taken in this study was the 'technical view'. Among others, this view suggests that even though quantitative and qualitative research may be conceived of being appropriate for different kinds of research questions, they have the capacity of being integrated (Bryman, 1988, 2004). This is what this study has sought to achieve; combining the two or more approaches to achieve the best possible outcome. This was seen as both methodologically and theoretically appropriate owing to the dearth of studies akin to the research problem in Ghana as alluded to earlier. This view is in contrast to the 'epistemological perspective' which sees the qualitative and quantitative approaches as representing two competing views about how social reality ought to be studied.

So to have used either of the approaches exclusively, would have meant that the exploratory and confirmatory attributes of the two approaches utilised in this study would have been lost, making the findings and conclusions less convincing to the research community. This is because one would have been tempted to use Western theories, methods and models without testing and possibly modifying or changing them to suit local conditions.

Indeed the social reality in Ghana was the prime mover in adopting the multi-strategy approach. For example even though no empirical data exists statements from participants in Study 1 indicated that Ghanaian employees in higher status organisations are not very amenable to filling in questionnaires owing to the enormous time constraints they are under. Additionally they are quite averse to responding to questionnaires when they do not have any idea about who the researcher is and the benefits of the research. Consequently the qualitative study in this thesis was used to as it were 'break the ice' and ensure that respondents had a stake in the current research. This was not only to ensure increased participation but also to get participants involved in the theory building and model development and modification that informed this thesis.

Again the use of two approaches proved that exclusive use of either would have been detrimental. For example it was evident that participants in Study 1 were more comfortable talking about sensitive issues pertaining to work and family rather than just filling in questionnaires. And they also felt better with asking for clarifications and making suggestions to the research. This could not have been possible if only survey questionnaires were used. It is finally argued, as has been

shown by the use of the multi-strategy approach in this study that, for the success of any social phenomena being studied, practical considerations should be made in tandem with the philosophical, theoretical and methodological considerations as the research unfolds. This ensures a holistic approach to research problems and ensures that findings and conclusions become highly defensible. So in agreement with Bryman, (1992) and Blaxter et al., (2001), the depiction of quantitative and qualitative research as distinct epistemologies or paradigms that cannot be reconciled is to say the least, restrictive. Indeed Cain and Finch (1981) argue that there is no one truth: life is merely multifaceted. Thus any scholarly exercise like this particular study, which is exploratory, confirmatory as well as multidisciplinary in outlook, must allow for a multi-faceted approach to arrive at the intended outcome(s). Finally Burns, (2000) asserts that there is more than one gate to the kingdom of knowledge and that each one gate offers a different perspective, but no one perspective exhausts the realm of 'reality' – whatever that may be.

In this regard this study has shown that there indeed are certain similarities between qualitative and quantitative approaches to research. For example the issue of the importance of spousal support in ameliorating the impact of

WRS and WFI on women's well-being and family life which emerged from Study 1 was further explored in Study 2 using open-ended questionnaires. This resulted in the formulation of hypotheses, which were tested in subsequent chapters. This shows that while quantitative research may mostly be used for theory testing, it can also be used for generating hypothesis and theory (Blaxter et al., 2001:65, Huberman, 1994).

Blaxter et al. additionally point out that there are times like the example given, when quantitative approaches can also obtain qualitative data through open ended questions within its framework.

Consequently it is argued that the inherently exploratory and yet in- depth nature of qualitative research can be used as a journey of discovery to stimulate new leads and avenues that are unlikely to be discovered, solely using the quantitative approach. Such leads and avenues once unearthed could be co-opted by the quantitative approach to either confirm or reject them. And qualitative approach could then be used again to further validate the findings of the quantitative study. A concordat of this kind between the two methodologies is clearly attractive (Agyeman 1991; Akyeampong, 1997; Barnes, 2002; Owusu-Mensah, 2006), especially in this study where there was such a dearth of studies on work-family

interference among women in higher status organizations in the Ghanaian milieu.

It thus becomes obvious that the uses of quantitative approaches, like qualitative approaches can provide authoritative survey data and relate diverse factors within the remit of a research problem. This allows for strong theory building, which eventually leads to strong theoretical models that may eventually end in good theory development. For example the use of the face-to-face interviews in Study 1 was envisaged to lead to a much greater understanding of the meaning Ghanaian women sampled gave to WRS and WFI, and the behaviours such as seeking social support that allowed them to deal with these situations. Again it captured the different perceptions of participants to other issues such as intentions to quit and legislating for WFI in the Ghanaian context. This allowed for the reshaping and modification of the initial models and theories.

3.2 The rationale for choice of methods for data collection

Several reasons informed the choice of methods for data collection in this thesis. First, with no established measures in

the Ghanaian WFI paradigm, it was important to establish the appropriateness of the adopted Western theories, methods and models within the local context. So the use of face-to-face interviews in Study 1 was to get an in-depth understanding of the existence and experience of WRS and WFI among the sample of Ghanaian women, as well as the impact of WRS and WFI on well being. Again Study 2 was undertaken to get another view of WRS and WFI among this sample of Ghanaian professional women. This was also both exploratory as well as confirmatory. It brought to the fore the views of sampled Ghanaian men on the incidence and impact of WRS and WFI on their spouses well being and family life. Additionally the use of open-ended questions ensured that the feelings of men on the issue were captured, since they were not contacted physically but through the selected women (i.e. their spouses). Finally Study 3 was used to test the working models that have emerged from the two previous studies, leading to the modifications of the initial research model, refined research model, the modified research model to the final research model.

Consequently, the second reason for this multi-strategy approach was the issue of triangulation in and its attendant advantages of helping one draw appropriate conclusions from

different data sources. Triangulation is “a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study” (Creswell and Miller, 2000:126).

Triangulation was therefore used to ensure the reliability and validity of the qualitative study as the entire research itself was new in the Ghanaian context.

Multiple methods such as face-to-face interviews, open-ended questions and complete survey questionnaires have been used to gather data from different participants, in this thesis. It is argued that as one of the advantages of triangulation, this strategy has engendered more confidence in the results of this thesis (Jick, 1979). This is because the use of open-ended questionnaires for example in Study 2 both complimented and validated findings from Study 1. This is known to improve the reliability and validity of research or evaluations of findings (Golasfshani, 2003), as well as ensure trustworthiness and confidence in study findings (Patton, 2002).

Again the use of the multiple-strategy, together with documentary evidence as part of the triangulation process has led to what Jick termed thicker, richer data of work-family interference in the Ghanaian context. For example the use of

negotiations to help both women and men deal with work-family interference which emerged in both Studies 1 and 2 has added to the original theoretical and model framework of this thesis adopted from Western studies. It is suggested that this may not have been possible using only a Western-adopted quantitative measure. Finally triangulation is known to stimulate the development of creative ways of collecting data. In this regard the not very amenable culture of research in Ghana especially in relation to questionnaire surveys meant that the normal format for questionnaire(of many separate foolscap sheet stapled together) had to be altered and tested during the pilot study (into a booklet form) to make it more appealing to respondents, who had very busy schedules. The booklet format of the questionnaire meant that it was visible and did not get mixed up with other papers on women's desks.

Again, the fact that most research on Occupational Health Psychology and other disciplines in Ghana over the past decades, have tended to use mainly quantitative approaches, was motivation enough to use the multi-strategy approach. This is because even though there may be limited use of qualitative approach, the use of mixed methods in Ghanaian literature especially in medicine is only now being appreciated (Barimah and van Tejligen, 2008).

3.3 Setting a basic framework for the qualitative approach

The choice of this approach as the initial framework for the thesis was informed by theoretical, methodological and practical considerations. First owing to the fact that the research problem concerned women in a conceivably typical patriarchal society such as Ghana (Eyango, 2001), meant that one had to open the research up for the possibility of discovering novel or unanticipated findings and the possibility of altering plans in response to such serendipitous occurrences (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). This is because the research was to be conducted among a coterie of largely educated women and men in Ghana. So it was important to test theories such as the higher status hypothesis, family boundary theory, work-family interference, work-family enhancement and social support. And since qualitative research is conceived to be fluid both in its nature and application, it was deemed as appropriate, especially since one had to be sure that any subsequent survey questionnaire to be used later in the thesis captured the peculiar Ghanaian linguistic and cultural nuances related to the research problem.

Specifically for example, the use of the face-to-face interviews allowed for asking of further questions to gain a deeper

understanding of participants' perceptions, feelings and rationale for choices of particular behaviours in dealing with issues such as WRS and WFI. This supports Barton and Lazarsfeld's (1969) assertion that 'like the nests of deep sea explorers, qualitative studies may pull up unexpected and striking things for us to gaze on' (p.166). Since the feelings, perceptions and rationale for behaviour cannot always be subsumed within numerical classification (Bryman, 1992, 2004; Burns, 2000), it is argued that the choice of qualitative approach was quite crucial for this thesis. Indeed the use of the qualitative approach is not only a preliminary step towards a more quantitative approach later on in this study (Akyeampong 1997), but it has also been used for both theory building and theory testing within this thesis.

Additionally to have used an adopted Western survey questionnaire en bloc, would probably not have allowed for the detection of any cultural and linguistic differences that may exist between Ghanaian professional women and their Western counterparts, as well as any sensitive items in Western models that may impinge on the WFI paradigm in Ghana. Finally the views, perspectives, opinions and embedded understandings of Ghanaian women vis à vis WFI that emerged from the qualitative study were juxtaposed with existing literature, as

well as opinions from their spouses via a semi-structure questionnaire so as to develop suitable models for the Ghanaian situation. Consequently the qualitative approach was used in two main ways. First, to facilitate the design of subsequent quantitative research, and, second to compliment the information that was gathered through the quantitative approach using the face-to-face interviews.

The choice of face-to-face interviews as a qualitative technique in this thesis instead of a technique like telephone interview was predicated on several reasons. First, initial informal investigation (by researcher) prior to embarking on this thesis had shown that most Ghanaian women in higher status positions were more amenable to speaking about issues pertaining to the research problem since they thought they will be in the position to ask pertinent questions about the research as well as make suggestions if need be. Second, even though the feelings of participants may not be quantified in this thesis, the face-to-face interviews allowed one to take advantage of social cues such as voice, intonation and body language to get extra information to compliment participants' verbal responses (Opdenakker, 2006). The interviews dealt with issues such as the lack of attention on work-related stress at the work place, which was a sensitive topic to participants.

Consequently these social cues, it is argued, allowed one to gauge for example the severity of Ghanaian professional women's experience of work-related stress and work-family interference. This may not have been possible using telephone interviewing.

Again, the synchronous communication associated with face-to-face interviewing meant that the spontaneous responses of participants could be captured in real time, thus reducing the possible introduction of social desirability response bias associated with extended reflection when using telephone interviewing. Finally even though the use of telephone interviewing is known to be cost effective when doing large surveys over vast geographical distances in western societies (Holbrook, et al., 2003), the same could not be said for Ghana where the study took place. The costs of telephone interviewing would have been expensive in the Ghanaian context, bearing in mind that the average length of the interviews was 1 hour. And the fact that even using even fixed line is prohibitive in Ghana, it was not practically and financially feasible to use this technique.

Documentary analysis was used to get the basic information that informed the selection of the research problem.

Consequently documentary analysis provided evidence on the rise of the female population into the upper echelons of the Ghanaian work force, the fundamental issues of women, work and family, the level of awareness of WFI among policy makers and the existence of any laws or advocacy in bringing WFI to the fore of Ghanaian labour issues.

3.3.1 Rationale and choice of analytical strategy for qualitative study

The main qualitative technique used in analysing the interview transcripts was inductive and theoretical thematic analysis. A combination of these techniques was opted for because in qualitative analysis no theme can be said to be entirely inductive or data driven, since the researcher's knowledge or preconceptions will inevitably influence the identification of these themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Inductive thematic is the 'bottom up' approach (Frith and Gleeson, 2004), in which themes identified are strongly linked to the data. In conducting the qualitative data analysis it was important to ensure that the themes reflected the data as much as possible especially since the qualitative study was being used among others, to test the appropriateness of existing theories and methods in the Ghanaian setting. So it was important to

analyse the data without trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the researcher's analytic preconceptions. At the same time however it was also important to ensure the themes that emerged were not overly out of tune with the aims of the study. Hence theoretical thematic analysis, which is driven by a researcher's interest, in this case to ascertain the presence and severity of women's experience of work-related stress and work-family interference, was also adopted.

The choice of coding methods was also informed by both theoretical and methodological considerations. It was important to ensure that the coding regime also reflected the type of analysis chosen. Thus in order to generate descriptive codes with low levels of abstraction to help highlight themes from the interview data (Neuman, 2000), open coding was utilised at the beginning. This was to ensure that these codes were directly and strongly linked to the data set. Additionally to organise these lower level themes in a more coherent manner and align similar ideas into corresponding themes, axial coding was chosen. This is because using axial coding ensured the clustering of emerging ideas into a coherent unit, allowing the themes to stand out. This, it is argued, engendered a deeper understanding of the research issues.

3.4 Exploring emerging issues from qualitative study with the quantitative approach

The quantitative approach in this thesis was used to test the assumptions, themes and models that had emerged from both Studies 1 and 2. Specifically, the initial Western theories, methods and models that formed the framework of the thesis, and tested in the qualitative study, and consequently modified after incorporating the needed sociolinguistic and cultural nuances, were again tested using survey questionnaires. Importantly however, it was deemed necessary to pilot the instrument before the main administration of the questionnaires.

The decision to do a pilot study in this thesis is predicated on the fact that the measures to be tested which had incorporated the themes that emerged from the face-to-face interviews had never been used in the Ghanaian setting. This is because one of the advantages of conducting a pilot study is that it might give advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated. Consequently since the reduction of measurement error is an important prerequisite for the development of a valid and reliable survey instrument

(Radhakrishma, 2007), it was important to pilot test the survey instrument to try and reduce the discrepancy between respondents' attributes and their survey responses to the barest minimum (Groves, 1987).

And in Ghana where the research culture is not as high as the UK, face validity was a crucial aspect of the study in order to get the required sample for the study. So in order to improve response rates from the survey, it was important to involve participants in the initial design of the final survey instrument. This was done by adopting the Stakeholder Involvement concept (Griffiths, 1999a). Griffiths (1999a) in Knight (2009) posits that organisational research often involves a compromise between maximising internal validity (to confirm cause-and-effect relationships and to allow statistical prediction) and maximising external validity (for the sake of generalisability). Consequently face validity which is another important aspect of organisational research, enjoins a researcher to ensure that research appears, meaningful, understandable and relevant to the participants involved in the research. Consequently in order to obtain high face validity it was deemed important to encourage organisations and individuals to participate in the research, since the benefits of seeking input from a participating organisation (participants)

during research development is well documented (Griffiths, 1999a). Further details of how this was done are discussed in Chapter 6 of this thesis.

3.4.1 Rationale and choice of analytical strategy for quantitative study

Owing to the fact that the survey questionnaire in its entirety had not been used in Ghana before it was important that the analytical strategies chosen, guaranteed the needed statistical rigour. This, it is argued, would then ensure that the results are generalisable and also the consequent conclusions are sound. As such the choice of was predicated upon theoretical, as well as methodological considerations.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was chosen as the data reduction method for this thesis for a number of reasons. First, since the measures were new in the Ghanaian research terrain it was important that the scales to be developed for further testing captured the entirety of participants' responses as much as possible. Using Factor Analysis (FA) would have meant that only items with shared variances will be analysed. This will inevitably exclude unique variances; thus reducing the possibility of capturing to totality of participants responses

on issues. And since PCA is exploratory in nature and allows for the reduction of the data set (participants' responses) into manageable units for the performance of multivariate analysis like multiple regression (Dancey and Reidy, 2007), it was deemed appropriate.

Again since PCA is not used for hypothesis testing but rather to simplify a data set, it was important to adopt it to get a clear but simple sense of the underlying factorial structures within the data set. In spite of opposition to the use of PCA in favour of FA (Bentler and Kano, 1990; Floyd and Widaman, 1995; Snook and Gorsuch, 1989), there are those who point out that there are no differences between these two methods, and advocate the use of PCA (Guadagnoli and Velicer, 1988; Schoenmann, 1990; Steiger, 1990). Indeed Stevens (1996) admits a preference for the use of PCA, suggesting that it is psychometrically sound and mathematically simpler and avoids some of the problems with 'factor indeterminacy', associated with FA (p. 362-3). This thesis is aligned with this view.

Finally in agreement with Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), PCA is a better choice when one simply wants an empirical summary of the data set (p. 635); especially if this summary is made statistically strong when the derived scales yield high reliability coefficients.

Hierarchical regression analysis, a multiple regression strategy, also known as multi-level modelling or random coefficient modelling was chosen as the main analytical strategy to test the modified research model in this thesis. Even though some researchers prefer Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) in studies on work-related stress and work-family interference (Major et al., 2002; Aryee), others too have opted for hierarchical regression (Barnett and Gareis, 2002; Aryee et al., 1999).

In the present thesis, the decision was however made to use hierarchical regression. Hierarchical regression involves theoretically based decisions for how predictors are entered into the analysis (Petrocelli, 2003). Again hierarchical regression is typically used to examine specific theoretically based hypotheses (Aron & Aron, 1999; Cohen, 2001). The choice was based on methodological and theoretical reasons. First, hierarchical regression allows a researcher to control any factor that is likely to affect the dependent variable, as well as its relationship with the main predictors in the regression equation. Again its inherent flexibility means that all factors that have possible links with the dependent variable could be considered in the regression. This ensures

that any variable that adds to a greater understanding of the research problem is also integrated into the analysis.

Additionally owing to the low research culture in Ghana which did not engender high responses especially from surveys it was important to choose a method of analysis that may not need large numbers for its analytical process. And since an analytical strategy like SEM requires large samples, which was unlikely to be obtained, it is argued that hierarchical regression was appropriate for the analysis.

As part of the hierarchical regression additional moderation and mediation analysis were performed. Conducting moderation analysis is said to show not only maturity but sophistication in the particular research problem being investigated (Aguinis, et al., 2001). Moderation and mediation are said to be theories used for refining and understanding a causal relationship (Wu and Zumbo, 2008). Moderators and mediators are further known to enhance a deeper and more refined understanding of a causal relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. It was important to conduct these extra analyses for several reasons. First mediation explains the process of "why" and "how" a cause-and-effect happens (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Frazier et

al., 2004). This means that the mediation analysis attempts to “identify the intermediary process that leads from the independent variable to the dependent variable” (Muller et al., 2005, p.852). Consequently as part of the analytical strategy of this thesis it was important to establish whether the envisaged effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables was in anyway affected by other intervening variables, not originally proposed to function as such. This is where the sophistication of an enquiry as alluded to by Aguinis et al. comes in.

Moderation on the other hand, postulates “when” or for “whom” an independent variable most strongly (or weakly) causes a dependent variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Frazier et al., 2004; Kraemer, et al., 2002). In other words a moderator modifies the strength or direction (i.e., positive or negative) of a causal relationship. So in this thesis for instance it was not only important to investigate whether work-related stress impinged on women’s experience of work-family interference, but it was equally important to check whether this relationship was in anyway affected positively or negatively by coping strategies or support at work.

3.5 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the introduction to the methodology used in this thesis, followed by a brief discussion of the qualitative-quantitative debate on the best approach to research. The rationale for the choice of methods for data collection in this thesis, as well as the rationale for choosing a qualitative analytical strategy was also examined. Finally the use of the quantitative approach to explore issues in the qualitative study in the thesis, as well as the analytical strategy that informed the quantitative study itself are discussed.

The next chapter introduces the qualitative study of the thesis, which mainly utilised face-to-face interviews.

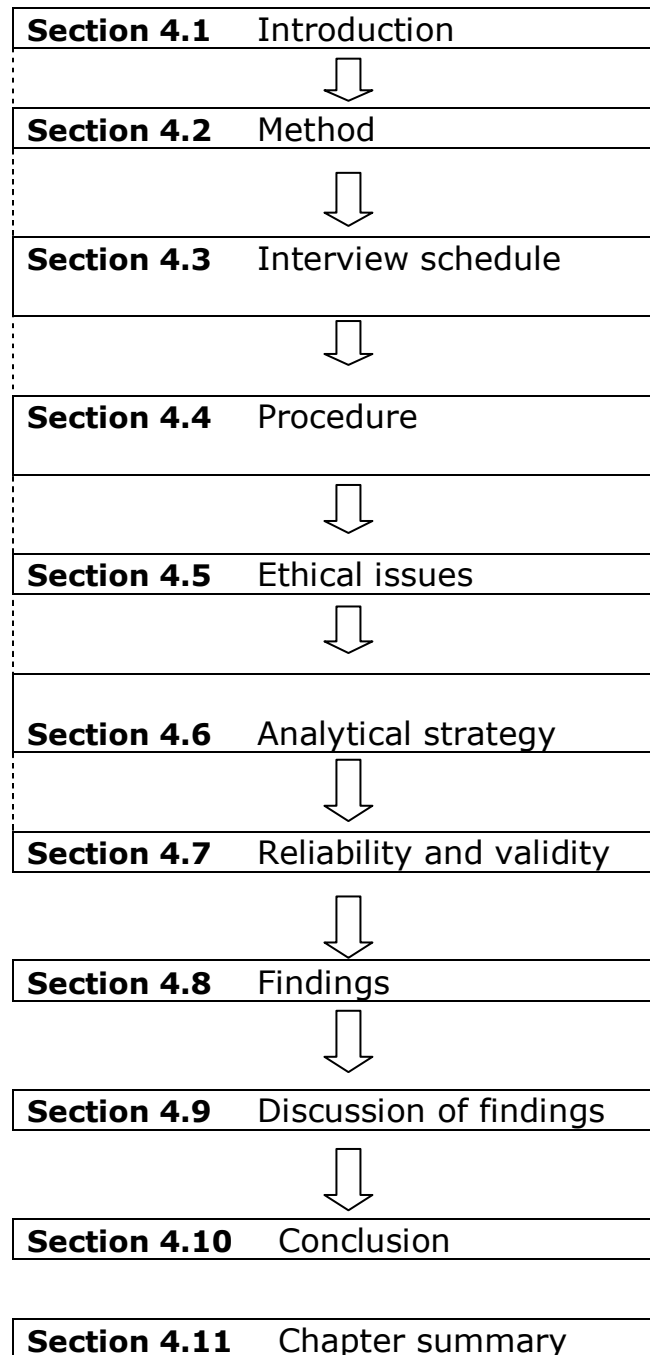
Chapter 4

Qualitative Study (Study 1)

4.0 Overview

The current chapter presents a detailed discussion of the qualitative approach to this thesis. First, all the aspects of the method used in the qualitative study are discussed in detail. Second, the interview schedule, the procedure for data collection and the ethical issues underlining the qualitative study of the thesis are discussed. Thirdly, the analytical strategy used in processing data, including transcription and the coding regime are discussed. Furthermore, the reliability and the validity of the qualitative study, together with the findings of the study are discussed in detail. Finally, the initial questions posed in the current chapter, as well as the findings are discussed, and conclusions drawn. The chapter structure is displayed in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Chapter 4 structure



4.1 Introduction

Owing to the dearth of studies on work-family interference in Ghana, and the fact that most of the studies identified were tangential (DeRose, 2007, Eyango, 2001 and Oppong, 1987), there was the need for a more exhaustive exploratory qualitative study. Consequently an initial study was undertaken with the following questions in mind:

- What is Ghanaian professional women's understanding of work related stress?
- How prevalent is work-related stress of Ghanaian professional women by their self-report?
- What level of attention is given to work-related stress among women within the Ghanaian working environment?
- To what extent is Work-Family Interference (WFI) a major concern for Ghanaian professional women?
- What is the impact of WFI on Ghanaian professional women's well-being and family satisfaction?
- What is the impact of WFI on professional women's job satisfaction and intentions to quit?
- Does social support exacerbate or ameliorate Ghanaian professional women's experience of WFI?

4.2 Method

The key motivation for this qualitative study was the need to better appreciate the issues of work-related stress and WFI, specifically from the Ghanaian professional women's perspective. As this is the first study of its nature in the Ghanaian context, it is argued that qualitative research methodology would provide the appropriate platform for an in-depth exploration of issues with its wider range of possible empirical materials (Punch, 1998:60). Furthermore qualitative methodology also offers the opportunity for close understanding of social phenomena in all its complexity, as well as within particular situations and environments (Pope, van Royen & Baker, 2002).

Consequently, the qualitative study was used as a means of obtaining a baseline understanding of work-related stress and WFI among professional women in the Ghanaian working milieu, and further examine their impact on the well-being, family satisfaction and job satisfaction outcomes. Data collection took place in Ghana from July, 2 to September 28, 2007.

4.2.1 Form of enquiry

The interview method was chosen for this study owing to the nature of research questions explored, and the advantages that accrue to a researcher opting for his method, such as flexibility of the process, ability of the researcher to use probes for further emphasis of participants' responses, as well as capturing responses on audio tape for future reference, et cetera. Kvale (1996) points out that the "qualitative research interview attempts to understand the world from the subjects' point of view, to unfold the meaning of people's experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations" (1996:1).

Consequently, exploring Ghanaian professional women's understanding and perceptions of work-related stress as well as WFI, and their impact on work, family and personal outcomes made the adaptation of qualitative interview a critical method. Additionally, the flexibility of the qualitative interview made participants quite amenable to the process, which allowed for the needed adjustments to the various conditions of the study. For example, even though almost all participants were interviewed in their work places, the researcher had to interview one at her residence owing to her

tight work schedule.

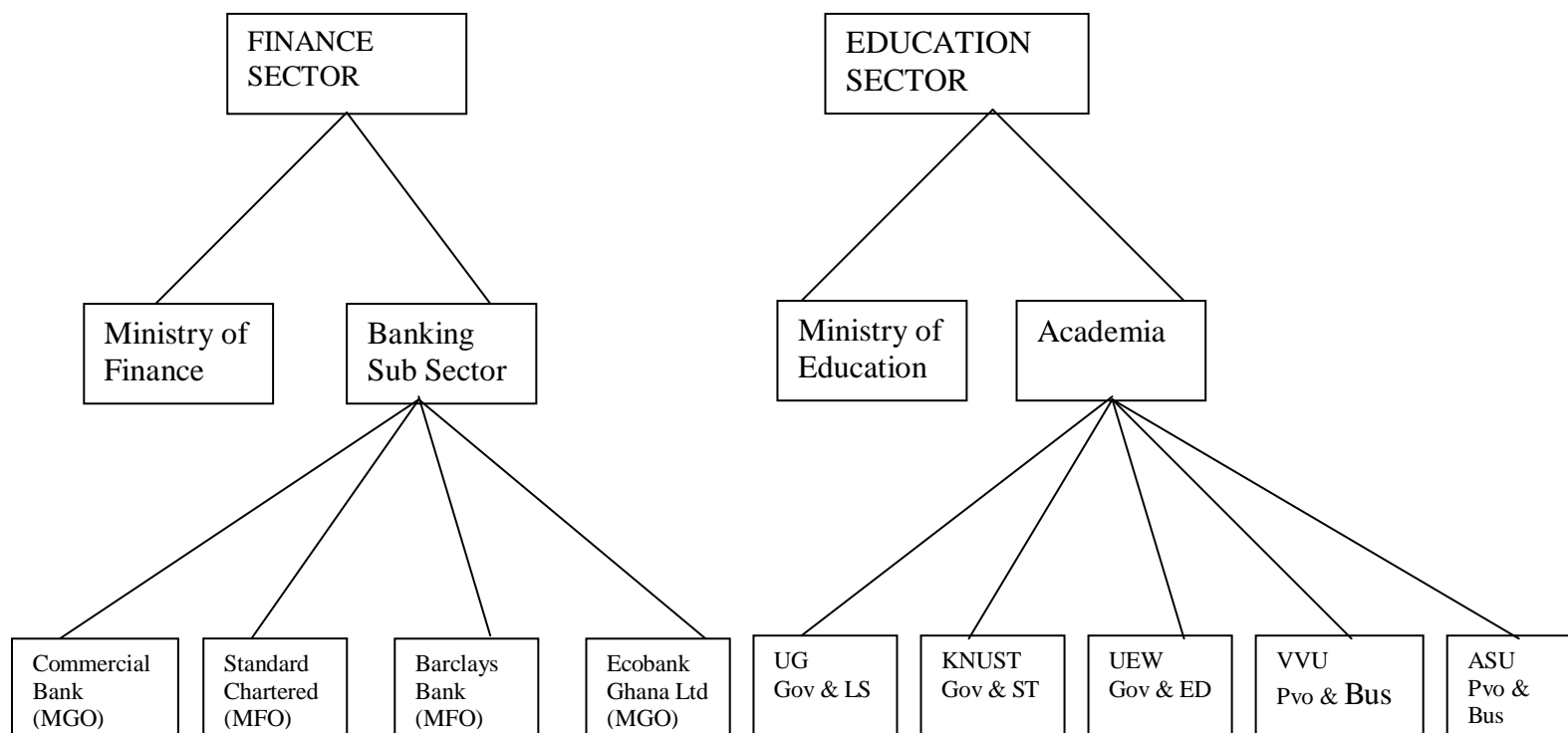
Participants were interviewed using a semi-structured interview schedule. This type was chosen owing to its 'non threatening' nature and the fact that it is dialogue driven, allowing participants to be relaxed so as to freely express their opinions. Again, being a face-to-face process, it enabled the researcher further probe the non verbal behaviours of participants which had a bearing on some of their responses and hence the direction of the interview process. In spite of these advantages issues of information overload, as well as the fact that most participants had to truncate their work schedule for the day to grant the interviews, meant that concentration levels were sometimes low. Additionally, there were some interruptions as some participants had to answer important phone calls, which meant that questions had to be repeated, lengthening the interview time. However since all the interviews were audio taped, little or no information was lost.

4.2.2 Selection of sector/organisation

The identification and categorisation of the women working in higher status occupations in Ghana (refer to chapter 2)

marked the commencement of this study. From documentary reviews, which were scanty, three sectors were identified owing to the high concentration of professional women working high up the ladder in the work place. These sectors were selected using three criteria. First was the willingness of a particular sector or institution to take part in the study. Second was the structure of the sector or institution. So, for example in the finance sector, depending on whether the institution was government or private, it was included. And with the Universities, for example, depending on whether it was privately-owned or government- owned; whether it focused on liberal studies, science and technology, education or business studies, it was selected as a target. The third was the presence or absence of bureaucratic barriers. An organogram depicting the selection criteria for the sectors and institutions is shown in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Organogram showing selection criteria for sectors and institutions



Key: **MGO** – Mostly Government Owned; **MFO** – Mostly Foreign Owned; **Gov** – Government; **Pvo** – Privately Owned **LS** – Liberal studies; **ED** – Education; **ST** – Science & Technology; **Bus** – Business Studies **UG** – University of Ghana; **KNUST** – Kwame Nkrumah University of Science & Technology **UEW** – University of Education, Winneba; **VVU** – Valley View University; **ASU** – Ashesi University

4.2.3 Study Population

The study population comprised professional women from the Finance and Education sectors. The Health Sector was excluded owing to a number of reasons. First was the fact that the Ghana Health Service, the umbrella body for research in the sector, demanded a three-month prior notice with ten copies of the proposal before permission could be granted for the research. As such, coupled with the time constraints under which the researcher was working, the health sector was excluded. Second was the fact that most of the medical personal that had been targeted also had additional administrative responsibilities which would have made it difficult, in their opinion, for them to find time to grant the interviews.

It is thus argued that since the Education and Finance sectors had enough concentrations of women working in higher status occupations, the two sectors were settled on for the qualitative study.

4.2.4 Sampling Technique

One difficulty in undertaking qualitative research is the ability

to obtain a representative sample for a particular study. And, even though a researcher aims at greater understanding of issues, there is the element of the inclusion criteria for the sample to be studied (Mays & Pope, 1995). This can affect sample representation and hence the ability for a researcher to make generalisations based on such a sample. However, Bryman (2004:285) opines that participants in qualitative research are not meant to be representative of a population. To Bryman, the aim of qualitative research is to present theoretical inferences. In agreement with Bryman, the sample was deemed appropriate for the study, since all of them satisfied the criteria of working in higher status occupations (see Chapter 2).

The selection process operated at three levels. First was the choice of sector, then was the choice of organisations within the sector and finally the choice of individual women within the selected organisations.

4.2.5 Sampling: Participants

Participants in the current study were key personnel in the Ministries of Finance and Education; three major government Universities, namely University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology and University of

Education, Winneba; as well as two private Universities, namely Ashesi and Valley View Universities. Other participants came from the banking sub-sector, with banks such as Ghana Commercial Bank, Barclays Bank, Standard Chartered Bank and Ecobank Ghana Limited accounting for the rest of the participants.

The rationale for targeting these key personnel at the identified organisations stemmed from the fact that recent literature attests to the fact that individuals in higher status occupations are more likely to experience demanding, non routine and autonomous work, but those conditions may obligate workers to commit to more hours, which may induce work-family conflict among such workers (Voydanoff 1988, 2004a, 2004b; Bellavia and Frone, 2005). Added to this is the fact that research reveals that professional women tend to experience work-family interference in their lives (Aryee, 1992; Barnett, 2002; Scherer, and Steiber, 2007), which may in turn affect their health and well-being (Lou et al, 2006). Thus, women in the upper echelons of the establishments such as these participants, who had to deal with longer working hours, higher levels of responsibility and decision making and competition for promotion with their male counterparts, as well as the expectations of family members, fitted the

quintessence of this qualitative study.

Purposive sampling was used in the selection of the women from the organisations/institutions that participated in Study 1. The emphasis was on women within the education and finance sectors, whose jobs could be categorised as higher status occupations. One inclusion criteria was women who had worked in their organisations for 2 years and above. This was to enable the researcher get a sample of women that would have dealt with the daily, tight schedules in their workplaces to an appreciable extent to talk about the existence and impact of work-related stress in an informed manner; as tenure in the face of competition for promotion in the work place may determine women's reports of stress and work-family interference (O'Laughlin and Bischoff, 2005).

Another inclusion criterion was allowing both married and unmarried women to participate. This was deemed necessary, it is argued, because in Ghanaian society single women may still have the responsibility of caring for their own children, nephews, nieces and even elderly relatives who depend on them for their upkeep (Eyango, 2001). Such a role, no doubt, may also be affected by the level of work demands a woman encounters at work. Hence, such a coterie of women will also

have appropriate information on the existence and impact of WFI. Consequently their inclusion, it is further argued, was to provide a balanced view on work-related stress and WFI by these Ghanaian professional women.

Finally, women who had positions from the executive to the middle level were chosen for this study since they satisfied the criteria of higher status – long working hours, flexibility of schedules, higher levels of responsibility and decision-making and also higher levels of remuneration.

4.2.6 Sample

A total of 80 participants were identified from the targeted organisations/institutions in terms of positions. In all, however, 43 women were interviewed (54% of target). And these comprised one Deputy Minister of State, six Directors/Deputy/Assistant Directors of Education from the Ministry of Education, eight members of academia, eleven women from the Ministry of Finance, and seventeen from the banking subsector. The breakdown of the participants interviewed is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Positions of participants in organisations and institutions

<u>Sector/Title</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Status</u>
Deputy Minister of State	1	E
<u>Education Sector - Ministry</u>		
Directors of Administration	2	E
Deputy Director	2	S
Assistant Directors of Administration	2	M
<u>Education Sector - Academia</u>		
Deans of Faculties	4	E
Heads of Departments	3	S
Lecturer	1	M
<u>Finance Sector - Ministry</u>		
Legal Department (Lawyer)	1	S
Secretaries/Personal Assistants	4	M
Senior/Principal Economists	3	S
Senior Budget Officers	2	S
IT Director	1	E
<u>Finance Sector - Banking</u>		
Director of Banking	1	E
Head of Operations	3	S
Human Resource Managers	3	S
Training Specialists	2	S
Bank Managers	8	S

Key:

Org= organisations; **E** – Executive; **S** – Senior Level; **M** – Middle Level

4.2.7 Sample Characteristics

Participants in this sample had varying degrees of tenure and work experience as well as educational backgrounds. The tenure of participants ranged from five to for thirty-five years. The lowest level of education among participants was a Diploma, with Masters Degree being the predominant level of education for the study sample. Table 4:2 gives further demographics of the study sample.

Table 4.2: Further Demographic Characteristics of Participants

<i>Interview sample</i>	80	100%
Completed interview	43	54%
Declined interview	13	16%
Scheduling conflict	17	21%
Not located	7	9%
<i>Age in years</i>		
Range	25 – 56 years	
Mean	36	
<i>Work Status of participants</i>		(n = 43)
Executive	9	21%
Senior Level	27	63%
Middle Level	7	16%
<i>Marital status</i>		
Married & living with husbands	30	70%
Single	7	16%

Divorced	3	7%
Widowed	3	7%
<i>Children/dependants living at home</i>		
Participants with children/dependants	39	91%
Participants with no children/ dependants	4	9%
<i>Years of children living with participants</i>		
Under 10 years	26	67%
11 – 20 years	8	21%
Above 20 years	5	12%
Educational level of participants	5	12%
Masters Degree +	33	77%
Undergraduate Degree	7	16%
Diploma	3	7%

4.3 Interview Schedule

According to Chase (2005), passages of qualitative data can be referred to as narratives. For the purpose of analysis, passages in this research are defined as specific verbal responses or narratives to questions posed by the researcher. These are short passages, designated personal narratives that elucidate Ghanaian professional women's experience and perception of work-related stress and work-family interference, as well as specific work and family outcomes.

The semi-structured interview schedule (Appendix II) was

designed by adapting items from a previous study on bankers in Ghana, (Bedu-Addo, 1998), other relevant studies, as well as inputs other researchers. After meticulous scrutiny by colleagues and other researchers, the needed changes were made and the schedule finalised for piloting and administration.

The schedule consisted of six sections focusing on the following:

- General information
- Work-related issues including work stress
- Family issues
- Issues on Work-Family Interference (WFI)
- Work-family enhancement
- Issues bordering on the legislation of WFI

Questions concerning work stress were formulated from questions and themes emerging from previous research (Bedu-Addo, 1998; Williams and Cooper, 1998; Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 2002). Questions on Work-Family Interference were also formulated from questions and themes from previous research (Aryee et al, 1999; Anderson et al, 2002; Hill, 2005; Schieman et al., 2006), in addition to the ones that were self-developed. Furthermore, questions

concerning support and coping mechanisms were formulated from items and themes from previous studies (Anderson et al, 2002; Barnett and Gareis, 2002). Work-family enhancement items were mainly formulated from questions and themes emerging from previous studies (Grzywacz, 2002; Wayne et al, 2004; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Finally, questions on legislation of Work-Family Interference were mainly self-developed as there were no previous questions or themes identified at the time of study. The following are examples of the questions used in the interview schedule:

- *To what extent do you find your work schedule manageable or unmanageable? (on work- related stress).*
- *Describe your typical day at home after work (general family question).*
- *To what extent does having to cater for children/dependants contribute to your experience of WFI? (on work-family conflict)*
- *Why do you think WFI has not been given the needed attention by employers and policy makers alike? (on legislating WFI)*

The full range of questions used is shown in (Appendix II).

The interview schedule was piloted for clarity and consistency among ten professional women from the University of Education, University of Ghana, Ecobank Ghana Limited and

the Ministry of Finance. Modifications were effected by bringing on board suggestions from participants, some of whom were researchers in their own right. Thus, during the main study some questions were rephrased to reflect the cultural sensibilities of the professional Ghanaian woman. Additionally, other questions which were typically western biased in nature were given a Ghanaian 'flavour', without losing their import and reliability.

For example, the question "*To what extent does having to cater for children/dependants contribute to your experience of WFI?*", was an alteration from the original "How do child-caring activities affect your experience of WFI?". The change was necessary because in the Ghanaian context, the typical woman has to cater not only for her children but other dependants that include husbands, nephews and nieces, as well as elderly relatives from the extended family. This brings to the fore the importance of the interview as a data collection tools especially for an exploratory study such as Study 1, since it allows for flexibility. The interview process lasted one hour on the average, with the shortest lasting for 30 minutes.

4.4 Procedure

Initial contacts were made via e-mail to the various Human Resource Managers and the Pro Vice Chancellors of the academic institutions. The e-mail detailed the purpose and relevance of the study to the participants and to the institutions and Ghana as a whole. This was followed up with letters from supervisors personally delivered to the Heads of Human Resource Departments and the Pro Vice Chancellors of the organisations targeted for the study. These letters re-echoed the initial e-mail the researcher had sent as well as introducing the researcher formally, in addition to asking for the needed assistance from the institutions.

Formal letters were then given to the author by the Heads of Human Resources and Pro Vice Chancellors detailing the purpose of the study and soliciting the cooperation of possible participants. Participants were purposively selected by the author from lists provided by the Human Resource Departments of targeted establishments. Initial contacts were made with the possible participants, as a form of introduction and to further explain the purpose and benefits of the study. It was also used to arrange appropriate times for the interviews with the participants.

Consequently, interviews were conducted among professional women in the Education and Finance sectors in Ghana.

Immediately prior to the interview, participants were informed of the nature of the study, after which they were given time to read and sign the Interview Consent Form (Appendix I).

Participants were also given the option of asking for the recorder to be switched off at any point during the interview, if they so wished.

Questions were used to encourage the active participation of participants in the direction of the interview. Consequently, participants were allowed to express their views on issues even if their responses were tangential to the expected response. Follow-up questions were then used to further probe and clarify interviewees' responses Warren, (2001), in Burnell (2007). The non-judgemental, as well as the neutrality of the questioning process was upheld (Britten, 1995).

The duration of the interview ranged from a minimum of 30 minutes to a maximum of 1 hour. The difference on the duration of the interview came about as a result of the tight schedules of these women; and there were times one felt extremely privileged to have been granted these interviews.

All the participants except one were interviewed in their offices. This was mainly due to the fact that it was virtually impossible to go to individual homes for the interviews; coupled with the fact that the official atmosphere prevailing in the offices offered a better setting for interviewing than the homes, where there might have been several disruptions, as was experienced with the woman interviewed at home. On conclusion, participants were asked if they wanted to add anything else. If so, this was discussed and after the end of the interview, the tape was switched off with the consent of the interviewee, and then the participant was thanked for her time.

4.5 Ethical Issues

The Ethical Committee of the Institute of Work, Health & Organisations, University of Nottingham, ensured that the ethical standards for the study were upheld, through rigorous examination of the research process. There was thus, subsequent endorsement for the study to proceed.

Participants were given assurances of the confidentiality of the research, and in adherence the British Psychological Society's

Code of Conduct, participants' were given an information sheet which spelt out the use of the research for purely academic purposes. Participants were informed that the interviews were voluntary and they could withdraw from the study at any point in time. They were additionally made aware of their right to refuse to answer any question deemed inappropriate to them. Finally, participants were asked to sign the Interview Consent Form (Appendix I) before the commencement of each interview session.

Though no individual feedback was promised, participants were assured that a summary of the findings could be made available via their organisations, on request. Additionally, the participants from the Ministry of Finance, Ghana requested a seminar/workshop after the study to present findings to both the women and men in the Ministry. This, according to them, would go a long way to help the men understand the need for bringing the issues of WFI among women to the fore.

4.6 Analytical strategy and processing of interview data

Simply put, data analysis involves the process of bringing coherence, as well as structure and meaning to the plethora of data collected. Qualitative data analysis is a quest for

statements about relationships among data categories. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) state that in qualitative research analysis, the researcher moves from a description of what is the case to an explanation of why that is the case. This implies that the researcher must have been deeply embedded in the processes of data collection (i.e. interviews, observations etc). This, according to Patton's (2002) assertion, allows the researcher to better explain a phenomenon or various phenomena. In the current research, the researcher was deeply embedded in the process of data collection, coding, analysis and the interpretation of the data.

4.6.1 Transcription of interview data

Interviews were transcribed focussing on the key elements in the narrative that highlighted the aims of this research. Personal and identifying details were left out to ensure the anonymity of the participants. Additionally, only those grammatical nuances, colloquialisms and figures of speech deemed necessary were included in the transcript in order to create data that was as close to the recorded voice as possible. This was crucial since the analysis was based on the women's personal narratives of their experiences of work-

related stress and work-family interference, as well as other concomitant situations that impinged on the work-family interface and not one's readable interpretation (O'Connell and Kowal, 1994).

The audiotaped proceedings of the interviews were transcribed and subjected to a hybrid of theoretical and inductive thematic analysis. The combination of these approaches was opted for, because by allowing themes to emerge from both theory and the data itself (Patton 1990) one was able to get a rich and detailed description of the data. And identifying themes that were highly representative of participants' views of the objectives of the study (Thomas, 2003, Braun & Clarke, 2006), as well as in consonance with theory, the trustworthiness of the findings could be ensured.

4.6.2 Coding Process

Giorgi (1985) recommends a four-step analysis procedure in qualitative analysis: getting a total impression, identifying meaning units, abstracting the contents of individual meaning units and summarising their importance. In line with this individual responses to questions were initially listed. Second,

any divergent responses to questions were checked for any elements of the dominant themes. Thirdly, any recurrent opinions expressed by a majority of the participants were highlighted. Finally, statements that succinctly elucidated participants' opinions and related directly to research questions were flagged. Next, was to code these responses.

According to Coffey and Atkinson (1996, p. 32) 'codes are tools to think with' and 'heuristic devices' since labelling a condensed meaning unit with a code allows the data to be thought about in new and different ways. A code can be assigned to, for example, discrete objects, events and other phenomena and should be understood in relation to the context. In qualitative research, like the one under discussion then, a good thematic code is one that captures the qualitative richness of the phenomenon. It is usable in the analysis, interpretation, and presentation of the qualitative research (Boyatzis, 1999:31). The data-driven approach to coding was adopted as it enhances higher inter-rater reliability owing to the fact that it is highly sensitive to the context of the raw information. And in this regard one is more likely to obtain validity, as previously silenced voices or perspectives inherent in the information can be brought forward and recognised (Boyatzis, 1999).

Again open coding, which primarily involves giving descriptive codes as well as a low level of abstraction (Neuman, 2000) was used to help highlight themes from interview data. The codes generated were juxtaposed with the recorded data as well as documentary evidence, leading to deeper and newer understanding of issues as the analysis progressed.

Consequently, axial coding which deals with organising themes into a coherent manner was used to align similar ideas into their corresponding themes. This helped to cluster the emerging ideas into coherent units, allowing the emerging themes to stand out. A summary of the coding process used in generating the themes is shown below:

Table 4.3: Summary of coding process used in generating themes

Meaning Unit	Condensed meaning unit. Description close to the text	Condensed meaning unit. Interpretation of the underlying meaning	Sub-theme	Theme
Yes I do feel stressed out at work, you know. I have to attend to visitors to the organisation, and try to sort out problems that crop up in the department. At the same time I have to try and meet all targets set for me by my boss. And sometimes I feel so drained, you know.	Feeling overwhelmed by the number of work activities yet not having the needed time and resources to accomplish tasks	Work schedule overwhelming causing energy drain	Work activities induce stress	Work-related stress

During the day, I move from one meeting to the other and I feel drained. Meanwhile my work for the day piles up so I end up taking work home hoping to wake up in the middle of the night and try to clear some of the stuff...but come Monday I would have failed.	Inability to complete daily work tasks as a result of work overload and interruptions, resulting in taking work home	Home becomes an extension of the work domain owing to heavy work load	No clear boundary between work and family tasks	Permeability of work and family boundary
We don't interact that much because I'm so tired from work. If anything it is in the morning when going back to work, but what quality time can you have in a car? You see. I feel I am not being a good wife since I don't seem to have much time for him and it worries me sometimes.	Lack of quality interaction at home resulting from work load and long hours	Work intrudes into family life affecting family satisfaction	Work interferes with family life	Work-family interference
You know, even though work can sometimes be strenuous, I must say I have a wonderful boss. At times if we are working late, he just calls my husband... and they can laugh about it. That helps you know. At work you are relaxed and put in your best.	Supervisor showing understanding and giving support on issues in and out of the work domain	Support allows woman to be relaxed at work leading to increased productivity	Social support can induce job satisfaction	Social support (work)
You know I have a wonderful husband. I don't think many husbands will accept this, (the nature of her work) but he has accepted this. And	Husband shows understanding and gives support to woman's	Support allows woman to be relaxed at work and at home enhancing	Support can induce family cohesion and satisfaction	Social support (family)

once in a while he comments. "You see you don't have to come home late everyday; maybe once or twice a week, and then find time for us... and that helps you know." He doesn't complain.	roles as a worker, wife and parent	family cohesion		
Apart from the money, of course I think I'm conscious of my diction nowadays. Because my work with the Deputy Minister means I meet a lot of people who are of higher rank than I am...and I am mindful that I am junior to them. So when I am speaking, I am mindful of what I say and how I say it... and I think this has transferred to the home and when I am speaking to my husband and kid even , I negotiate with them	Monetary and other values acquired from work allows woman to support family financially as wells as improve her work, parenting and marital skills	Financial gains and other values from work are considered as both work and family improvement tools	Monetary gains and values from work contribute to work/family improvement	Work family enhancement
I think we do so, so that this imbalance (combining work and family roles) could be recognised and addressed. If our labour laws could provide for flexi hours and it could be accepted, so that people could either work on shift basis. And I think we need to bring the men in to support us when the time comes, you know.	Recognition of the need to amend labour laws to incorporate , for example flexi hours to deal with WFI, as well as roping in essential stakeholders	Change in labour law and advocacy will be essential in dealing with WFI	Importance of legislating WFI	Legislating WFI
There have been instances, I have been fighting myself whether to leave the job and look after the children. Because I think it is not worth it, there is no balance in the	Heavy work schedules as well as fulfilling expected family roles bring pressure on woman	Inability to find a good balance between work and family can induce intentions to quit	Low level of work-life balance can induce quitting intentions	Intentions to quit

<p>house, and everything is going helter skelter...then what happens to me at the office? I can't even concentrate. And is it worth it; earning all this and having all these backlogs, this liability.</p>	<p>when family life begins to suffer, leading to having intentions to quit the job</p>			
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4.7 Reliability and Validity

Morse et al. (2002), have suggested that without rigour, research is worthless, becomes fiction and loses its utility. Hence a great deal of attention is given to reliability and validity in all research methods. And since qualitative research unlike quantitative research lacks the preciseness of hard numbers and p values, the importance of establishing the 'trustworthiness', which implies the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the data being analysed (Guba and Lincoln, 1982), cannot be over-emphasised. Indeed Patton (2002) suggests that in designing a study, analysing results and judging the quality of a study, validity and reliability are two factors the researcher should be concerned about. Thus, in establishing the 'trustworthiness' (Shields and King, 2001) and dependability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; p.299) of the study, effort was made to ensure that the

design and analysis of the interview data were rigorous as well as realistically, uncompromising.

Triangulation was another process used to ensure the reliability and validity of the qualitative study. Thus, in agreement with Patton (2002) who further opines that triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods, multiple methods of data collection such as interviews, observation, documentary analysis, audio taping and open-ended questionnaires for spouses/partners of women and complete questionnaires were used in the current research. This was to ensure trustworthiness and confidence in the study findings.

Two other key steps were taken to ensure the appropriate rigour of the study. First, participants were encouraged to either confirm or disconfirm their assertions to the researcher, after each interview. Again after the initial coding of the major themes and the subthemes, participant validation was conducted among 36 of the initial 43 participants. Reporting back to participants to confirm or revise findings in the light of the researchers' comments goes a long way to establish trustworthiness and confidence in qualitative research

outcomes (Bryan, 2004; Patton, 2002). The overall concurrence rate from the participants was very good.

Secondly, three independent raters outside the subject area and not connected to the present study were also contacted to analyse the transcripts using the themes developed earlier. After comparing notes the inter-rater reliability of the transcripts scrutinised was 0.89. Thus, the raters agreed on almost 90% of the themes rated independently prior the inter-rater reliability process. After further discussion with these independent researchers, there was agreement on everything about the main themes.

Finally, in line with Lincoln and Guba's (1985: 316) assertion that "since there can be no validity without reliability, a demonstration of validity is sufficient to establish reliability", it is argued that having ensured the validity of the study by using respondent validation, inter-rater reliability as well as triangulation, Lincoln and Guba's (1985, p. 290) question "How can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences that the research findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to?", has been duly answered by establishing the reliability of this qualitative study.

4.8 Findings of qualitative study

Thematic analysis revealed themes relating to experience of work-related stress, permeability of work and family boundary, work-family interference, work-family enhancement, social support and legislating WFI. Thematic analysis is a search for themes that emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon (Daly et al., 1997). The process involves the identification of themes through "careful reading and re-reading of the data" (Rice & Ezzy, 1999, p. 258). It is a form of pattern recognition within the data where emerging themes become the categories for analysis.

4.8.1 Work-related stress (WRS)

Work-related stress in the Ghanaian working milieu was an everyday occurrence among the women interviewed. Most of the women interviewed pointed out that they more often than not, felt overwhelmed by the daily schedules they had to undertake at work before going home. A summary table of how participants cited WRS as a theme, including contributory factors is shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Participants citing WRS as a theme

Theme	Explanation	No.	% citing theme
<i>Work-related stress (WRS)</i>	Feeling overwhelmed by work schedule while having little time and/or resources to deal with work load culminating in stress	42/43	98%
<i>Factors</i>	<i>Explanation</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>% citing factor</i>
<i>Pervasiveness:</i>	Women’s self-report on WRS was prevalent across sectors/institutions	39/42	92%
<i>Receives little attention:</i>	Scanty or no mechanisms in place within sectors/institutions to help women deal with WRS	40/42	95%
<i>Long hours:</i>	Women reported working beyond the normal hours contributed to their experience of WRS	41/42	98%
<i>Tight work schedules:</i>	Inability to complete tasks with strict time schedules induced WRS	40/42	95%
<i>Interruptions:</i>	Truncations to daily tasks caused unfinished tasks to accumulate leading to WRS	35/42	83%
<i>High peer and management expectations:</i>	In a performance-driven environment horizontal and vertical pressures result in WRS	36/42	86%

The pervasiveness of work-related stress among women was very much evident among those interviewed. It ran throughout all sectors, as well as levels within those sectors interviewed. For instance one woman said:

I do experience work stress. First of all, the interruptions that you have to deal with are really not something that I care for because at the end of the day you still have to finish what is on your desk. And the longer it takes the more pressure you have...Mmm! that is what it becomes. So it is a big problem, it’s really a big problem. And being second in line to my director, when he is busy he passes the buck to me, and then it increases my stress because then the small time I have, I have to deal with the additional work. And there is another thing too. Other divisions (talking about other departments in the Ministry) see the Legal Department as there to review their work. So they work on their contracts and other documents and

two days to the time of submission, they would bring it and put 'urgent' on it. To them it is urgent. I think they forget we have work we have to do too. And the day they've brought it they start demanding 'my work, my work'. That is very stressful you know. I have discussed with my director that we need to give some directives so that we will have less stress. And when the Ministers do their work and it's urgent, you have to stop everything and attend to theirs. So that is the problem; those are stressful areas.
[Deputy Director - Legal]

Work-related stress was perceived as receiving little attention. Most of the interviewees agreed on the fact that work-related stress did not receive much attention in their work place, as well as the general Ghanaian working environment. And several reasons were adduced for this state of affairs. One participant remarked:

In my opinion no. I don't know whether it has to do with our culture. You know Ghanaians we like saying "Oh saa na etie" (meaning that's the way things normally are) you know, so we suffer in silence. We see it as normal. Some people would say it's normal, as for work, when you work you will get tired, even the farmer also gets tired. But I think it's not good you know. I think we need to harp on it especially for us women; because if you are not lucky to have somebody to support you, if your husband doesn't really understand to help you at home you know, because you close you...I mean I have had situations where I have to quarrel with my husband, you know, over the kids. Because you know sometimes you close from here, you are so tired, and you get home; homework is undone, toys are everywhere, they are still not asleep, you get it? And you know it's like more stress. You see, like you get home tired and you are now going to start a new job at the end of the day! [Bank Manageress]

Another important finding was that these women reported longer working hours as a factor that contributed to their experience of work-related stress. Indeed it became apparent from the interviews that even though the stipulated duration for the normal working day was eight hours, these women were working well in excess of the eight hours. And this to

them was one reason why they were experiencing increased work-related stress. One woman remarked:

Well I think my work schedule is long, you know. Considering that people work for 8 hours everyday, for me my normal working hours are 12 hours. But you know if you work in an office like mine, you should expect this...You know if I were to work in another office, I may close at 5pm or at 6pm like the others. Sometimes it's tiring, sometimes it's so tiring, so I do experience lots of occupational stress [Personal Assistant]

Tight work schedules, culminating in strict deadlines were also highlighted as another causal factor of women's experience of work-related stress. The women interviewed, without exception, worked to strict schedules within the working day and any truncation of these tight schedules, even if caused by work related issues like scheduled meetings, meant an accumulation of tasks which also meant a probable increase in their experience of stress. One woman said:

The key element of my work that brings this stress about is trying to attain set targets set by the bank; especially when my managers have not been able to provide their inputs, and I know there is a meeting on that, in a day or two. And in addition to that there may be other meetings, which may take me away from my desk. And you know management would expect their report at the meeting. And the knowledge that I might not be able to present a report at the meeting can be really stressful, you know. [Director, Banking]

Interruptions to planned daily schedules were yet another sub theme that Ghanaian women in higher status occupations asserted gave rise to their experience of work-related stress. Such interruptions included answering phone calls, attending to 'unscheduled' visitors and attending impromptu meetings. On this sub theme one woman asserted that:

Yes, the working day is quite long and also because of the pressure here. For example, you are given a task and you are supposed to submit it within a specified time. And you realise because of interruptions here and there, you find it difficult to meet your target. ... And there are times I begin to sweat and have some burning sensations at the back of my neck because I know I may not be able to meet the deadline.

[Curriculum Planning Coordinator]

High peer and management expectations were yet another sub theme in the work-related stress interface among women. As most of the establishments where these women worked were performance and results driven, women stated that they felt pressured to achieve results at all cost. And to them this high level of expectation, even though part of their working conditions, did exacerbate their experience of work-related stress especially if they were unable to satisfy those expectations. One woman, who was obviously emotional about this, said:

Yes, the work sometimes overwhelms me. It really does, you know. In my work I have to make sure that the card business is making money. So if the revenue is not meeting expectations you have to make sure you find other ways of pushing the product you know, so that you get the revenue, the non-funded income that the bank requires. So you end up teaming up with marketing (department); if usage is not good it is your responsibility... and you have to work with all the stakeholders to ensure that that is sorted out. As at now I am sitting here thinking...we are running a promotion and you have to link up with marketing. The marketing person is probably a bit laid back, doesn't see the urgency of the promotion, you know; you go there and things that have to be done haven't been done (referring to marketing), things are just not moving, you know it affects you.

And maybe the IT people have to tune the system in such a way that the cards work properly. And you sit there and people are calling from all over with queries from customers, 'the card is not working, the card is not working', you said we should sell, you said we should promote this. I have this customer in Cairo who cannot take money'... and everybody knows you are the cards person you know. And this can be very, very' very stressful; very, very, very stressful! [Business Development Manager]

Only one woman alluded to the fact that her work schedule was not stressful. This was a bank manager of a small bank

with just 10 other employees working under her. Additionally, her house was just a short distance from the office and even though she drove to work she did not encounter as many traffic jams as the others in this study did. On her perception of work-related stress and whether she feels it has been given much attention, she said:

I don't think I experience any work stress as such, you know. I believe that if you plan, you avoid all this 'business' of stress. Most of us, I mean women don't plan, you know. I make sure I plan my day before coming to work. I give instructions at home as to what they must do and I prepare my breakfast and lunch and pack them for work. And at work, my assistants do help out a lot. I delegate when I need to delegate. So I don't have stress at work, you know. It's all about planning you know, planning. [Bank Manager 1]

It thus becomes clear from the above quotes that women in this sample generally found work stressful; and the sources of the stressors in the work environment were varied.

4.8.2 Permeability of work and family boundary

A large proportion of participants saw the boundary between work and family as quite permeable. And this, to the women, emanated from heavy work schedules at work, as well as 'unfinished' home/work issues that inadvertently 'crept' into the work – family domain. This situation, according to most of the women, not only brings pressure to bear on their daily functioning at work, but even sometimes 'threatens' the peace

at home. A summary of women who cited permeability as a theme is presented below:

Table 4.5: Women citing PWFB as a theme.

Theme	Explanation	NO.	% citing theme
Permeability between work and family	Porous boundary between work and family domains causing role expectations at home to sometimes suffer	35/43	81%

A participant observed:

Sometimes I do take work home but it is not all the time that I am able to complete it. Friday, for instance, I took a file home because I said I need to clear this thing. Because, you know, my boss is the type who when he minutes on a file he dates the notes. So if you keep the document for too long you will feel bad.... he knows the date he worked on it. So I said to myself let me take the file home and work on it. Unfortunately for me, on Saturday a friend of mine had a wedding and I had to attend. We were there almost the whole day. Sunday, I didn't go to church. I was so tired I slept; woke up in the afternoon, had to prepare lunch. After that I was just lazing around until it was time to come to work the following day, so I just carried the file back to work...hmm. [Secretary]

Another participant pointed out that:

You know I cannot take my annual leave and this affects my social and family life. There are times I have to represent my boss in quite a number of unplanned meetings. And hitherto I might have called my family to say 'let's have lunch'. Then I have to call again and tell them 'sorry I have to represent my boss at a meeting; or my boss has given me something to read!' And you can imagine their disappointment and that makes me feel bad, you know. And whiles my kids tell me 'we don't seem to have a mother', my husband tells me 'work has stolen my wife'. I really, really worry about this, you know. [Senior Economist]

To many participants then, their inability to balance the demanding roles of a worker and a mother (as well as wife and parent), was what usually gave rise to work-family interference in their lives.

4.8.3 Work-Family Interference (WFI)

The women interviewed reported high levels of WFI in their daily lives. They attributed this to several factors including the fact that; they had to work late and got home tired and exhausted, which did not afford them any energy to interact with their families in any meaningful way. Another factor was the fact that the social support they sometimes required from either their spouses or house helps was not always forthcoming. Finally, there was the fact that they were sometimes compelled to bring work home, which gave them little or no time to deal with important family demands. A summary table of how participants cited WFI as a theme, including contributory factors is shown below:

Table 4.6: Women citing WFI as a theme

Theme	Explanation	No.	% citing theme
Work-family interference	When work including long hours, tight schedules as well as work overload leave women with little time and energy to undertake expected home roles satisfactorily	39/43	91%
<i>Factors</i>	<i>Explanation</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>% citing factor</i>
Closing work late	Heavy work schedules meant women closed late from work, leaving them little time for family interaction on reaching home	36/39	92%
Tiredness and exhaustion	The tight and heavy work schedules leave women physically drained after work	38/39	97%

	stifling quality home interaction		
Little social support	Women sometimes lacked the needed support at home leaving them with little or no time for even leisure at home, after work	29/39	74%
Bringing work home	Owing to daily interruptions at work women are sometimes compelled to bring work home	22/39	56%

The impact of WFI was such that family cohesion was sometimes threatened. For instance, in describing a typical day after work, one woman stated:

You don't want to know. Hmm! You know even if I leave at 5.30pm I get home after 7pm. I get home and settle in the family area, watching my daughter do her work and of course she would ask me her numerous questions. Meanwhile, half of the time, my mind is somewhere else. I am too tired. There are times I don't even eat, but of course I make sure there is food for her and my husband when he comes home. And I can't even watch television, I make a conscious effort but it is so hard...and majority of the time even if my husband gets home before me, I leave her with him; I tell him 'I am just going to have a shower and he knows I am not coming back, you know! As soon as I say that he would say 'there she goes, I will see her tomorrow morning'. And there are times he will chip in a comment or two 'the bank has taken over my wife's life'; you cannot even fulfil your marital duties'. And that's not good to hear, you know! [Business Development Manager]

It is consequently obvious from the above that women were quite apprehensive about the inevitable threat posed by work-family interference on the cohesion of the family unit.

Furthermore reports of WFI were high among women with younger children living at home. Participants pointed out that these children needed supervision prior to, and after work; consequently time and energy needed for childcare activities increased. And if the women were unfortunate not to receive

the appropriate support at home, then their experience of WFI was further exacerbated. A woman describing her daily pre-work schedule pointed out that:

My morning actually starts around 2 am when I wake up to try and finish any work I brought home overnight. I have three other kids who I get ready for school by 6.30am. But I have a 'pension baby' (the baby was not expected at that age); and it is this pension baby who drags me a bit, you know. She attends crèche so I have to get her ready and let the driver send her to school. Initially, I had to get up early and wash nappies and still ensure that I am not late for work. And you know the traffic, if I don't get out of the house by six on the dot because if you leave the house 5 minutes past 6am, then you'll get to work after 9am, and you are late. It's really a strain you know.

[Relationship Manager]

This initial strain on emotional, physical and mental resources prior work was something this participant claimed she could do without.

Close to this sub theme was also the fact that childcare activities after work tended to increase women's experience of Work-Family Interference. After a hard day's work most women, according to almost all the participants, would prefer to just wash down and go to bed. But, as parents and wives, they could not afford to do so. They are obligated to attend to parenting and marital demands even though suffering fatigue from work. A clearly emotional woman asserted:

It feels so tiring after work and when you get home, it's a new job you know; it's like you are now going to start the second shift. You are tired and you now have to listen to their (children's) stories about what happened in school you know, because you have to get that bonding with them you know, as the story goes "wo ne whaen" (meaning who are you not to give them attention). Sometimes they are too tired to do their homework and so you have to postpone it

till the next morning, and in the morning it's all a rush. So if you don't have the support... and people don't understand why women need support. People will sometimes say it's the woman's job; if you work then you have to do the woman's bit as well.

[Assistant Director - Education]

The above quote seem to indicate that home did not feel like a place of solace for women after work, especially if there were younger children living at home. This is because without the needed support a woman then begins a whole 'new' job after an exhausting day.

4.8.4 Social support

It was very evident that the kind of support Ghanaian women received, either at work or at home, really helped them in dealing with the impact of work-related stress and Work-Family Interference. And the women were quick to point out that such support, even if occasional, gave them the needed impetus to carry on with their work and family duties.

Supervisor support was one of the sub themes that emerged from the main theme of social support. Different kinds of support such as encouragement, good recommendations as well as attention paid to their personal and work-related needs by their supervisors, allowed women to concentrate on their work and improve on their output. The summary table below shows how participants cited social support as a theme:

Table 4.7: Women citing social support as a theme

Theme	Explanation	No.	% citing theme
Social support	Perceived availability of assistance from significant others like supervisors, spouses and house helps which alleviates women's experience of WRS & WFI	32/43	74%
Types of support	Explanation	No.	% citing types of support
Supervisor support	Giving mainly informational and emotional support to enable participant work effectively	24/32	75%
Peer support	Giving mainly instrumental, informational and emotional support to enable participant accomplish daily tasks	28/32	88%
Spousal support	Giving instrumental, emotional and informational support to enable participant perform family roles effectively	*20/30	67%
House help support	Giving mainly instrumental assistance with household chores to help reduce participant's exhaustion	18/32	56%

Asked to comment on any support they received at work, a woman claimed:

You know, even though work can sometimes be strenuous, I must say I have a wonderful boss...if you work with someone who ...what should I say; he (her boss) is an easy person to work with. He so understands. I am able to tell him about some of my problems and he offers me the needed advice. At times if we are working late, he just calls my husband and tells him that we shall be working late and he doesn't have to worry and they can laugh about it. That helps, you know. At work you are relaxed and put in your best and at least you know that on the home front too you are covered.
[Secretary]

This clearly shows that the receipt of quality supervisor support enabled women in this sample cope with the stressful nature of their jobs quite well.

Peer support at work was another sub theme that emerged from the thematic analysis. Even though peer relationships could sometimes become arenas for conflict, the women were quick to point out that peer support at work was vital to their ability to deal with work stress and other problems at work.

As a director, I am expected to achieve results and beat deadlines, especially in retail banking. I tell you this can sometimes be overwhelming. But with the good lieutenants (colleagues) that I have I am able to delegate and know that the work will be accomplished. Even if I have to go out on personal errands during the day, I am not worried, because I know they will keep the 'boat afloat' as the saying goes. [Director, Finance]

It is obvious that again the receipt of colleague support also enabled women in this sample deal with effects of work-related stress.

Family support which came in diverse forms was a key resource that assisted Ghanaian professional women in dealing with Work-Family Interference. Spousal support in the form of helping out with some childcare activities, going out on other errands to help out or just showing understanding about the stress their spouses are undergoing, as they (women) try to combine work and family roles, was vital in reducing the levels of WFI that these women encountered. Additionally, support from house helps either paid ones or those who helped out as a result of family affiliations, was also crucial in enabling women deal with WFI.

In describing how spousal support assisted her in dealing with WFI, one woman said:

You know I have a wonderful husband. I don't think many husbands will accept this, (the nature of her work) but he has accepted it. And once in a while he comments, "You see you don't have to come home late everyday; maybe once or twice a week and then find time for us.' This, notwithstanding, he is really not the complaining type and that helps, you know. He doesn't complain. It's just the kids... Sometimes if I see I am running late I can ask him to help by picking up the kids from school. He will do that and go back to work, which is quite helpful, you know. It does take some of the pressure off me, especially in my work where sometimes I am compelled to work late.

[Personal Assistant]

It is essential to point out that quite a number of the participants pointed out that they could make do with a little more spousal support in terms of their spouses showing understanding of the nature of their work and the attendant pressures; and also helping out in childcare and other household activities.

On the essential role that house helps play in helping Ghanaian women deal with WFI, one participant asserted:

... I have a house help who is very efficient. So when I am not at home there is no apprehension that things are not going to go the way I want them. I have been with her for about six years and she's learnt our ways and she fits in. So I am lucky there, because I don't know how I could have coped, you know. I tell her ... "do this for me; pick up Paakow (my son) for me." And she is able to do it. It really gives me the peace of mind when I am at work because I know things are alright at home. [Academic]

House helps included paid assistants, unpaid younger/older relatives, nieces and nephews, as well as aunties and mothers

of participants, living with them as long term visitors or dependants.

4.8.5 Work-family enhancement (WFE)

A substantial majority of the participants saw the values, skills and other competences, in addition to the remuneration they gained from work as enhancing their family lives in one way or the other. The summary table below shows how participants cited WFE as a theme:

Table 4.8: Women citing WFE as a theme

Theme	Explanation	No.	% citing theme
Work-family enhancement	The transfer of values skills, behaviours and monetary rewards from work to improve family life of participants	36/43	84%

Commenting on this a woman said:

Apart from the money, of course, I think I'm conscious of my diction nowadays. Because my work with the Deputy Minister means I meet a lot of people who are of higher rank than I am...and I am mindful that I am junior to them. So when I am speaking, I am mindful of what I say and how I say it... and I think this has transferred to the home and when I am speaking to my husband and kid even, I negotiate with them. [Principal Economist]

Another woman said:

In terms of skills I believe I've acquired the skill for managing diversity. With my children I have realised that all of them are different and I try to treat them differently. And that skill was from

the office. If it is values, I think of customer care, you deal with customers so you know how to talk to your husband and children.
[Operations Manager]

Apart from remuneration, which was skewed in favour of those working in the banking subsector, participants acknowledged the role of values, skills and behaviours as improving their family lives.

4.8.6 Coping as a strategy in dealing with WRS and WFI

Apart from a few women who reported the use of exercises like walking and swimming as a means of dealing with work stress and WFI, most of the participants preferred sleeping as a method of dealing with the stress they go through during the day. The Table 4.9 gives a summary of how women cited coping as a method in dealing with stress.

Table 4.9: Women citing coping as a method

Theme	Explanation	No. coping	% citing coping
Coping	Methods normally used by participants to deal with WRS as well as exhaustion and fatigue after work	15/43	35%

Asked to comment on coping, one participant said:

I sometimes get home so tired and fatigued to the extent that I can't even eat. There are times I take my shower, other times I just slump on the bed with my dress and just sleep, you know. For me, I really need my sleep when I am very tired otherwise the next day my whole day is disturbed. So I hardly have enough time with them (husband and children) you know. But having quality sleep has helped. Else I don't know what would have happened. [Bank Manager]

Clearly sleeping or resting was used quite often by women to deal with stress, since it was to them the quickest way to recoup lost energies.

4.8.7 Legislating WFI

All the participants agreed to the fact that there was the need to get an addition to the labour laws of Ghana that would take care of work stress and any related ill-health that may result from it, as well as tackling the impact of work-family conflict on women's lives. Participants were united on the fact that this will give them the needed 'safety nets' to enable them not only deal with pressures at work while still maintaining their health and working life, but more importantly ensure that their family lives do not suffer as a result of being in their various positions.

Interestingly they also pointed out that such a law should be for both sexes, so that the men will not feel left out. However, they cautioned that women should be educated so that they do not abuse the law by taken undue advantage. A summary of how participants cited legislating WFI is shown in the table below:

Table 4.10: Women citing legislating WFI as a theme

Theme	Explanation	No.	% citing theme
Legislating WFI	Participants views and perceptions on how to legislate WFI including methods in advocacy	33/43	77%

One woman said:

I believe such a law will be very beneficial to us women. And I think the law should really favour women during the period of procreation. The period of procreation is quite essential because some women have to truncate their careers owing to their inability to balance their work and family lives. So she has to sacrifice the family life, and the children grow up knowing her as 'one of the people' in the house and not as their mother! And as a woman that can be really painful. So I think that law will be important.
[Director, Banking]

Another woman who expressed a cautious approach on the legislation of WFI said:

Well I think it may help. But how often does the law work? There may be the law but if you go strictly according to what the law says, your working relationship with your bosses and other colleagues may not be the best. Because you can decide to say that the law says I should work from this to this time and so five o'clock even if you are needed in the office you have to pick your bag and go...The men will talk, some bosses will not be too happy. Even some of our women will say 'if the water is too hot for you don't go into it'; or what is that saying, look for a better job. However I think it is a good thing...and if we are educated on it you know; we need education. Let everyone know what the law stands for. But I think we should take it one step at a time. [Executive Assistant]

Here even though women in the sample thought legislating WFI was a good idea, they were apprehensive that men especially will see it as an excuse for them not being able to deal with pressures of work.

4.8.8 Intentions to quit

Even though this was not a major theme, a number of women indicated that they had considered quitting their jobs for a less pressured job to save the cohesion of their families as well as maintaining a good health. A summary of how participants expressed their views on this is shown in Table 4.11

Table 4.11: Women citing intentions to quit as minor theme

Theme	Explanation	No.	% citing theme
Intentions to quit	Participants' views about thoughts they have had had about leaving their jobs as a result of work pressures	24/43	56%

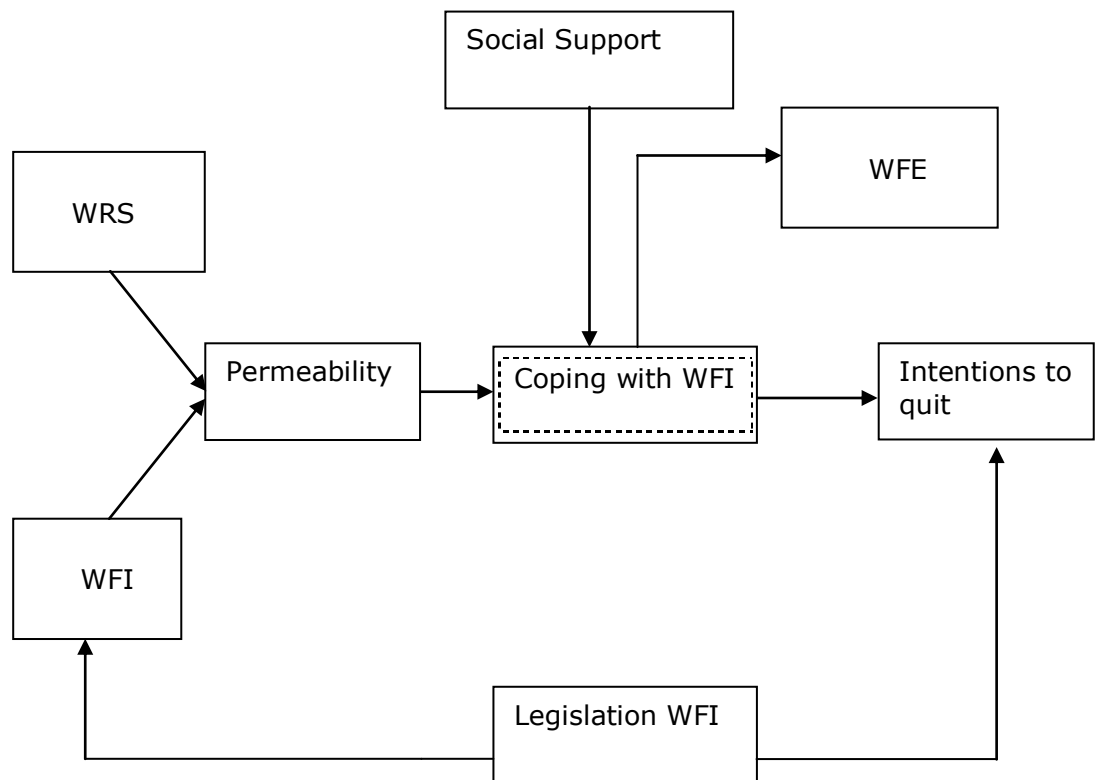
One woman asserted:

There have been instances, I have been fighting myself whether to leave the job and look after the children. Because I think it is not worth it, if these children academically they are not doing well (owing to lack of parental supervision); there is no balance in the house, and everything is going helter skelter...then what happens to me at the office? I can't even concentrate. And is it worth it; earning all this and having all these backlogs, this liability.
[Human Resource Manager]

Most participants claimed that they did not consider quitting their jobs in spite of the obvious pressures because it had taken them time and effort to reach such positions. And they did not want to feed into the notion in Ghanaian work circles that women cannot take work pressures.

Finally, the qualitative study also yielded a working model which was subsequently incorporated into the development of the survey questionnaire for Study 3. The model shows the interconnections between the main themes of the Study 1 as well as coping which did not come out strongly enough to be considered as a theme. This was because the questions in the interview schedule did not focus on coping since Study 1 focused on the incidence and impact of WRS and WFI among professional women, as well as social support, WFE and legislating WFI. The model envisages that women's experience of work-related stress and work-family interference will make the boundaries between work and home permeable. The level of permeability will in turn impinge on women's coping abilities; which may influence their intentions to quit their jobs. However such intentions can be buffered by social support like spousal assistance, as well as well as work-family enhancement in the form of remuneration and other work benefits. Finally the model envisages that legislation of WFI will reduce women's experience of WFI and their intentions to quit. The working model that emerged from the study is depicted in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3: Working model of Study 1



Key: WRS=work-related stress; WFI= work-family interference; WFE= work-family enhancement.

4.9 Discussion of findings

This section presents answers to the research questions posed at the beginning of the chapter (see section 4.1), as well as the major findings of this qualitative study.

4.9.1 Summary of results of research questions

The first research question sought to find out Ghanaian professional women's understanding of work-related stress. The finding indicated that women in this sample have a very good understanding of what is meant by work-related stress. On the question of the prevalence of self-reported stress, women in the sample reported experiencing high levels of WRS as a result of tight schedules and working long hours, among others.

The next question sought to find whether WRS received the needed attention the Ghanaian work place. Women in the sample were of the opinion that the attention given to WRS was minimal and in some cases non-existent. Furthermore on the question of WFI women in this sample saw it as a major concern as they endeavoured to achieve a balance between work and family roles. They also reported that WFI impinged negatively on the well-being and family satisfaction. On job satisfaction, women in the sample reported that although WRS and WFI affected them negatively, they still found their jobs manageable and were fairly satisfied with their jobs. Finally women in the sample reported that social support both at work in the form of colleague and supervisor support and at

home (spousal support) attenuated the effects of WRS and WFI.

4.9.2 Summary of main findings

The study further shows that work-family interference is important across different cultures. It is not just a Western problem. Nonetheless women in this cohort reported enjoying their work in spite of the apparent pressures they worked under. This may have been due to the good fringe benefits they derived from work; or it may be that there was something inherent in their personalities (Wayne, Musisca and Fleeson, 2004) that allowed them to put these pressures on the back burner while at work. These should be issues for further study.

The study also showed that professional women, especially the married ones, lacked the appropriate levels of home social support to deal with work-family conflict (Aryee, et al., 1999; Lo, Ng, and Stone 2003). Indeed apart from commuting daily to and from work through the atrocious traffic to drop kids at school, participants reported they had to sometimes do the groceries on their way home; and on getting home were expected to cook (if there was no house help) and also assist

the children with their homework, which according to them left them extremely exhausted. This situation may be due to the almost total patriarchal nature of the Ghanaian society where men are rarely expected to help in household chores (Eyango, V., 2001).

The study further illustrates that work-family enhancement is a vital resource that helps professionals in higher status occupations like those considered in the study improve theirs and their family's standards of living, as well as improving their competences, with particular reference to managing people both at work and home. Indeed, even though most participants reported that they experienced work-related stress and work-family interference, it was apparent that good remuneration and other benefits allowed them to pay for things such as good education for their children, holidays and fitness clubs. This ameliorated much of the work-related stress or work-family conflict they experienced.

The need to legislate for work-family interference, even though a new prospect for the world of work in Africa in general (Dancaster, 2006), and Ghana in particular, has been brought to the forefront of governmental and organisational policies (Murray, 2004; Lewis, 2006) as more women attain

higher status within the work environment (den Dulk, Peper and van Doorne-Huiskes, 2005, p. 13). In this regard, participants were of the opinion that legislating for WFI in Ghana would really help them to have the peace of mind and improve their productivity. The implication of this is that by implementing worker friendly policies that allow professional women to deal with work-family conflict effectively, employers will not only be reducing absenteeism and staff turnover, but they will eventually be saving money as well (Vermeulen 2006, p.5).

Some caution is required in interpreting these results. It could be that participants who had problems with spouses or partners, supervisors or colleagues, wanted to make strong statements, possibly exaggerated their experience of work-related stress and work-family Interference. It could also be that the timing of the interviews itself, which took place during working hours, could have added to participants' experiences that they reported. It was not possible to explore these issues in this study.

Reponses of both single and married participants were aggregated. Even though Awaebe et al (2008) reported no

significant difference between the levels of work family conflict experienced by single and married women, responses concerning WFI in this study may have been skewed towards married professional women as they were in the majority (see Table 4:2). Another limitation of this study is that age, length of marriage and work experience are known to moderate the experiences of WFI and work-related stress (Barnett et al., 1992; Grzywacz, 2000; Colton, Hanson and Hammer, 2006; Alliger and Williams, 1994). These variables may have influenced participants' experiences of, for example work-related stress and work-family interference, and hence their responses. Again it was not possible to explore these issues in the present study.

What are the policy implications of these findings? First, in Ghana there is a serious lack of policy-making and attention given to work-related stress and WFI and employees' health and productivity. Consequently, it is argued that this cohort of employees needs special attention to enable them deal effectively with work-related stress and WFI, especially since this cohort of workers may be in the forefront of economic development as Ghana tries to reach middle income status by 2020. Moreover, the Government of Ghana and various stakeholders would have to examine the labour laws and

incorporate aspects on how employers can help employees cope with work-related stress and WFI. This will assist workers achieve a better balance between their work and family responsibilities and enable employers to attract and retain suitable staff to meet the needs of the enterprise (European Foundation for Living and Working Conditions, 2002).

Second, employers must be made aware of the benefits of putting in place worker friendly policies like flexi-hours, child care facilities at site, as well as leisure benefits to enable employees deal with work-related stress and work-family interference. Recent evidence indicates that organisations that work with their employees to identify and implement worker friendly policies find that providing a workplace that fosters a good balance between employees' work and family roles is not without clear business benefits. Such benefits include increased productivity, cost saving and low employee turnover (Vermeulen, 2006).

Third, social support especially at the work place must be encouraged among this cohort of workers as participants reported that they felt de-motivated at times, because they did not receive appropriate verbal praise even when they

worked hard. Recent evidence indicates that organisational support would increase employees' felt obligations to help the organisation reach its objectives, their affective commitment to the organisation, and their expectation that improved performance will be rewarded. Behavioural outcomes of perceived organisational support include increases in in-role performance and decrease in withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover (Aselage et al., 2004). This will help organisations maintain critical staff and probably increase margins with the expected increase in productivity.

A study testing the structural model (Table 4.3) alone or in combination with others could be conducted in the future. Issues such as the effect of work experience, job autonomy and attitude on work-related stress; and how marital experience, age, children and dependants living at home affect employees' experience of work-family conflict should be explored, together with how coping methods affect Ghanaian professional women's experience of WFI. In future research a study of the partners of women professionals should be explicitly investigated. A study of how Ghanaian male professionals experience work-related stress and work-family interference could also be conducted.

4.10 Conclusion

The study deepens our understanding that the incidence and experience of work family interference depends as much on the structure of work as on the structure of the family.

Women in this study emphasised that if the patriarchal nature of the Ghanaian society were looked into and men assisted in family chores, their experience of WFI would greatly reduce.

Again, the findings suggest that despite attempts by some organisations in Ghana to implement worker-friendly policies, work-related stress is still very common. Women in the present study experienced work-related stress, which sometimes affected their well-being. Women struggled with ensuring that their rights, needs and concerns as wives, mothers and parents were met; along with maintaining their commitment, responsibilities and status within the organisation.

The results highlight the need for organisations to focus on the family lives of professional women and how stress, resulting from the work and family domains, can affect their productivity and well-being. In practical terms, this may involve an explicit discussion regarding mutual expectations between employees and employers within a psychological

framework that recognises and addresses not only the common concerns of professional women within the work environment, but also the unique needs and concerns of each particular woman as she tries to maintain a balance between her work and family roles.

To realise the full benefits of incorporating WFI into Ghanaian labour laws, it is argued that the men folk, who at the moment are the key decision makers, must be brought on board.

Examining how they are also affected by WFI thoroughly, will go a long way to ensure that they do not feel left out in the implementation of the WFI agenda in the Ghanaian working environment.

4.11 Chapter summary

The present chapter examined the qualitative strategy used in this thesis. First, the method used was discussed in detail, followed by discussion of the interview schedule, data collection procedure and the ethical issues underlining the study. Additionally, the analytical strategy used in processing data, including transcription and the coding regime were

examined. This was followed by a discussion of the strategies used in achieving reliability and the validity of the study. Finally, the findings are discussed and conclusions drawn. The next chapter presents another empirical study exploring further, findings from Study 1.

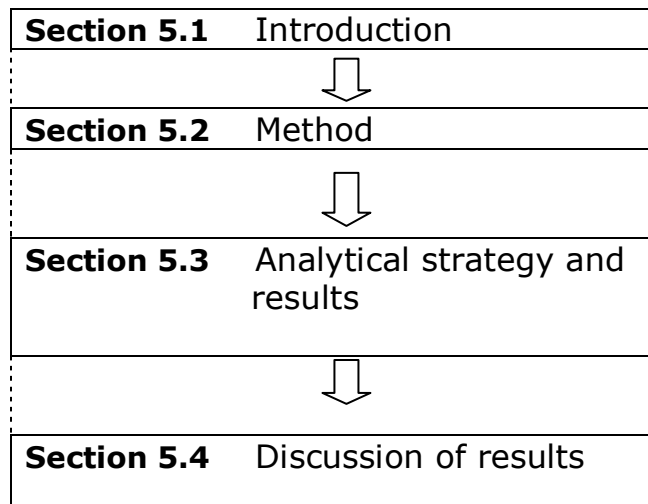
Chapter 5

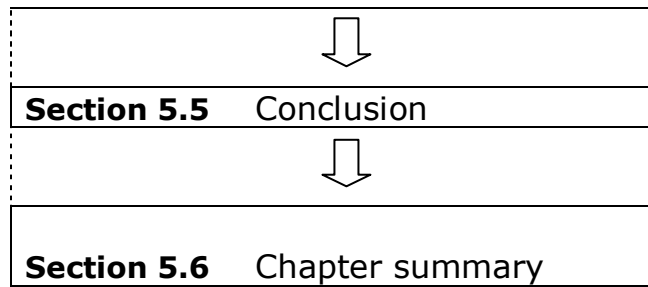
Ghanaian Men's Perception of Women's Experience of WRS and WFI

5.0 Overview

This chapter presents a detailed account of the perceptions of a sample of Ghanaian men whose spouses were interviewed during Study 1. Specifically, it describes how responses from open ended questionnaires are analysed. Again item responses, as well as themes emerging from open-ended questions are discussed, together with the working model that subsequently emerged from these discussions. Finally, the main findings and conclusions of the current study are discussed. The structure of the chapter is displayed in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Chapter 5 structure





5.1 Introduction

The key driver for this study was to investigate the perceptions of male spouses of the sample of Ghanaian women studied in Study 1. Specifically the study sought to examine how men saw the impact of their spouses work on the family. Additionally the study sought to investigate how men saw any social support they offered women helped these women deal with work-related stress and work-family interference (Voydanoff, 2004; Erdwins et al., 2001; Carlson and Perrewe, 1999).

5.2 Method

In order to triangulate the results of Study One, 20 questionnaires (Appendix II) were distributed to professional women's spouses using convenience sampling. The convenience sampling method was used because some women pointed out that they were not sure their spouses would

respond to the questionnaires and therefore declined. Of the 30 women who had their spouses in town at the time of the study, 10 declined, while 20 accepted to give their spouses the questionnaires. However only 10 (50%) returned completed questionnaires. The questionnaires were analysed using a combination of simple percentages and thematic analysis. The method, results of the analysis, as well as discussions are presented in the following pages.

In the quantitative section, men responded to questions pertaining to their spouses' working long hours, coming home late or leaving early for work. They further responded to questions relating to their contribution in the home, social support, how work affected the spouses' home lives and whether household duties should be the sole preserve of women.

5.3 Analytical strategy and results

Responses to quantitative items were coded manually into categories according to the numbering, using simple percentages. In the open-ended section, open and axial coding as used in the qualitative study were again utilised to

arrive at the themes. This was necessary since men's responses to questions varied to some extent.

5.3.1 Results of quantitative items

Results of the quantitative section of questionnaires for men showed that of the men generally agreed that their spouses spent long hours at work. However this perception was not total (see Table 5:1 for all figures used in this section). Again, most men in the sample agreed that their spouses left home quite early for work. Most men also reported their spouses came home late from work. Put together, these three situations (i.e. long hours, going to work early and closing work late) in the opinion of the men, were pervasive (Hakim, 2006) in relation to the family, and negatively impacted vital family interactions.

The majority of men also reported long hours at work as affecting their spouses more in the physical sense than emotionally. And they agreed that women's general well being was at risk as a result of working long hours (Worral and Cooper, 2001). Additionally, most of the men sampled believed that combining work and home roles overwhelmed their spouses.

The results also showed that men generally did help with catering for children at home and did not believe that household chores should be the sole preserve of women. However, men's overall contribution to household duties was not very appreciable as less than a third of men sampled reported their contribution as being very helpful (see Table 5.1).

Finally, men in this cohort did not see family interaction as being unduly affected as result of their spouses' work. Whereas half reported it as problem, the other half disagreed, or were not sure. Emotional support was also used by men to assist their spouses cope with fatigue from work. A detailed summary of men's responses to quantitative items in the questionnaire is shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Ghanaian men’s perception of the impact of work on their spouses’ home lives

	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not applicable
Long hours at work	4 (40%)	5 (50%)	-	1 (10%)	-	-
Leaving home early	3 (30%)	5 (50%)	-	2 (20%)	-	-
Closing late from work	2 (20%)	5 (50%)	1 (10%)	1 (10%)	1 (10%)	-
Helping with kids before school	2 (20%)	3 (30%)	1 (10%)	1 (10%)	-	3 (30%)
House chores only for women	-	-	-	7 (70%)	3 (30%)	-
Long hrs physically affecting women	3 (30%)	4 (40%)	3 (30%)	-	-	-
Long hrs emotionally affecting women	2 (20%)	2 (20%)	4 (40%)	2 (20%)	-	-
No fruitful interaction after work	1 (10%)	4 (40%)	1 (10%)	4 (40%)	-	-
Encouraging spouse emotionally	4 (40%)	5 (50%)	1 (10%)	-	-	-
Combining work and family overwhelms women	2 (20%)	4 (40%)	3 (30%)	1 (10%)	-	-
Women must spend less hrs at work & more at home	-	1 (10%)	8 (80%)	1 (10%)	-	-
**Men’s % contribution to household duties	0 – 20% Not very helpful	21 – 40% A bit helpful	41 – 60% Averagely helpful	61 – 80% Very helpful	81 – 100% Extremely helpful	
	2 (20%)	2 (20%)	3 (30%)	3 (30%)	-	

5.3.2 Results of Analysis of open-ended items

A number of clear themes emerged from the open ended items. For example men in the sample alluded to the use of negotiations to help they and their spouse deal with work-family interference. Men also pointed out how their spouses' work benefitted the family. Additionally, these men alluded to problems associated with their spouses work in relation to the family.

5.3.2.1 Benefits of Ghanaian professional women's work to the family

When asked about the benefits of women's work to the family men's responses ranged from the obvious addition to the household income, helping the woman build a career, to bringing self-esteem to women. Additional responses were that work has allowed women to be more financially independent, and also become good team players; bringing improvement in the decision making process at home and also serving as role models to the children at home. For example, on work allowing women to have financial freedom whilst adding to family income, one man wrote:

She is able to take care of her needs without much dependence on me financially. She fills in with little top ups whilst I take care of the major expenditures of the home.

So here, even though this respondent is happy his spouse is gaining financial freedom, he still wants the status quo maintained where he seems to still want a sense of control.

Another man commenting on how the family benefitted from women's work from values such as courtesy, leadership and decision-making skills wrote:

She is courteous, helps in making good decisions for the growth of the family. She contributes to the household finances and also helps give direction and leadership to where the family is heading.

By courtesy, the respondent is referring to language skills picked up at work that have been transferred home, which is infused into parenting skills as well as marital discussions by his spouse.

On work helping women to be role models at home, as well as enhancing self esteem, one man wrote:

Her work has allowed her to contribute to family finances and also impart some lessons to our two daughters. Work helps her self-esteem as she is not only a house wife. It has also helped her teach the children that women are equally capable and that they could do anything if they work hard and are smart.

From the responses it is quite obvious that Ghanaian men did put a premium on the benefits that accrued to the family from the woman's work.

5.3.2.2 Problems associated with women's work in relation to the family

Men's responses to what they saw as the main problems with their spouses' work in relation to the family ranged from lack of quality spousal and parental interaction to dangers to women's well being as well as family cohesion. Children being left alone for long periods at home as well as the dangers of leaving house chores in the hands of house helps were other issues highlighted by men.

On the problem of lack of interaction and the perils of leaving house helps in charge of the house, one man wrote:

She spends much time and energy at work, relative to the family, exposing the family to the dangers of engaging house helps. Her work limits the quality time needed for the family, bringing attendant risks.

Another man commenting on how women's work leads to limited parental supervision, as well as how it impacted the well-being of women claimed:

Her staying late affects the dynamics of the home and leaves the children on their own for too long. She also needs time to rest, she comes home tired and that affects her very much.

Further, on the lack of family interaction one man pointed out:

She is usually not granted her annual leave and this affects the amount of quality time she would have wished to spend with the family.

It is pertinent to point out however that one respondent did not see women's work as creating a problem for the family.

He wrote:

Currently there is none. We are managing very well.

Overall then, most men saw women's work as creating strain in family, not only affecting women's parenting and marital duties, but was also affecting women's well being as well. This strain, according to men, came in the form of limited time for parenting and vital marital communication

5.3.2.3 Men's perception on how negotiation with spouses helps in dealing with family strain

Men in the sample used negotiations to assist them and their spouses manage disruptions to family life that resulted from women's work. To men, such negotiations were win-win discussions with the key objective being the smooth running of the home. Consequently, their responses included the fact that they sometimes came home early to make up for their spouses' long absence from home due to work. They also reported helping in assigning roles to both partners to cut down time and avoid over lapping roles. To men, such

negotiations then released more time for family interaction. Commenting on using negotiation to assign roles to reduce overlapping roles and cut down on time, one man wrote:

Negotiation helps identify activities and assign roles for each one of us. This helps to avoid waste of time through repetition of roles and dissipation of scarce resources.

Thus, to men assigning roles ensured that vital time was freed up for meaningful family interaction, which otherwise may not have been possible without negotiations.

Responding to how negotiations allowed men to come home early one man wrote:

To be honest, I myself get home very late and would have wished that my spouse returned home a bit early to interact with our child, while at the same time relieving herself of the tedious work schedule. I also have to manage to return home earlier so that together we can have more time to interact.

To men, then, negotiations not only relieved women of stress and fatigue after work but it also allowed men to be part of the process that brought harmony to the home.

5.3.2.4 Men's perception on the conflict between limited interaction with women and the benefits of women's work to the family

Overall, whereas most men sampled admitted they wished their spouses spent more time at home and less at work, in

lieu of the benefits, minority thought otherwise. However, most men in this sample were very aware and appreciative of the benefits their spouses' work brought to the family. Most men nonetheless regretted the opportunity cost which denied them those valuable times for interaction with their spouses as wives, mothers and parents, which to them, sometimes endangered family cohesion. For example one man wrote:

The benefits though important and needed do not compensate for lost time for quality family interaction; for example time with my spouse and my spouse's time with our children.

Another man wrote:

The stress of my spouse's work environment is transferred home and does not allow for affable communication till she winds down completely.

Another man venting his frustration on his spouse's absence from home wrote:

There are times I need my spouse's opinion on an issue but her not being there frustrates me but then my spouse is just a phone call away, yet I still need a personal touch.

Thus, most men felt that in spite of the benefits of their spouses' work, quality home interaction cannot just be compromised. Conversely, men who felt that the benefits accruing from their spouses' work should not be compromised saw themselves as helping out to find a better solution instead

of just compromising the benefits of their spouse's work. One man wrote:

Despite the tight schedule we believe we can make time for each other when there is the need. So I don't think the benefit derived from her work can be compromised.

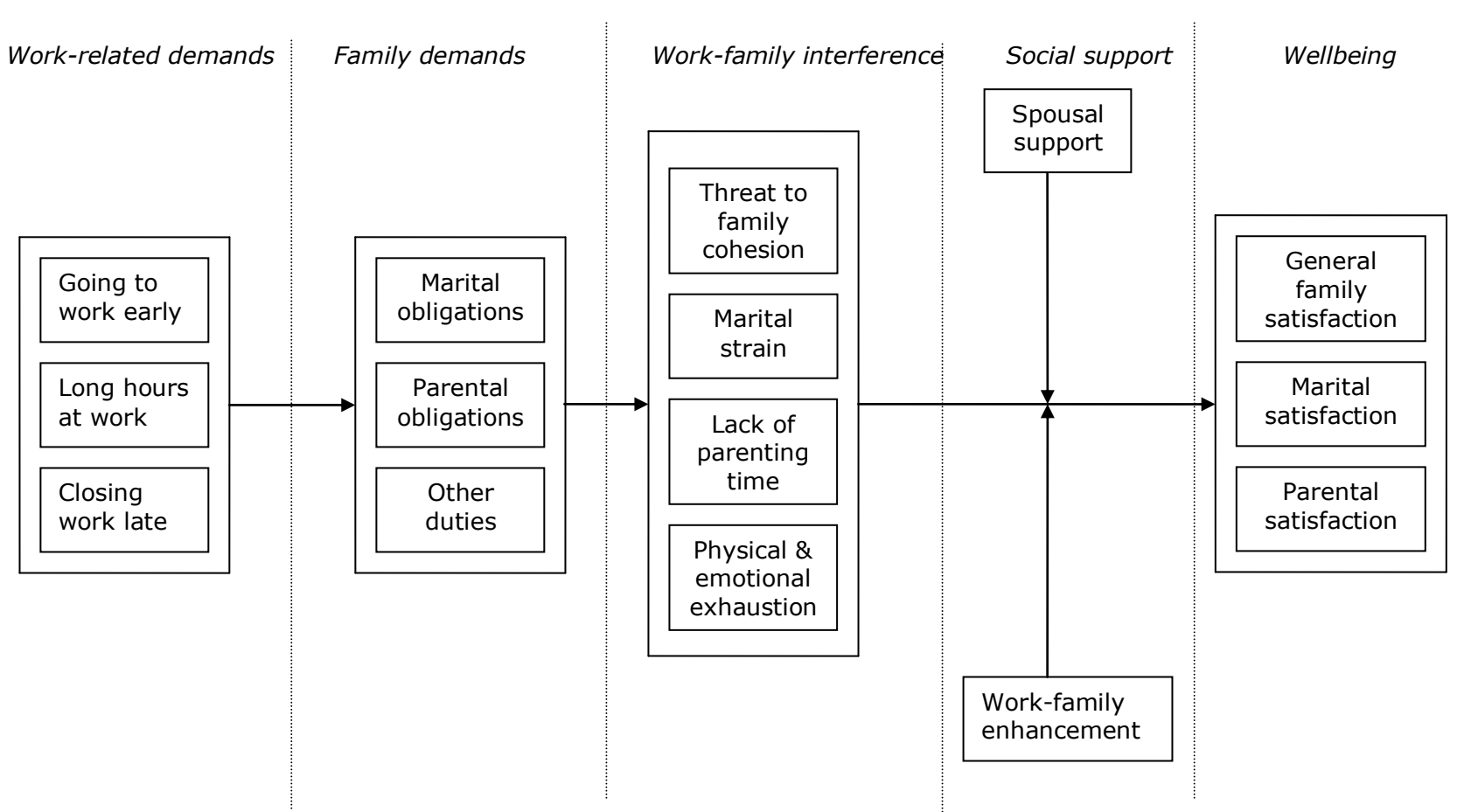
In conclusion, though men in this cohort to a large extent appreciated the benefits of their spouses work to the family, they were also apprehensive of sacrificing family harmony for such benefits. A few were also willing to sacrifice time and energy to ensure a good balance between keeping these benefits, while ensuring the needed family harmony.

Finally, the results suggested a working model which was also subsequently incorporated into the development of the survey questionnaire for Study 3. The model shows the possible interconnections between the main themes emerging from men's perceptions of women's experience and report of WRS and WFI. The model envisages that work related demands will directly affect family demands made on women. Further, the model suggests that these family demands may lead to women experiencing work-family interference. However, both spousal support and work family enhancement (especially in the form of financial contribution to the family income) are envisaged to have positive effects on women's well being,

while ameliorating the impact of work-family interference.

The model is shown in **Figure 5.2**.

Figure 5.2: Model of Ghanaian men’s perception of their spouses’ experience WRS and WFI on their well being



5.4 Discussion of results

On the open ended questions men expressed different and interesting opinions of their perception of how work impacted family life. In general, men viewed women's work as very beneficial to the family in many ways, even though they were quite apprehensive about the strain the family suffers owing to women's work. They however saw negotiating as one vital tool in helping deal with any family imbalances as a result of women's work. Finally, even though most men appreciated the benefits of women's work, at the same time they wished women were able to spend more time at home and thus take 'charge' of the home instead of sometimes leaving them at the perils of house helps

The findings from Study 2 show that Ghanaian men in this sample are generally appreciative of their spouses' work and attendant benefits such as financial assistance and helping with children's upbringing with some values acquired from work. However, most men felt that their spouses spent long hours at work and also came home late. This, to them, deprived the family of the needed quality spousal as well as parental interaction. As all the men in the sample were also working mostly full time, they saw it as part of their duty to

assist at home by, for example, getting the children ready for school in the morning. More importantly, men in this cohort totally disagreed with the fact that house chores should be the sole preserve of women.

This finding seems to confirm findings from Study 1, where among others, women reported an appreciable level of social support from their spouses (see Section 4.8.4).

It is obvious here that spousal support for Ghanaian professional women went a long way to help them deal with work-family interference.

So, in terms of men's contribution to household chores, a minority of men contributed less to household duties. The majority however reported contributing effectively to household chores (see Table 5.1). It is consequently suggested that men in this sample were generally helpful when it came to the chores at home.

Again, men were committed to offering emotional support which came in the form of chatting to their spouses about their day's work when they came home exhausted. This, to them, not only allowed their spouses to use these times as times of catharsis, but it also helped the women to recover emotionally

before the next day, thus reducing their spouses' experience of work-family interference (Luk and Schaffer, 2005; Fu and Schaffer, 2001; Burke, 1988). This is because during these interactions the men expressed not only support but also showed understanding of the impact of work on their spouse's emotional well being; more so when work-related stress is known to affect dual earner couples like those in this study (Roberts and Levenson, 2001). Consequently, men did not insist that their spouse performed their marital duties during these times. This, according to the men, released vital time for the women to rest and recoup lost energy.

Another form of help given by men to their spouses in this sample was the idea of coming home early to take charge of the children while the women were still at work (Bianchi, 2000). According to men, this went a long way to ensure that the younger children in the family had good after-school supervision. Even though there may have been house helps at home, most men in this cohort were of the opinion that having either parent at home after school was more 'comforting'. Indeed, most men were quite apprehensive of having especially female non relatives as house helps. To them this was a risk, as such house helps could be a source of temptation for the 'morally weak' men. And any extra marital

affair, if it were to develop as a result of the house help taking over the role of the woman in the house, could seriously affect family cohesion.

In spite of men's desire to help their spouses maintain a good balance between work and family domain and also reduce marital distress (Bodenmann and Shantinath, 2004; Erdwins et al., 2001), they were apprehensive of the negative effect of their spouse's work on the family. Specifically, men complained about the long hours their spouses spent at work. Most men reported that their spouses spent long hours at work, left home early for work and came home late from work (see Table 5.1). These long hours, according to men affected the family (Major et al., 2002) in a number of ways. First was family strain which came in the form of lack of the needed marital and parental interaction. Since men in this sample were also full time workers, the long hours spent at work by women meant that there was little or no time left after work for fruitful marital interaction.

Additionally, parental supervision with things like school assignments at home was also affected as both parents might still be at work when the children come home. Indeed, some women in Study 1 had intimated that they sometimes helped

their children with these assignments on the way to school in the car. Men in Study 2 alluded to the inconvenience this arrangement brought to both parents and children.

Second was the impact of long hours at work on the well being of their spouses. Majority of men agreed that long hours at work affected their spouse's physical well being. Only a minority viewed long hours as affecting their spouses emotionally. Again more than half of men reported that they felt that combining work and family roles overwhelmed their spouses. The concomitant effect of all these was that women complained of headaches, backaches, and constant palpitations which also made them quite irritable at home. This finding is akin to one by Grant-Vallone and Donaldson, 2001. Women, according to men in this cohort also complained of psychological and emotional exhaustion. These conditions resulting both from the long hours women spent at work, as well as the volume of tasks they undertook, made it extremely difficult for women to optimally function at home after work (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). And the effect of this according to men was that family cohesion was constantly under pressure as women endeavoured to find a proper balance between work and family domains.

These apprehensions notwithstanding, most men in the sample disagreed that their spouses should spend less time at work. The reason for this is two-fold. First, men were prepared to negotiate with spouses on how best to 'share' home activities so as to release time for women to recuperate after the day's work (Biernat and Wortman, 1991). Men's sharing home tasks with their spouses meant that the women not only had time to rest after work, but more importantly they were able to perform their marital as well as parental duties. This meant that women came home assured that they were not going to be overly burdened with undertaking more tasks at home that was likely to exacerbate their physical and emotional exhaustion. This is because such a situation was likely to have a negative effect on their marital behaviour (Schulz et al., 2004).

Second was the fact that men in this sample were really appreciative of their spouses' financial contribution (work-family enhancement) to the family income (Deutsch et al., 2003). Consequently, they were not amenable to seeing their spouses reduce their working hours for lesser paid jobs. This is because even though this was likely to release a lot of time for women to undertake their marital and parental duties, the loss of vital income for the family was something men did not

see as a 'good bargain'. Very few men in this sample wanted their spouse(s) to spend less time at work (see Table 5.1). And even though majority of men sampled were neutral on the question of their spouses spending less time at work and more time at home, it was obvious from Study 1 that spouses of women did want them to work and bring in additional income (see Section 4.8.5). This was in spite of the obvious family strain that resulted from the women trying to strike a proper balance between work and family.

So it becomes apparent that even though men in this sample disliked the long hours their spouses spent at work, they could not afford a reduction or more ominously, a loss in their spouses' financial contribution to the family.

Interpreting these results needs some caution. First only 50% (10) of the questionnaires were used in the analysis (c.f. Section 5.1). Hence the views of this number may not be an appropriate representation of Ghanaian professional men with professional spouses. Again, since no direct contacts were made with the men in this study, it was not possible to crosscheck their views and responses from the completed questionnaires.

What policy implications can be gleaned from these results?

First, in Ghana there is a seeming lack of appreciation from men (husbands/partners) about the effect of career on the family life and well being of professional women. This can be attributed to the patriarchal nature of Ghanaian society (Eyango, 2001). It is therefore suggested that Ghanaian family and career counsellors could advise would-be husbands and partners of professional women to take into account that they may have to help out with home responsibilities. This will not only ensure that their spouses stay fit and contribute their quota (financially) to the family, but also be able to perform the needed marital and parental obligations without sacrificing their careers.

Second, as the top echelon of the Ghanaian labour front is male dominated like most countries in Africa (Ogenyi & Ogenyi, 2004), it is important for male heads of establishments to be made aware of the need to put in place work policies that will enable women to function productively at work, without having to sacrifice their family lives. Such policies may include flexi hours for women with babies and young children, as well as child friendly facilities at or near the workplace for women who might have to use them. Indeed

Databankgroup, Ghana (a financial organisation) and Action Aid, Ghana (a non governmental organisation), who are both in the private sector have child care facilities on site for their employees. And this according to some of the women employees has allowed them to be relaxed at work. It is therefore argued that an expansion of such a policy across both the public and private sectors in Ghana, will go a long way to enable Ghanaian professional women give of their best at work (Vermeulen, 2006) since they know that issues that impinge upon their family lives are taken care of.

Again the issue of paternity leave which seems to be non existent especially in the public sector in Ghana should be given a second look by the Government of Ghana and various stakeholders. Indeed some international non-governmental organisations (NGO's), such as Action Aid, Ghana, who have gender issues as one of their core values, increasingly have paternity leave embedded in their HR policies. The underlying assumption is that it will help men take on some of the parental duties at home for extended periods, ensuring that they form closer relationships with their children (Stegelin & Frankel, 1997). Additionally, this will take some of the child care duties off the shoulders of professional women with little children, as men also put in their shift in child care. Again,

paternity leave would allow professional women on maternity leave for example to recover quickly, both emotionally and psychologically; especially if the men indeed help out with home duties allowing the women to take the needed rest. The concomitant effect of all this is increased family satisfaction for both men and women. Additionally a healthy workforce will be obtained as both men and women, in this regard take deserved rest from the rigours of work and recoup. And as they become satisfied with their work, their productivity can improve, benefitting their organisation in the long run.

5.5 Conclusion

Study 2 deepens our understanding that appropriate spousal support goes a long way to help professional women deal with striking a good balance between work and family. Men in this study pointed out that even though they felt their spouses spent long hours at work and came home late and exhausted; they were prepared to do their bit to help their spouses with home chores. This not only allowed men to also take part in parenting duties, but also ensured that women had enough time to rest after work. And this enabled women to perform other duties such as marital obligations with less pressure.

The results also suggest that the financial contribution of Ghanaian professional women in dual earner families is crucial. Consequently men in the present study were willing to help out at home, to ensure there was no reduction or loss of this vital source of family income. To them, that would happen if women were to take less stressful jobs with fewer hours in order to fulfil family responsibilities. This highlights the need for social psychologists as well as family counsellors to drum home the point of men helping out at home owing to the myriad of benefits both for the men themselves, their spouses and the family in general.

Finally, in the Ghanaian society where patriarchal tendencies are rife, it is suggested that the Social Studies curriculum in both the primary and secondary level should involve aspects of the man's role in things like child care, child rearing and parenting in general. Additionally, at an early age the Ghanaian boy should be helped to appreciate the fact that the stereotypical perception of women's roles as being solely in the home does not help in the growth and development of the society. This is because women as well as men can contribute in many ways to the development of family.

5.6 Chapter summary

This chapter introduced the perceptions of Ghanaian men on their spouses' experience of work-related stress and work-family interference and how these impinged on women's well being. The method for data collection, analysis and findings of the study were then described. Further, the working model of the Study were presented and explained, together with discussion and implications of the Study.

The next chapter presents an amalgamation of the results of Studies 1 and 2 in an empirical study using the questionnaire method as the mode of enquiry.

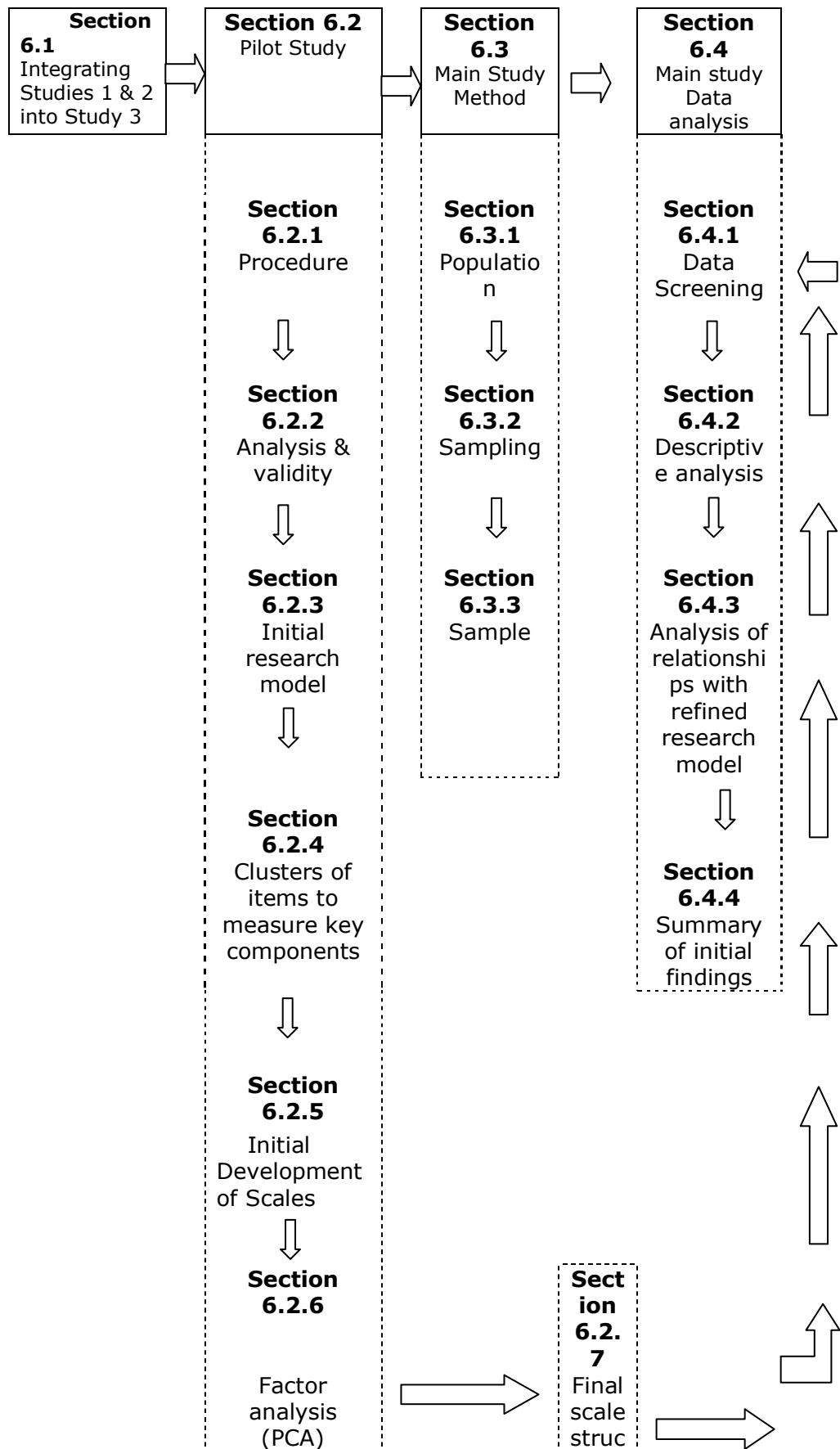
Chapter 6

Quantitative Study (Study 3)

6.0 Overview

This chapter brings together the results of Study 1 (Chapter 4) and (Study 2) Chapter 5. Study 1 dealt with how the incidence of WRS and WFI affected the well-being, family satisfaction and job satisfaction of Ghanaian professional women. Study 2 on the other hand, dealt with Ghanaian men's perception of how their spouses who work in higher status occupations experience WRS and WFI. The current chapter describes how these data informed the development of the questionnaire used in Study 3. It then looks at the pilot study and its validation. Additionally the initial research model and the cluster of items used to measure key components of the questionnaire are discussed. Next is the discussion of the procedure and discussion of factor analysis and development of final scale structure, which dovetails into the data screening. Furthermore the method used to obtain the study sample is also discussed. Next is a data analysis. Specifically the data screening process, descriptive analysis and discussion of relationships with the refined research model are discussed. Finally the summary of the initial findings of Study 3 are outlined. The structure of the current chapter is displayed in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Chapter 6 structure



6.1 Incorporating Studies 1 and 2 results into questionnaire development

Using triangulation in a multi-strategy approach to research has several advantages. The interviews used in Study 1 contain Ghanaian women professionals' experience of work-related stress as well as work-family interference in their working and family lives. The subsequent use of an open-ended questionnaire to capture the perceptions of Ghanaian men in relation to their spouses' experience of WRS and WFI in Study 2 provide any subsequent questionnaire with a sense of ecological validity (Santos et al. 2009). Hence a multi-stage qualitative-quantitative method not only maintains the integrity and rigour of data sources, but it offers the needed interconnectedness for any inferences, as well as conclusions that may emerge from the data (Toch, 2002). Thus the development of the questionnaire for Study 3 was predicated on the findings of Studies 1 and 2, the basic rationale for the research model (Figure 1.4), working model for Study 1, as well as the findings and model that emerged from men's perception of their spouses' experience of WRS and WFI in Study 2 (see Figures 4.3 and 5.2). The amalgamation of these

two models yielded an initial research model which is shown in the Figure 6:2.

6.2 Pilot study

The Pilot study for the Quantitative Phase of the thesis took place in Ghana between the last week of April 2008, and the third week of May, 2008. Owing to the fact that questionnaire development and design is still seen as an imprecise process in spite of all the caution one takes, (Schwab, 2005) it was important to use the pilot testing to obtain information on persons with similar characteristics to those targeted for the main study. Consequently the pilot testing was used to check face validity and whether all the questions were devoid of cultural biases that may affect Ghanaian women's ultimate responses.

6.2.1 Procedure

A draft copy of the instrument which was a combination of already existing and self-developed measures was sent via e-mail to Ghana, printed and distributed randomly to 20 women within the finance and education sectors who fitted the criteria of working in higher status occupations. 15 women completed

and returned the questionnaires to my research assistants – a return rate of 75%. After, the pilot study respondents were contacted for their views on the language used, and whether any of the items were sensitive. Bringing their views on board, some items were excluded from the final questionnaire. For example the item “Light up a cigarette” which was originally part of options on how to cope with stress at work in Section 9 of the survey instrument for the thesis (Appendix IV) was removed from the original coping items as it was deemed as out of place, since Ghanaian women generally do not smoke. Again the well-being item “Have you experienced loss of sexual interest or pleasure” was seen culturally sensitive, and thus removed.

Other items had the language altered to make the questionnaire culturally acceptable to the respondents; and care was taken not to sacrifice the overall reliability of the measure. For example item 8 in Section 6 of Questionnaire (see Appendix IV) was originally “When you have been upset or excited has your skin broken out in a rash?” was changed to “How often have you broken out in a rash when you have been upset or excited?” to reflect Ghanaian cultural understanding.

6.2.2 Analysis and validity of Pilot Data

SPSS 16 was used in analysing the pilot data. The Table 6.1 presents the reliability coefficients of item clusters from the Pilot Study:

Table 6.1: Coefficient of item clusters used for Pilot Study

Cluster of items	No. of Items	α
1. <i>Demands of Going to work</i>	10	.63
2. <i>Job Demands</i>	26	.86
3. <i>Support at work and at home</i>	20	.89
4. <i>Work-family interference</i>	25	.85
5. <i>General well being</i>	24	.93
6. <i>Work outcomes</i>	20	.72
7. <i>Family outcomes</i>	10	.90
8. <i>Coping with stress at work</i>	21	.89
9. <i>Coping with stress at home</i>	10	.56*

Table 6.1 shows that clusters 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 (the main study clusters) which were are adapted from existing measures, as well as findings of Studies 1 and 2; all had high

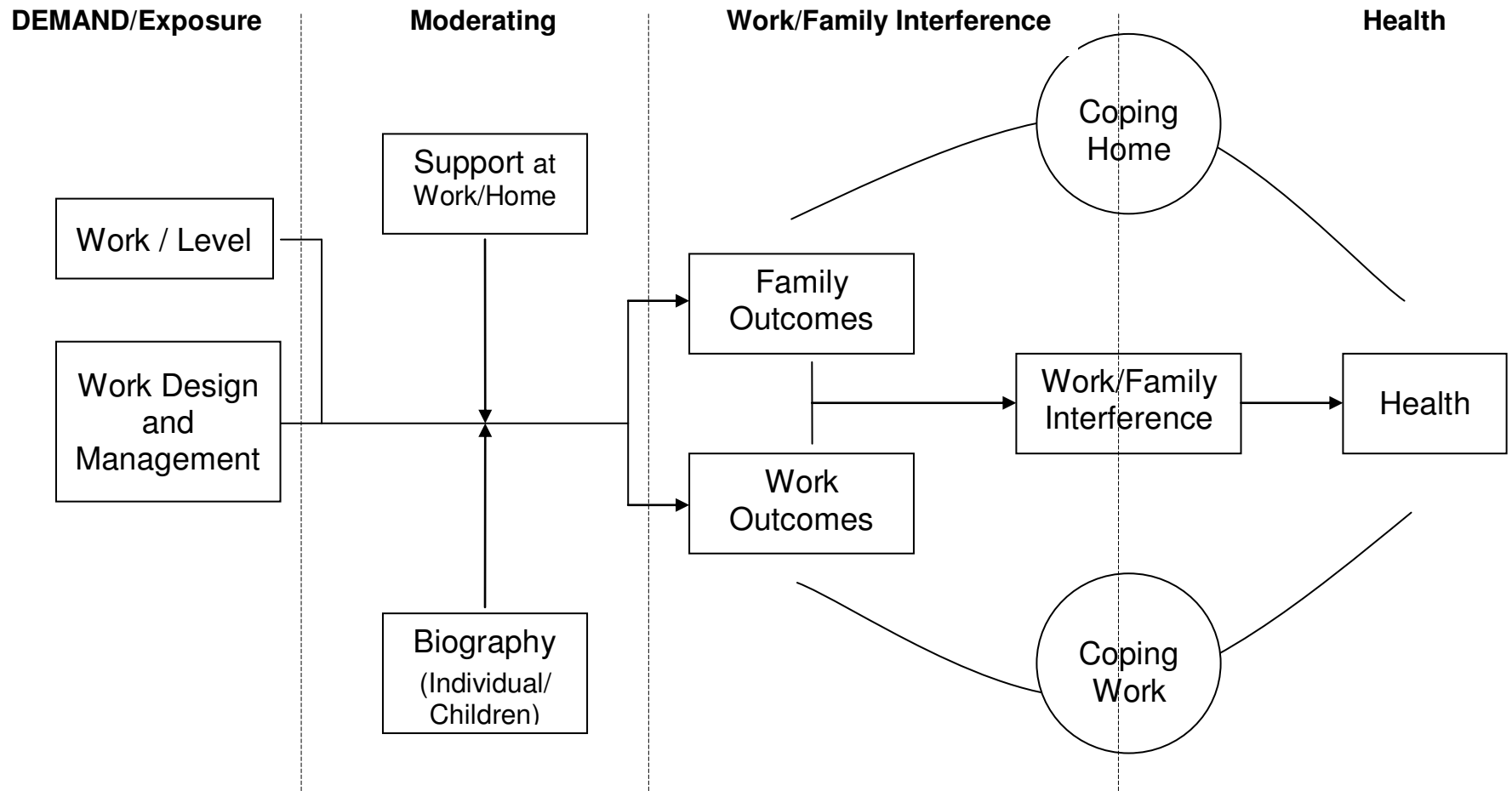
internal reliabilities, sometimes even exceeding existing measures. For example items on Work-family conflict which were adapted from Guerts et al (2005), as well as Aryee (2005), which both had an original alpha of .75, yielded an alpha of .85 during the pilot study. Again items in the well-being cluster which were adapted from the Fatigue Assessment Scale – Michielson et al (2003) and Cox (1990) which yielded alphas of .86 and .90 respectively, later yielded an alpha of .93 when it was piloted in Ghana. However, cluster 9 had an unacceptably low coefficient (George and Mallery, 2003; p.231); and was thus not used in further analysis. Thus overall, all the main study clusters were considered as psychometrically sound to be used for the quantitative study. So after consultations experts the main study was conducted using the instrument in Appendix (III), which was based on the initial research model (Figure 6:2) which is an amalgamation of working model for Study 1 (Figure 4:1) and working model for Study 2 (Figure 5:1).

6.2.3 Initial research model

The initial research model, which is an amalgamation of all the previous models, (Figures 1.2, 4.3 and 5.2) was used as the basis for the selection for the domains to be included in the

survey questionnaire for the quantitative study. The model thus encapsulates how work demand and exposure affect both work and family outcomes (satisfaction). The model also posits that there will be the possible buffering effect of work and home support as well as children and dependants. Further, the model suggests that work and family outcomes may affect the experience of work-family interference. However, coping both at work and home is, envisaged to have an ameliorating effect on the incidence of work-related stress and work-family interference. Additionally it is suggested that experience of work family interference may have an impact on health and well-being of Ghanaian professional women. The initial model is shown in Figure 6:2.

Figure 6.2: Initial research model



6.2.4 Clusters of items to measure key components

The final survey questionnaire incorporated all the needed changes from the Pilot Study, as well as the findings from Studies 1 and 2, with the exception of work-family enhancement, intentions to quit and legislating for WFI (see Sections 4.8.5, 4.8.7 and 4.8.8). The focus of the survey was to explore the incidence and impact of WRS and WFI on the well-being, job and family satisfaction outcomes of women. The questionnaire further explored how social support and coping strategies buffered the incidence and impact of WRS and WFI in the lives of Ghanaian professional women. There were ten sections in the questionnaire. The first section elicited basic demographic as well as work information from respondents. The other sections consisted of items on demands of going to work, work demands, social support, work-family interference, general well being, work outcomes, family outcomes and coping. It is important to point out that after the data collection of the main study and data input, the internal reliability of the item clusters were again measured; and there were slight variations between the coefficient alphas of the pilot study and the main study. Detailed descriptions on the clusters used are presented below:

Demographic Characteristics

This included the following:

- Age
- marital status
- duration of marriage
- age of children
- children and dependants living at home
- work status,
- tenure,
- type of contract and
- Number of hours worked per week.

Demands of Work

The 26 items in this cluster which were used to assess work-related stress (WRS) were assessed using items from existing measures, as well as findings from Study 1 and 2. Items included:

- working beyond normal hours
- too many interruptions in daily schedule,
- high management and colleague expectations,
- lack of team spirit among colleagues,
- insufficient remuneration and personality clashes at work. They were assessed on a five point Likert scale ranging

from not at all stressful (0) to extremely stressful (4). The cluster had had an internal reliability of $\alpha = .87$.

Social Support:

This section assessed both social support at home and work. Items were adapted from Anderson et al (2002) and Eisenberger et al. (1986), as well as findings from Studies 1 and 2. The 19-item cluster assessed issues including supervisor and colleague support, flexibility of work schedule, spousal/child support as well as house help support. Responses ranged from never (0) to always (4); and this cluster had an internal reliability of $\alpha = .87$

Work-family interference:

This was assessed on a five-point scale ranging from completely disagree (0) to completely agree (4) using items adapted from Thomas and Ganster (1995), Guerts et al (2005) and Aryee et al (2005), and also findings from Studies 1 and 2. There were 25 items in the cluster which were used to assess women's experience of WFI as well as its impact on their family lives. Specifically items such as:

- The nature of my work means that I don't have enough time for myself
- The demands of my job means I am unable to pursue leisure activities frequently and

- I wish I had more time to do things for my family, were used to assess women's lack of time ('time poverty') in dealing with family/personal issues as a result of WRS.

Again items such as:

- The demands of my job makes it difficult to be the kind of spouse I would like to be;
- I sometimes feel my marital life suffers as a result of the demands of my work.
- I am usually unable to spend more time with my kids owing to my job
- I can't have time to enjoy the company of my spouse owing to the nature of my work,

were used to assess women's experience of family strain as a result of WRS.

Women's exhaustion at home after work was assessed with items such as:

- I feel physically drained when I get home after work
- I feel mentally exhausted when I get home from work
- Trying to cope with work and family life is exhausting.

Finally, women's lack of flexibility ('unable to change plans') in dealing with family issues owing to work commitments were assessed by items such as:

- My job produces strain that makes it difficult to make changes to plans for my family.

- My family dislikes how often I am preoccupied with my work even while I am at home.
- My work takes up time I would like to spend with my family.

This measure had an internal reliability of $\alpha = .85$

General well-being: 24 items adapted mainly from Cox (1990) General Wellbeing Questionnaire (GWBQ) was used to assess women's well being on how often they had experienced a particular symptom, using a five-point scale. This ranged from (4) all the time to (0) never. Items such as:

- Being bothered by fatigue?
- Felt emotionally drained from your work? ;
- Become easily annoyed or irritated as a result of pressure of work?
- Felt used up at the end of the working day?, were used

to assess how 'worn out' women have been within the last six months owing to work and family related activities.

Additionally to assess how 'tense' women had been over the last six months in relation work and family activities, some of the following items were used:

- Been tense and jittery?
- Experienced numbness or tingling in your arms or legs?

- Had difficulty in falling and staying asleep? ,
- Found that you could not cope with all the things you had to do?

The internal reliability of this cluster was $\alpha = .93$

Work outcomes: The 20 items on this measure were used to assess women's satisfaction with their jobs. Using items adapted from Carman et al (1979) and findings from Studies 1 and 2, women's responses were assessed on a five-point scale ranging from (0) totally disagree, and (4) totally agree. The internal reliability of this cluster was $\alpha = .72$

Family outcomes: The 10 items on this cluster were used to assess the general family satisfaction of women including marital and parental obligations, using a five-point scale ranging from (0) totally disagree to (4) totally agree. Items were adapted from Norton (1983)'s Marital Quality Index as well as findings from Studies 1 and 2. The measure had an internal reliability of $\alpha = .90$.

Coping with stress at work: This cluster assessed the strategies employed by women to deal with the stresses they experienced at work. Owing to the increasing recognition in literature that a valid and reliable measurement of coping

must capture and describe what individuals actually do and think (Dewe, Cox and Ferguson, 1993; Holroyd and Lazarus, 1982; Folkman, 1982), a tailored measure of coping specific to the Ghanaian situation, was deemed necessary. This was to provide an accurate picture of the sort of strategies women employed at work to deal with stress. Items were constructed using Tobin et al (1989)'s Coping Strategies Inventory as a basis, while including findings from Study 1. The 21 items were assessed using a five point scale ranging from (0) never to (4) all the time. And the cluster yielded an internal reliability of $\alpha = .89$.

6.2.5 Development of scales

Even though Costello and Osborne (2005) suggest that Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is only a data reduction method and advocate the use of factor analysis, it is pertinent to point out that PCA is not only used to reduce a large set of variables into a more manageable set, but more importantly it allows for the performance of further regression analysis (Dancey and Reidy, 2007, p 458). Thus PCA is not used to confirm hypotheses (unlike factor analysis) but rather to explore data. And since the aim of the development of scales at this point in the thesis was to reduce the variables into

smaller factors, PCA was deemed appropriate. Moreover research shows that though not equivalent, the differences between PCA and factor analysis are relatively unimportant and even some authors have suggested an amalgamation of the two as simply factor analysis (Dancey and Reidy, p.458). Again because PCA is easier to interpret and assumes that items are uncorrelated. It thus highlights the different aspects of a particular measure, which can then be put together to form scales. Finally, PCA analyses usually produce simple structures for underlying factors, making interpretation easier.

Additionally, Ferguson and Cox (1993) suggest that in order to proceed with further analysis, the correlation matrix for any Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) must meet certain psychometric requirements. The first concerns the ratio of subjects to variables. They suggest that for a good EFA analysis there must be ideally three to four times more subjects than variables to be analysed. In the current analysis the number of variables ranged from 10 to 26. This means that ideally subjects should be between 40 and 104, and also exceed the minimum of 100 (Fergusson and Cox, 1993, p.86; Dancey and Reidy, 2007). The number of subjects was 180. It is argued that this number meets the above requirement. Ferguson and Cox further argue that conducting EFA must

minimally involve showing that there is some systematic covariation among the variables under consideration. To them this is important if it can be shown that EFA will produce a solution of randomly produced variables, meeting the requirement of demonstrable covariation needed to make results interpretable (Dziuban and Shirkey, 1974).

Ferguson and Cox further recommend that at least two statistics should be examined prior further factor analysis. The first is Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy which indicates whether the associations between the variables in the correlation matrix can be accounted for by smaller set of factors (a minimum value of 0.5 is required; Dziuban and Shirkey, 1974). For all the analyses this minimum requirement was achieved with all the variable clusters having a KMO of more than the recommended threshold. Consequently the KMO requirement for the factor analysis was also met. The second recommended test is Bartlett (1954)'s test of sphericity (BTS). This tests the null hypothesis that no relationships exist between any of the variables. A significant test statistic (based on Chi square) indicates that there are discoverable relationships in that data. Thus in agreement with Ferguson and Cox (1993), it was

possible to proceed to extraction with confidence that the matrix derived from the data is appropriate for factor analysis.

Cattell's (1966) scree test was also adopted as the method for number of factors retained. This was because retaining factors with only eigenvalues greater than 1.0 is known to be among the least accurate methods for number of factors to retain (Velicer et al, 1982). Secondly although Velicer's MAP criteria and parallel analysis are known to be accurate and easy to use (Costello and Osborne, 2005) it was not available in the SPSS Version 16 used for the analysis, which would have meant laboriously calculating by hand. Furthermore Zwick and Velicer (1986) demonstrated that the Scree test is reasonably accurate. They contend that at ± 1 standard deviation about the point of optimum fit, the scree test was 75% accurate at low saturation (0.5) and 93% accurate at high saturation (0.8); where saturation refers to the mean factor loadings for a particular factor. And since most factors extracted lay between +0.5 and 0.8 (see Tables 6.5 to 6.10) the choice of the scree test as an extraction method, it is argued, was psychometrically sound.

Finally, Costello and Osborne, (2005; p.3), suggest that if there is a difference between the predicted number of factors

and those suggested by the scree test, it is essential that a researcher sets the factors to retain manually above and below these numbers. For example they posit that if the predicted number of factors is six and the scree test suggest five then one ought to run the data four times setting the number of factors extracted at four, five, six and seven. They further contend that after rotation it is important to compare the item loading tables; and the one with the "cleanest" factor structure – item loadings above .30 no or few item cross loadings, and no factors with fewer than three items has the best fit to the data.

Varimax (orthogonal) rotation method was chosen as the rotation method because it aims at maximising higher correlations and minimising low ones, while ensuring that every factor is independent from the other factors (Dancey and Reidy, 2007; p. 470). Again apart from the fact that a method like oblique rotation does not show variance accounted for after rotation, both methods have been shown to produce identical eigenvalues after extraction (Costello and Osborne, 2005; p.6). Finally Costello and Osborne suggest that a factor with fewer than three items is generally weak and unstable, while a factor with 5 or more strongly loading items (.50 or better) is desirable as it indicates a solid factor. They however

contend that with further research and analysis it may be possible to reduce the item number and maintain a strong factor with a large data set. One is inclined to agree with this as Dancey and Reidy also point out that in conducting factor analysis it is advisable to use at least 100 participants in the analysis; this is further supported by Ferguson and Cox (1993). Furthermore since item loadings are essentially correlation coefficients which indicate how well factors are related to a factor with just three or even two items with loadings above .70 and a coefficient of .80 and above, which is theoretically defensible could be used as a scale so long as it addresses the research interest, especially where there are no cross loadings for that particular scale (an indication of strong data – Costello and Osborne, 2005; p.5).

Finally only items with communalities above 0.4 were used in the rotation. This is because Costello and Osborne (2005; p.4) suggest that if an item has a communality of less than 0.4 it may either (a) not be related to the other items or (b) suggest that an additional factor that should be explored. They further advise the researcher to consider dropping such an item. This assertion is given further credence by Ferguson and Cox (1993) who point out that in an endeavour to increase factor saturation, a loading of 0.4 for a variable to

define as a factor is recommended rather than the usual 0.3., recommended by Velicer et al (1982). And since the scales developed for this thesis were to be used for interpretation of results, to compare them with normative data, as well as used them in regression analysis for probable generalisation of research findings, then increasing the factor saturation of the scales was deemed very critical to the overall credibility of the research findings.

6.2.6 Factor analysis (PCA) of study variables

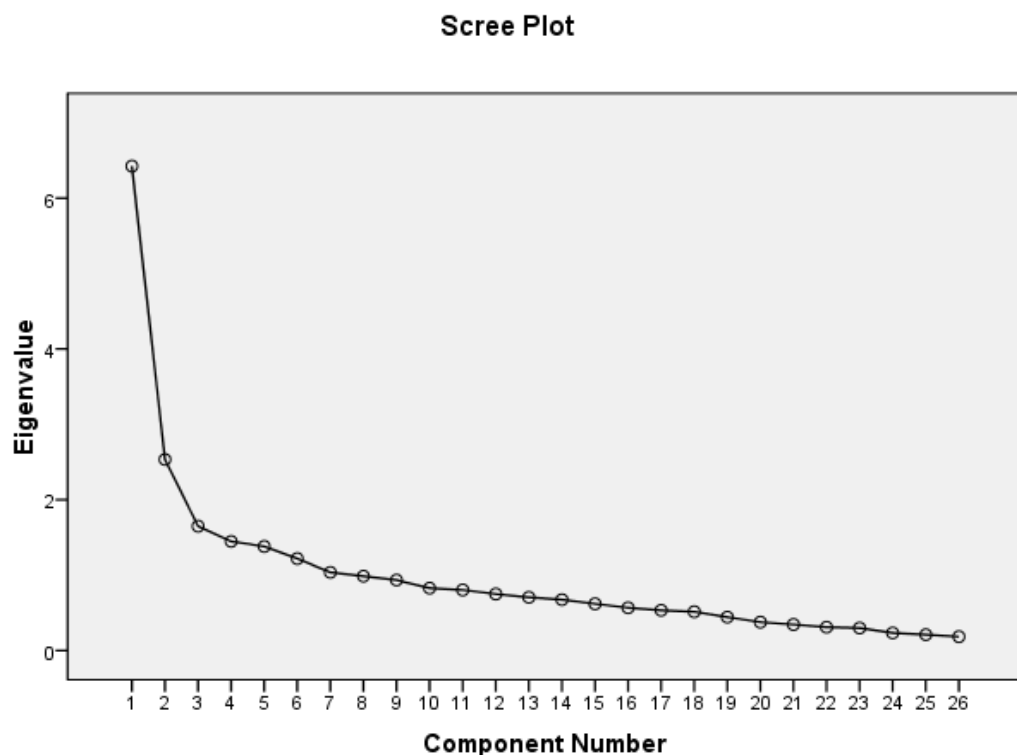
This section deals with PCA as well as varimax rotation analysis of predictor variables including work related stress and work-family interference, outcome variables (well-being, job satisfaction and family satisfaction), support variables (spousal/child support, supervisor support, colleague support and house help assistance) and coping variables (coping with work).

6.2.6.1 Work-related stress

The 26 items of work demands were subjected to PCA using SPSS Version 16. Prior performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the component

matrix showed that many of the coefficients had values of .4 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer- Okin (KMO) value was 0.83, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Kaiser, 1974); the Bartlett Test of Sphericity (BTS) (Bartlett, 1954) reached a statistical significance at $p < .0001$, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of seven components with eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 24.71%, 9.74%, 6.34%, 5.56%, 5.31%, 4.68% and 3.98% respectively, a total of 60.34% of variance. However Cattell's (1966) scree test indicated a clear break after the second component, as shown in Figure 6.3

Figure 6.3: Scree plot of work-related stress item clusters



Consequently three separate PCAs were conducted, one keeping two, three and four factors. However after maintaining values greater than 0.4, a varimax (orthogonal) rotation was conducted which revealed the four factor solution as the one with the 'cleanest' factor structure with components showing a number of salient loadings and variables loading substantially on only one component. (see Table 6.2). This four factor solution explained 46.34% of variance. The four factors were labelled: Daily tasks (undertaking daily work tasks), Stress of expectations, Outside worry (stress emanating outside worker's control) and Personal worry (dealing with things that affect worker personally - e.g. insufficient financial remuneration, supervisor's misunderstanding of woman's personal problems). Reliability values for the extracted factors were computed, and all factors had high Cronbach's alphas as shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Varimax Rotation of Four Factor Solution for work related stress

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor labels</i>			
	Daily Tasks	Stress of Expectations	Outside worry	Personal Worry
Having meetings outside office with daily schedule still undone	.758			
Interruptions to daily schedule	.717			

Working beyond normal working hours	.657	
Replying work related e-mails daily	.603	
Colleagues not pulling their weight	.552	
Too much variety in work schedule	.513	
Performing many tasks at work daily	.497	.420
High expectations of work from management		.761
High expectations of work from colleagues		.731
Importance of work decisions		.599
New learning for the job		.589
Meeting performance indicators		.483
Working to tight time schedules		.441
Lack of team spirit among colleagues		.673
Personality clashes at work		.633
A colleague filing a complaint against respondent		.604
Dealing with angry customers/visitors		.526
Settling disputes between subordinates		.477
Insufficient financial remuneration		.653
Stress-related illness insufficiently addressed		.649

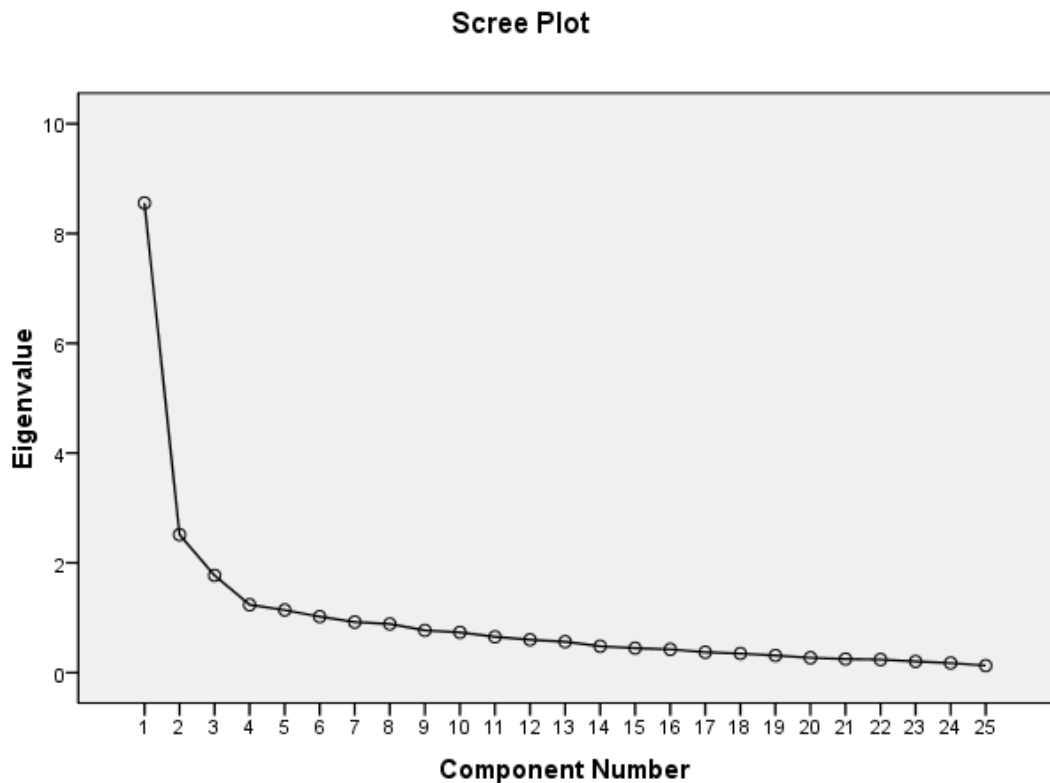
Supervisor's misunderstanding of personal problems					.551
Not having enough autonomy/control on the job					.551
Peers not keeping each other informed about work related issues			.428		.459
<hr/>					
% of variance	13.41	11.47	11.35		10.12
Cronbach's alpha	.75	.75	.70		.68

Note: Only loadings above .4 are displayed

6.2.6.2 Work-family interference

The 25 items of this cluster were subjected to initial PCA. Prior performing the PCA the suitability of the data was assessed. The correlation matrix revealed the presence many components with values of 0.4 and above. The KMO was 0.869 exceeding the recommended value of .6; the BTS reached a statistical significance at $p < .0001$, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA further revealed the presence of 6 components explaining 34.22%, 10.05%, 7.08%, 4.94%, 4.56% and 4.06% of variability respectively, with an accumulated variance of 65.45%. However inspection of Cattell's scree test as shown in Figure 6.4 indicated a clear break after the third component.

Figure 6.4: Scree plot of work-family interference items



Four separate PCAs were consequently conducted, keeping two, three, four and five factors, while maintaining all values greater than 0.4. The additional varimax rotation performed showed the four factor solution as the one with the best factor structure among the four, with substantial salient and variable loadings unto the four components (see Table 6:3). The four factor solution explained 55.67% of variance. The four factors were thus labelled as follows: Time poverty (lack of sufficient time to attend to personal and family issues), Family strain, Family exhaustions and 'Unchanged plans' (inability to follow

through on planned family activities owing to pressure from work). All factors had high Cronbach's alphas.

Table 6.3: Varimax Rotation of Four Factor Solution for work-family interference

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor labels</i>			
	Time poverty	Family strain	Exhaustion	Unchanged plans
Unable to pursue hobbies and leisure owing work demands	.749	.547		
I wish I had more time to do things for my family	.712			
Feel physically drained after work	.655			
Work demands does not afford me enough time for myself	.640			
Cancelling appointments with spouse/friends owing to nature of work	.603			
Things do not get done at home owing to work demands	.594			
Feel job takes me too much away from family	.513			
Rushing to get things done on a typical day	.502			
Work demands making it difficult to be 'good' spouse		.855		
Feel marital life suffers as a result of work demands		.845		

Can't have time to enjoy spouse's company owing to nature of work			.822	
Work demands making it difficult to be a 'good' parent			.805	
Unable to spend more time with kids owing to job	.501		.770	
Feel emotionally drained after work				.747
Coping with work and family life is exhausting				.711
Difficult balancing energy needed for work and family life				.698
Feel mentally exhausted after work				.681
Sometimes irritable at home owing to work demands				.536
Work causes change of plans for family activities				.488
My work takes up time meant for family interaction				.639
Job strain making it difficult to make changes to family plans				.559
Demands of my job making it difficult to be relaxed at home				.531
Family dislikes being preoccupied with work whiles at home				.530
% of variance	19.86	14.27	11.62	9.92
Cronbach's alpha	.87	.75	.80	.72
Note: Only loadings above .4 are displayed				

6.2.6.3 *General Wellbeing Questionnaire (GWBQ)*

Exploratory factor analysis was used to structure the data from the GWBQ. As a model already exists for this cluster of items and its scales, it could be argued that confirmatory analysis would be more appropriate. This is because the scales in this cluster have been used previously (Lin, 1994). However the questionnaire had never been used in the socio-linguistic context of Ghana before and therefore exploratory analysis was thought permissible. The 24 items of this cluster were subjected to initial PCA. Prior to performing the PCA, the suitability of the data was assessed. The correlation matrix revealed the presence of many bivariate relationships with values of 0.4 and above. As recommended by Ferguson and Cox (1993) the KMO and BTS were applied to the data. The KMO was 0.87, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 and the BTS reached a statistical significance at $p < .0001$. This supported the conduct of further analysis. PCA further revealed the presence of 5 components. The scree plot however showed a clear break after the second component (see Figure 6:5)

Scree Plot

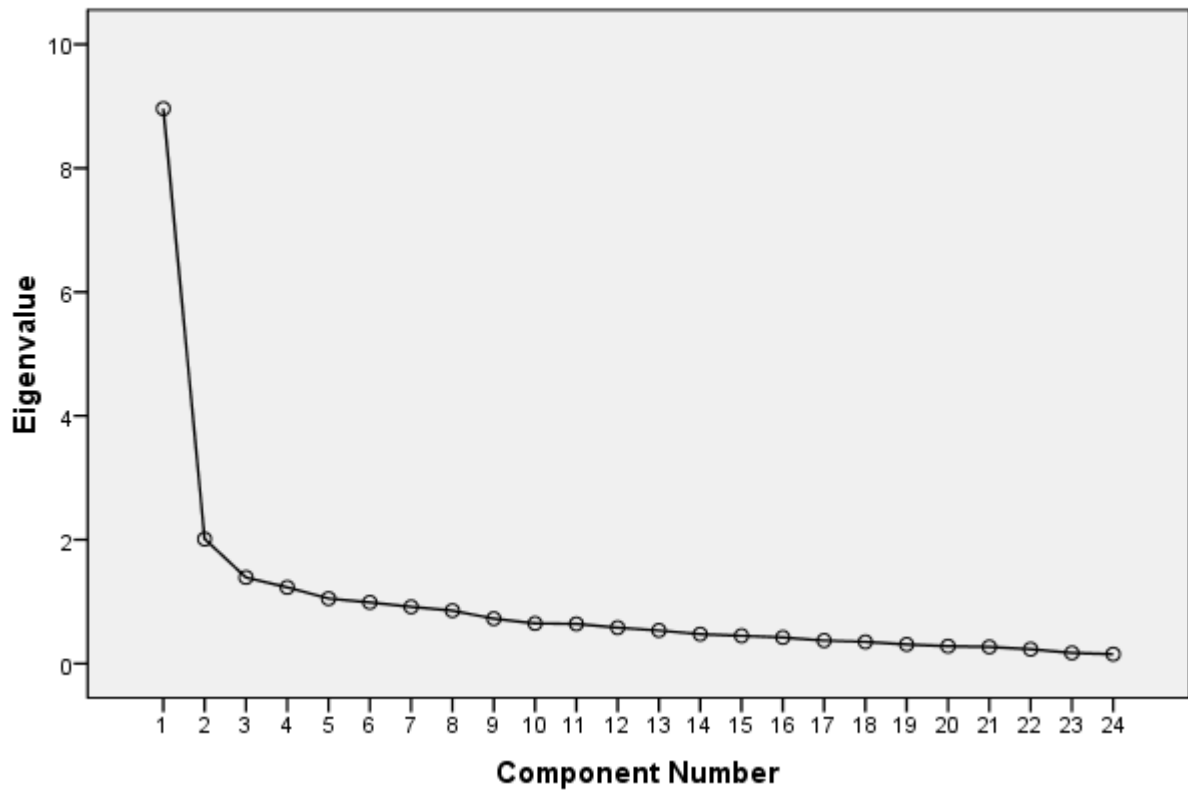


Figure 6.5: Scree plot of well-being items

Consequently while maintaining all values greater than 0.4, two further separate PCAs were conducted keeping two and three factors. Additional varimax (orthogonal) rotation revealed that the two factor solution had the cleanest structure, with minimal cross loadings. There were substantive and appropriate variable loadings onto the two components (see **Table 6:4**). The two factor solution explained 45.72% of variance. This solution is consistent with previous analyses of data such as these here and as reported

in the literature (Lin, 1994; Cox, 1990). The two established names were thus retained: Worn out (feeling of exhaustion and fatigue) and Tense (feeling anxious and tense) respectively. Both factors had very high Cronbach's alphas (see Table 6.4)

Table 6.4: Varimax Rotation of Two Factor Solution for well-being

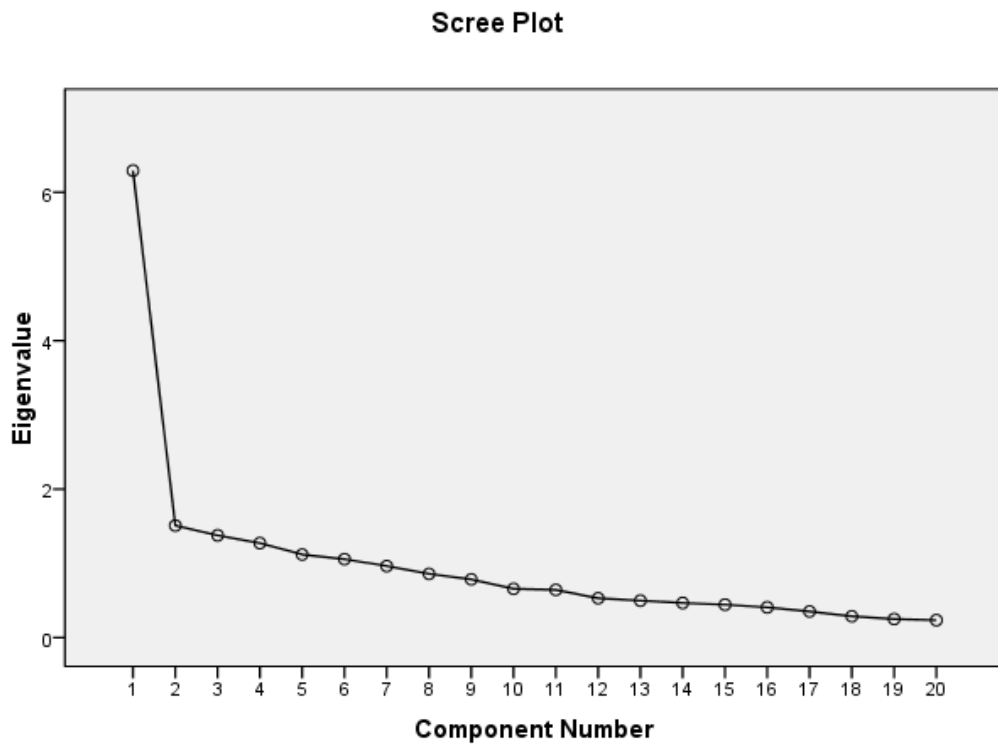
<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor labels</i>	
	Worn out	Tense
Become easily annoyed as a result of pressures at work	.804	
Felt emotionally drained from my work	.769	
Felt used up at the end of the work day	.767	
Felt tired in the morning when ready to face another day	.748	
Felt burned up and stressed by work	.708	.430
Got mixed up in your thinking when doing things quickly	.592	
Felt drained from undertaking household chores	.587	
Done things rashly or on impulse	.552	
Being bothered by fatigue	.548	
Felt nervous and stressed	.534	
Become easily bored with work schedule	.491	
Broken out in a rush when upset or excited	.443	
Become easily tired		.696
difficulty in falling asleep		.683
Experience numbness or tingling in arms or legs		.680
Worn yourself out worrying about health		.617

Found things getting on your nerves and wearing you out		.611
Being bothered by stammering		.591
Been tense and jittery	.412	.590
Had any pains in the heart or chest		.588
Found it hard to make up your mind		.563
Bothered by minor ailments like headaches		.531
Become afraid of unfamiliar places or people		.488
Unable to cope with schedule		.469
<hr/>		
% of variance	27.85	17.86
Cronbach's alpha	.90	.85
Note: Only loadings above .4 are displayed		

6.2.6.4 Job satisfaction

Initial PCA on the 20 items of the work outcome cluster confirmed the suitability of the data for further analysis. The correlation matrix revealed the presence many components with values of .4 and above. The KMO was .845 exceeding the recommended value of .6; the BTS also reached a statistical significance at $p < .0001$, supporting further analysis. PCA further revealed the presence of 6 components explaining 20.75%, 12.58%, 8.62%, 8.09%, 8.66% and 6.46% of variability respectively. The accumulated variance was 63.13%. Inspection of Cattell's scree test however revealed the presence of a single factor (see Figure 6:6).

Figure 6.6: Scree plot of job satisfaction items



Consequently while maintaining all values greater than 0.4, two further separate PCAs were conducted keeping two and three factors. Additional varimax (orthogonal) rotation did not show any of these factors having a clean underlying structure worthy of being used as a scale. The single factor solution was thus maintained. And this explained 31.46 of variance (see Table 6.5). Consequently the factor was named Job satisfaction. This factor had a high Cronbach's alpha.

Table 6.5: Varimax Rotation of One Factor Solution for job satisfaction

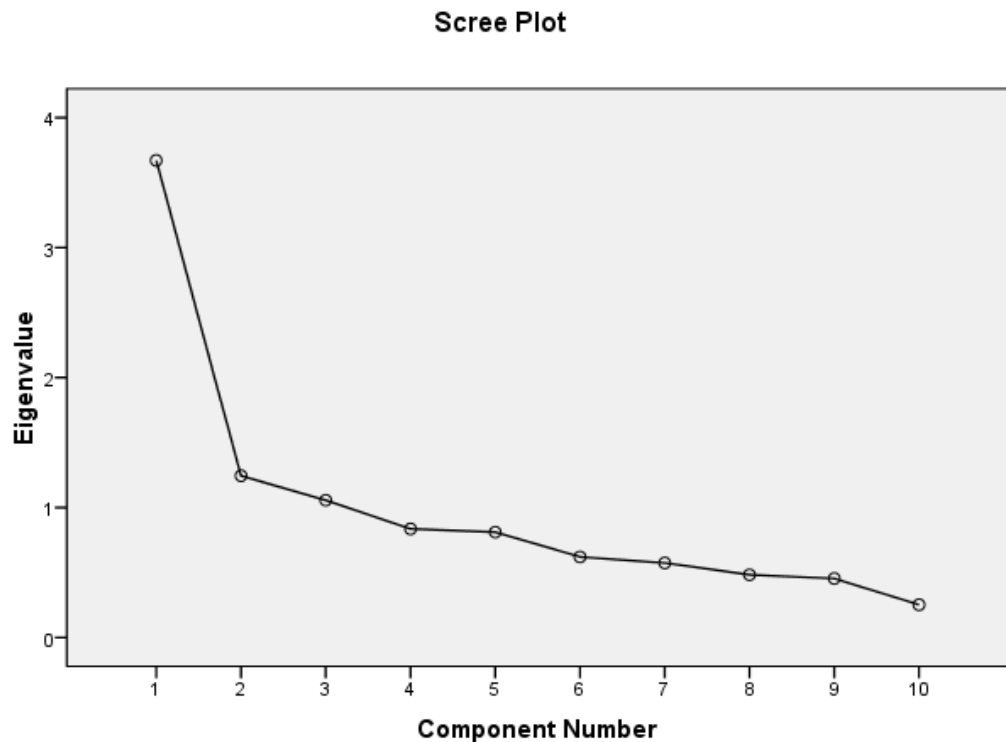
<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor label</i>
	Job satisfaction
Work satisfaction in spite of long working hours	.718
Satisfied with job as schedule is linked to expertise	.705
Satisfied with job as promotion is on merit	.677
Generally satisfied with job	.669
I feel respected at work	.650
Supervisor's help with personal/family issues gives job satisfaction	.638
Work I do on the job is meaningful	.597
Fringe benefits gives job satisfaction	.453
Proud to tell people I work for a particular	.450
Look forward to being at work with colleagues	.423
% of variance	31.46
Cronbach's Alpha	.83

Note: only factor loadings above .4 are shown

6.2.6.5 *Family satisfaction*

Initial PCA on the 10 items in the family outcome cluster indicated the factorability of the data, with the correlation matrix revealing almost all items having values of .4 and above. The KMO was 0.71 exceeding the recommended value of .6; the Bartlett Test of Sphericity also reached a statistical significance at $p < .0001$, which supported further analysis. PCA further revealed the presence of 3 components explaining 32.15%, 13.77%, and 12.44% of variability respectively. The accumulated variance was 58.37%. Inspection of Cattell's scree test however revealed the presence of a single factor (see Figure 6:7).

Figure 6.7: Scree plot of family satisfaction items



So while maintaining all values greater than .4; three separate PCAs were conducted keeping two, three and four factors.

Additional varimax (orthogonal) rotation did not show any of these factors having a clean underlying structure worthy of being used as a scale. The decision was thus taken to stick to the one factor solution as recommended by Cattell's scree test which explained 30.60% of variance (see Table 6:6).

Consequently the factor was named Family satisfaction which had a high Cronbach's alpha as shown in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Varimax Rotation of One Factor Solution for family satisfaction

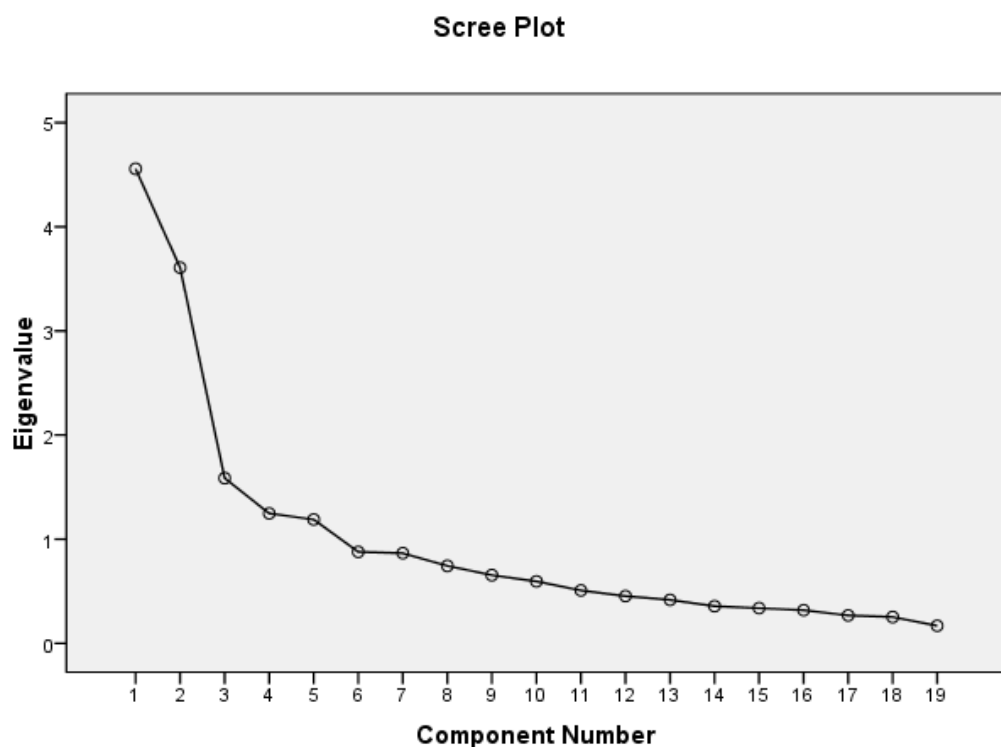
<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor label</i>
	Family satisfaction
Satisfied with marital life in spite of work pressures	.810
Quarrel with spouse at home owing to work pressures	.798
Able to play role as spouse in spite of work pressure	.724
Able to play my role as a parent	.711
Unable to get the needed interaction with spouse after work	.640
Devote time for leisure activities in spite of work pressure	.601
Generally satisfied with my family life	.594
Able to have quality interaction with children after work	.573
Always look forward to going home after work	.556
Children take up the little time I have for rest after work	.470
% of variance	30.60
Cronbach's Alpha	.80
Note: Only factor loadings above .4 are shown	

6.2.6.6 Factor analysis of support variables

Initial PCA on the 19 items in the support cluster indicated the factorability of the data, with the correlation matrix revealing almost all items having values of .4 and above. The KMO was 0.76 exceeding the recommended value of 0.6. The BTS also reached a statistical significance at $p < .0001$, supporting further analysis. PCA further revealed the presence of 5

components explaining 23.98%, 18.98%, 8.34%, 6.56 and 6.25 of variability respectively, with an accumulated variance of 64.11%. Inspection of Cattell's scree test however revealed the presence of 5 factors, with a clear break after the fifth component (see Figure 6:8).

Figure 6.8: Scree plot of social support items



Consequently four separate PCAs were conducted keeping four, five, six and seven factors. All factor loadings greater than 0.4 were all retained. The four factor solution came out with the 'cleanest' factor structure; and an additional varimax rotation was conducted to help in the interpretation of the components. The rotated component matrix revealed the

presence of a simple structure, with all the four components showing a number of salient loadings, and variables loaded substantially unto only one component. (see Table 6.7). The four factor solution explained 56.86% of variance. Thus after extraction the four factors were labelled as follows:

Spousal/child support (support received from spouse and children at home), Supervisor support, Colleague support and House help assistance. All factors had high Cronbach's alphas.

Table 6.7: Varimax Rotation of Four Factor Solution for support items

<i>Item</i>	<i>Factor labels</i>			
	Spousal & child support	Supervisor support	Colleague support	House help assistance
Able to chat with kids after work which allows me to relax	.838			
Spouse assists in getting foodstuff and other home essentials	.821			
Spouse helps in cooking at home	.787			
Spouse assist with kids in the morning	.741			
Kids allow me to rest after work when exhausted	.710			
Chatting with spouse helps relieve emotional exhaustion	.648			
Spouse does not demand too much of my energy and time after work	.584			
Spouse helps in picking up kids	.510			
Boss accommodates personal problems at work		.757		

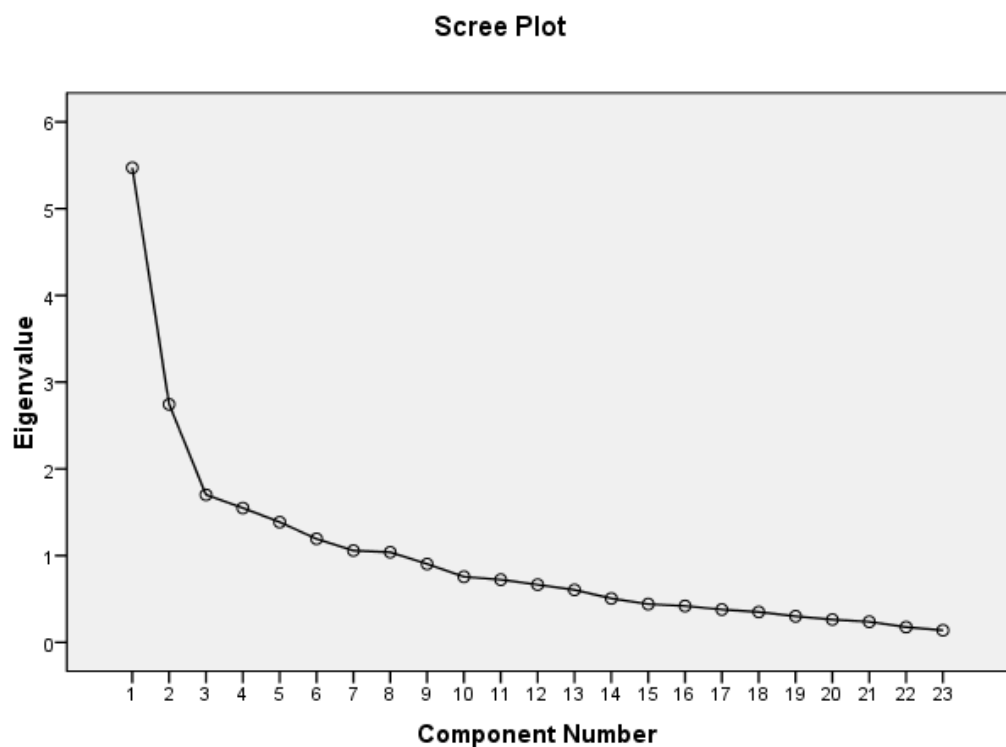
Boss offering support with work related problems					.724
Boss cares about effects of work demands on personal/family life					.713
Taking time off to attend to personal issues					.707
Comfortable in bringing personal issues with boss					.601
Colleagues support when there is a work problem					.727
Colleagues show understanding about my personal issues					.713
Colleagues will stand in if I have to attend to an issue outside the office					.682
Feel comfortable in sharing personal issues affecting work with colleagues					.609
House help assist with chores which relieves physical exhaustion					.821
House help assist in chores which reduces emotional burden					.813
<hr/>					
% of variance	23.10	16.77	9.62	8.43	
Cronbach's alpha	.82	.83	.78	.90	
Note: Only loadings above .4 are shown					

6.2.6.7 Coping with stress at work

The 21 items in this cluster were subjected to initial PCA which confirmed the factorability of the data. The correlation matrix revealed almost all items having values of .4 and above. The KMO was 0.72 exceeding the recommended value of 0.6. The BTS also reached a statistical significance at, $p < .0001$ which

supported further analysis. PCA further revealed the presence of 8 components explaining 23.79%, 11.93%, 7.39%, 6.73%, 6.02%, 5.18%, 4.59% and 4.51 of variability respectively, with an accumulated variance of 70.17%. Inspection of Cattell's scree test however revealed the presence of 2 factors (see Figure 6:9) below.

Figure 6.9: Scree plot of coping at work items



Thus three separate PCAs were conducted keeping two, three and four factors, while maintaining all factors above 0.4. After the varimax (orthogonal) rotation, the three factor solution came out with the cleanest underlying factor structure. It accounted for 43.11% of variance with strong factor saturations onto single components (see Table 6:8). The

three factors were thus labelled: Autonomous coping (cognitive restructuring), Personal-social coping (seeking extra social support) and Environmental coping strategies (person/environmental transaction) - see Table 6.8 below.

Table 6.8: Varimax Rotation of Three Factor Solution of coping at work

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor labels</i>		
	Autonomous coping strategies	Personal-social coping strategies	Environmental coping strategies
Scream or swear to get it off my chest	.762		
Take time off sick	.674		
Take work home	.671		
Have a laugh/see the funny side of things	.626		
Take stress relieving medication	.604		
Just talk to my family about the day's work	.583		
Vent my emotions on family and friends	.582		
Pray about it or go for a drink with friends	.573		
Focus on things outside work	.561		
Stay late and work for longer hours	.551		
Tell secretary to restrict number of visitors	.521		

Talk the problem over with colleagues		.657	
Seek support of supervisor		.648	.522
Discuss problem with supervisor or line manager		.607	
Plan and initiate a course of action to deal with stress		.587	
Suppress emotions and not show feelings		.533	
Try to avoid the situation as much as possible		.454	
Reorganise time and work effectively			.622
Use some form of relaxation			.585
Keep busy and take mind off things		.464	.576
Go for a walk during break			.504
Accept the situation and learn to live with it			.449
<hr/>			
% of variance	19.30	15.92	7.89
Cronbach's alpha	.79	.75	.74
Note: Only factor loadings above .4 are shown			

The results of the factor analysis have shown that using Cattell's scree test alone as the criterion for factor retention is not sufficient. Rather by combining it with the running of additional PCAs below and above the break in the scree test as suggested by Costello and Osborne (2005), one is likely to come out with appropriate, 'workable' and statistically defensible scales. The confidence in using such scales is also

enhanced when one opts for the 'cleanest' factor structure criterion (Costello and Osborne, 2005) as the 'best factor' selection criterion; especially if the factor saturation is high Zwick and Velicer (1986) in Ferguson and Cox (1993).

6.2.7 Final scale structure

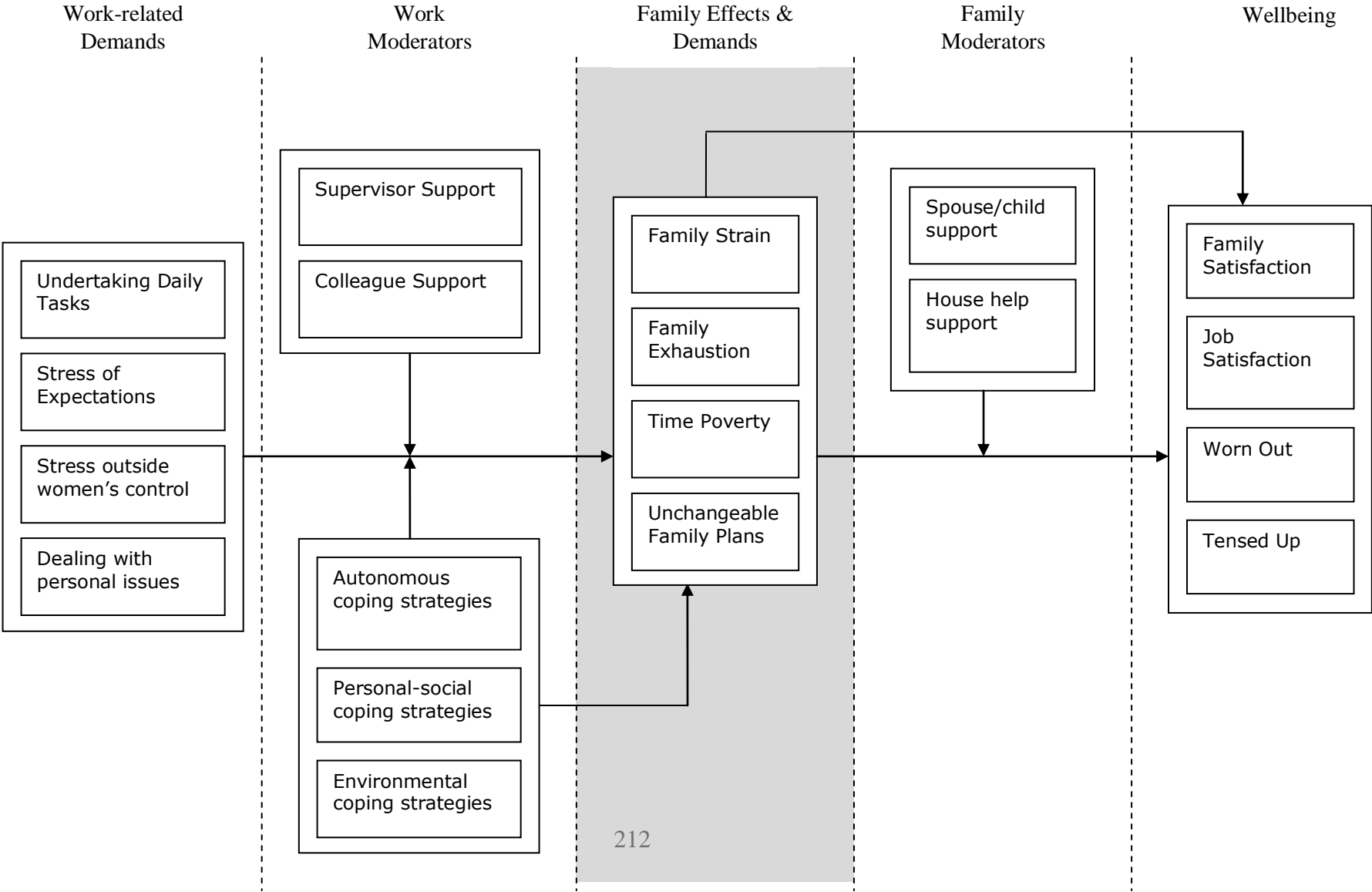
As a result of the factor analysis, the initial research model (Figure 6:2) was modified to include the new sub-scales that were statistically generated from the factor analysis. Thus the new model which is the focus of the next chapter is depicted in Figure 6:11. The work design and management variable in Figure 6:2, is replaced by the subscale including (undertaking daily tasks, stress of expectations, stress outside worker's control and dealing with personal issues) - see Figure 6:11.

Again while the moderating variable (support at work/home) in Figure 6:2 of the initial research model has been replaced by the sub-scale supervisor and colleague support, the variable biography (individual/child) has now been moved to become family moderator spousal/child support in Figure 6:11. In its place are work coping strategies.

This was to ensure that the refined model is balanced. Further the single variable work-family interference is replaced with the subscales family strain, family exhaustion, time poverty and unchangeable family plans. In this new model the home coping subscale which was in the initial research model has been entirely removed because of a very low internal Cronbach's alpha (see Table 6.1). At this point the control variables of the study (Table 6.9) are not shown, as they will be used in the final regression analysis in Chapter 7. Family outcomes in the initial model now become family satisfaction in the refined model, while work outcome becomes job satisfaction.

The shading of the family effects and demands cluster of measures in Figure 6.11 indicates that it is both an outcome and an antecedent. It represents an outcome in terms of effects of work related demands on family. At the same time, it represents the possible antecedents of effects on well-being, broadly defined. This structuring of the variables in the refined research model is reflected in the analytical strategy (see Section 7.4).

Figure 6.10: Refined research model of work-family interference among Ghanaian professional women



6.3 Main study method

This section outlines the processes used to obtain the required sample for the descriptive, correlation and regression analysis of the quantitative approach to this thesis.

6.3.1 Study population

This consisted of Ghanaian professional women within the Education, Finance Sectors of the Ghana working in three major cities, namely Accra, Kumasi and Tamale. The population consisted of women in senior and middle level positions in their organisations, whose work schedules included working long hours, having high levels of responsibility, high levels of decision-making – higher status occupation.

6.3.2 Sampling technique

The power to generalise from a selected representative sample of is one of the hallmarks of the quantitative survey method. In the current study both probability and non probability sampling techniques were employed to achieve the aims of the study. First convenience sampling was used to select the two sectors used (Finance and Education) for Study 3 as it was becoming difficult to

get access to participants in the Health Sector. Secondly stratified random sampling was then employed to obtain the participant sample. This sampling method was chosen because the focus of the study was data from two levels of organisational status within establishments, namely middle and senior levels. These levels satisfied the criterion of higher status which is usually characterised by high responsibilities and decision-making, longer working hours, tight working schedules and so on.

6.3.3 Sample

180 completed questionnaires were returned out of a total of 220 – a response rate of nearly 82%. This high response rate could be attributed to the fact most of these women were already aware of the benefits of the research as a result of the initial qualitative study which solicited their opinions on the incidence and impact of WRS and WFI. Again the layout of the questionnaire which was in a booklet form (see Chapter 3) made it more appealing as well as easier to read and complete according to the respondents. And since respondents were also involved in the design of the survey instrument (even if not all) they could identify with the research and thus presumably were willing to participate in the research.

6.3.4 Data Analysis

This section deals with the initial analytical procedures including data screening and descriptive statistics. It also includes the results of t-tests on the main study variables using the control variables.

6.3.5 Data screening

Questionnaire data were coded manually into an SPSS 16 data file. To check for accuracy there was proofreading of the original data against the computerised data file. Second was the examination of univariate descriptive statistics using SPSS frequencies.

Here, in line with Pallant (2007)'s advice on steps in data screening, each discrete variable in the data file was checked for out-of-range numbers, continuous variables were checked for implausible values, and means and standard deviations were also checked for plausibility.

Again all incorrectly transcribed data items identified through these analyses were checked against the original data items on the questionnaire and the items in the SPSS data file were corrected. Furthermore skewness and kurtosis checks on the data set revealed acceptable levels for further analysis without any further data manipulation.

Finally in order to achieve the main objectives of the research, which was to investigate WFI among Ghanaian women working in higher status occupations, it was decided that only respondents who were married and have children and or dependants living with them at the time of the survey will be used in further analysis, in order to ensure that the data set was tightly linked with the research aims.

Consequently based on Tharenou et al's, (1999) assertion on causes of WFI, which among others state that mothers with working spouses reported more work disruptions than single or married childless women, a total of 125 respondents who fitted these criteria were selected for further data analyses. Checks on completed questionnaires revealed that only 10 out of 180 (5.5%) of respondents answered open-ended questions. This number was deemed too small to warrant further analysis on the open ended questions. They were therefore discarded as they were initially meant to re-emphasise responses which had already been given by women.

6.3.6 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics for the sample as a whole are outlined in Tables 6:2, 6:3 and 6:4. All variables were screened for normality prior any analyses. None of the variables were found to exhibit the

skew values of +/- 2 or kurtosis values of +/- 5 accepted criteria for normality (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 81).

Initial descriptive analysis focused on the control variables for Study 3. The criteria for splitting the control variables into the different groups was based more on statistical considerations (to get two equal or nearly equal groups) as well the cultural underpinnings of the Ghanaian society that were highlighted from Study 1 rather than one based on theory. So for example for the age of the child if the family had two children one 15 years and the other 12 years, the older was taken. This is because in Ghanaian society a fifteen year-old was no longer considered as a child, but as a contributing member of the family who could offer support with household chores or caring for the younger ones at home. Table 6.9 depicts the summary of the descriptive statistics of the control variables for the study.

Table 6.9: Descriptive statistics of Control Variables

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
1. Age 2 groups - 21 -40 years	18	14.4
41+ years	107	85.6
Total	125	100.0
2. Children and dependants - 2 groups		
2 - 3 chn/dependants	51	40.8
4 or more chn/dependants	74	59.2
Total	125	100.0
3. Status in organisation – 2 groups		
Senior management	60	48.0
Middle management	65	52.0
Total	125	100.0
4. Duration of marriage 2 groups		
0 - 15 years	60	48.0
15+ years	63	50.4
Total	123	98.4
Missing	2	1.6
5. Age of child- 2 groups		
0 - 15 years	63	50.4
15+ years	60	48.0
Total	123	98.4
Missing	2	1.6
6. Job tenure 2 groups		
0 - 8 years	50	40.0
8+ years	75	60.0
Total	125	100.0
7. Hours worked per week 3 groups		
0 - 20 hrs per wk (Part Time)	15	12.0
30-40 hrs per wk (Normal Full Time)	64	51.2
50+ hrs per wk (Heavy Full Time)	46	36.8
Total	125	100.0

Table 6.9 revealed that this was an older sample with more women aged above 41 years. Furthermore nearly 60% of women in this

cohort had 4 or more children/dependants living with them. Status was almost split equally between senior and middle level employees. Again an almost equal number of women had been married fifteen years or less which probably goes to buttress the fact that much of the sample is older. This is quite typical of the Ghanaian working environment as the older women would have risen through the ranks to reach middle or senior level. The age of children living with respondents was almost equally split between 15 years or less.

Tenure revealed an almost equal number of women within the senior and middle level ranks which typifies the higher status occupation, which is the focus of this thesis. Hours worked showed that most women worked normal to heavy full time, which is typical as confirmed by women in Study 1 as well as by spouses of women interviewed in Study 2. From the frequencies a small number of conclusions can be drawn.

With more women having children and dependants, coupled with more women having normal to heavy working schedules, the implication for the final regression analysis cannot be overlooked. This is because children and dependents living with professional women, coupled with the number of hours worked is known to impact women's experience of WFI (Barnett, 2002). The next set of

descriptive analysis focused on predictor and outcome variables used in Study 3. Table 6.10 gives a summary of the descriptive statistics as well as reliability coefficients of each factor.

Table 6.10: Descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients of predictors and outcomes

Variable	No. of items	Max/Min statistic	Mean score	SD	α	Mean score/maximum possible score
<i>WRS predictors</i>						
<i>Self report of...</i>						
Undertaking daily work tasks	7	0-28	15.65	5.40	0.75	0.56
Stress of expectations	6	0-24	10.30	4.80	0.75	0.43
'Outside stress'	5	0-20	10.28	3.91	0.70	0.51
'Personal worry'	5	0-20	12.35	3.92	0.68	0.62
<i>WFI predictors</i>						
<i>Experience of...</i>						
'Time poverty'	8	0-32	20.42	6.22	0.87	0.64
Family strain	5	0-20	12.67	6.50	0.75	0.63
Family exhaustions	6	0-24	14.83	5.30	0.80	0.62
'Unchanged plans'	4	0-16	8.60	3.70	0.72	0.54
<i>Outcomes</i>						
<i>Self-reported...</i>						
Job satisfaction	10	0-40	24.36	5.88	0.83	0.61
Family satisfaction	10	0-40	27.96	7.77	0.80	0.70
<i>Feelings of being...</i>						
Worn out	12	0-48	21.44	7.95	0.90	0.45
'Tense'	12	0-48	15.72	7.08	0.85	0.33

Key

M= means; SD= Standard deviation; WRS = Work-related stress; WFI= Work-family interference

A number of conclusions could be drawn from these data. From the frequency of WRS predictors, women were more likely to report 'personal worry' (dealing with things that affected them personally) as affecting them in the work environment (0.62: m/max), followed by undertaking daily tasks (0.56), and outside stress (stress originating outside the worker's control) (0.52); with stress of expectations (pressure to perform both from superiors and peers) being reported as the least factor in predicting WRS, (0.43). Scores for WFI predictors were also interesting.

Ghanaian professional women were likely to report experiencing more time poverty (0.64: m/max), family strain (0.63) and family exhaustion (0.62) than unchanged family plans (inability to accomplish family plans owing to work pressures), (0.54). From the table it is apparent that worrying about personal issues at work brought much stress to women than other things at work. Again women's lack of time in dealing with personal as well as important family issues accounted for much of the WFI experienced by Ghanaian professional women.

Additionally a number of observations ought to be made with regard outcomes. The table reveals that women reported more family

satisfaction (0.70: m/max) than job satisfaction (0.61). Further observations could be made in relation to normative data. In terms of general well-being, the worn out mean was 21.44 (0.45: m/max) which is higher than the average score (17.4) characteristic of an international female population (Cox and Griffiths, 1995), but comparable to group norms of managers (20.6) and unemployed individuals (19.98) (Cox et al., 1983). The tense mean for the sample was 15.72 (0.33: m/max) which is also higher than the normative score for female population across countries (10.7), Cox and Griffiths, (1995).

Consequently one can conclude from the table that women in this sample experienced more 'worn out' symptoms at home after work than 'tense'. Again this seems to suggest that this sample of Ghanaian professional women were more worn out and tense than their international counterparts. The overall mean for job satisfaction was 24.36, indicating high levels of job satisfaction among the sample. Family satisfaction also had a high mean score for this sample (27.96), an indication that this sample of Ghanaian women were generally satisfied with their family lives in spite of the fact that they reported being worn out.

The next set of descriptive statistics for the study was for support and coping variables. Table 6.11 provides a summary.

Table 6.11: Descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients for different types of support and for use of coping strategies

Variable	No. of items	Range	Mean score	SD	α	Mean score/max. possible score
<i>Receipt of ...</i>						
Supervisor support	5	0-20	11.22	4.55	0.82	0.56
Colleague support	4	0-16	9.65	3.50	0.78	0.60
S & C support	8	0-32	22.55	10.96	0.83	0.70
HH support	2	0-8	4.15	2.82	0.90	0.52
<i>Use of ...</i>						
Autonomous coping strategies	11	0-44	29.15	12.21	0.79	0.66
Personal-social coping strategies	6	0-24	15.60	8.04	0.74	0.65
Environmental coping strategies	5	0-20	10.45	6.85	0.75	0.52

KEY: S & C= spouse and child; HH=house help

Some conclusions can be drawn from the above table. Women in this sample received more colleague support (0.60: m/max) in dealing with WRS experienced at work than supervisor support (0.56). Again this sample of Ghanaian professional women received more spousal/child support at home (0.70) than house help assistance (0.52). In terms of coping, women in this sample used autonomous coping strategies (cognitive restructuring) (0.66: m/max) and personal-social coping strategies (seeking extra social support) (0.65), more than environmental coping strategies (person/environmental transaction) (0.52).

6.3.7 Analysis of relationships with refined research model

In order to find out whether differences existed in the frequency of control variables, an independent sample test was carried to compare predictor, outcome, support and coping scores for control variables. The T-tests revealed that with age of the respondent there was a significant difference in group scores. The results indicate that younger women were more likely to report being worn out ($M=2.17$, $SD=0.55$) than their older counterparts ($M=1.76$, $SD=0.68$); $t(123) = 2.39$, $p=.05$ (two-tailed).

For duration of marriage the T-test revealed that there were significant differences. The results indicate that women who had been married for fewer years were more likely to be stressed by things that affected them personally at work ($M=2.64$, $SD=0.84$) than those who have been married longer ($M=2.31$, $SD=0.70$); $t(121) = 2.40$, $p=.01$ (two-tailed). Again women with fewer marriage years were more likely to report being worn out ($M=2.01$, $SD=0.66$) than those with more marriage years ($M=1.64$, $SD=0.65$); $t(121) = 3.20$, $p=.002$ (two-tailed). Finally the results showed that women who had been married for fewer years were less likely to receive spousal/child support, ($M=2.51$, $SD=1.13$), than those who had been married for a longer time ($M=3.08$, $SD=1.51$); $t(121) = 2.40$, $p=.02$ (two-tailed).

T-test for age of a child showed that women with younger children were more likely to be affected by personal issues at work ($M=2.6$, $SD=0.78$) than their counterparts with older children ($M=2.32$, $SD=0.76$); $t(121) = 2.16$, $p=.03$ (two-tailed). Additionally women with younger children reported having less time to deal with personal and family issues at home - 'time poverty' ($M=2.64$, $SD=0.77$) than women with older children ($M=2.35$, $SD=0.79$); $t(121)=2.06$, $p=.04$ (two-tailed). And finally women with younger children were more likely to report being worn out ($M=1.98$, $SD=0.66$) than those with older children ($M=1.65$, $SD=0.66$); $t(121) = 2.82$, $p=.005$ (two-tailed).

T-test for children and dependants living at home showed quite interesting results. For example women who had one to three children/dependants living with them reported experiencing more 'time poverty' ($M=2.62$, $SD=0.71$) than those who had four or more children/dependants ($M=2.27$, $SD=0.89$); $t(123) = 2.31$, $p=.02$ (two-tailed). One possible explanation for this is that there might have been older dependants (aunties, nephews etc) (see Chapter 4) living with women at the time of the survey. This would have meant that they, by helping out, would have reduced the time women would have spent on things like cooking and child care. And this would have released some more time for women to use on

themselves and other family issues. For example one woman from Study 1 said:

You know I am glad Maabena (16yr old niece) and my mother are both around. At least they take over the house after school looking after the little ones (8 and 10 year olds) till we (husband and wife) come home. It helps me concentrate at work knowing everything is fine. [Human Resource Manager]

Again women with fewer children/dependants were more likely to report experiencing family strain ($M=2.71$, $SD=1.59$) than those with more children/dependants ($M=2.03$, $SD=1.05$); $t(123) = 2.31$, $p=.01$ (two-tailed).

T-test results of organisational status indicated that women in middle level management were more likely to report being affected by personal issues at work ($M=2.67$, $SD=0.74$) than their senior counterparts ($M=2.25$, $SD=0.77$); $t(123) = 3.07$, $p=.003$ (two tailed). Additionally the results revealed that women at senior level of management were more likely to adopt personal-social strategies in coping with stress at work ($M=2.84$, $SD=1.61$) than those in middle level management ($M=2.37$, $SD=0.98$); $t(121) = 1.98$, $p=.05$ (two-tailed).

Results on tenure also reveal significant differences in means for predictor and outcome variables. For example the results show that

women who had worked in their organisation for eight years or less were more likely to report being stressed by undertaking daily tasks at work ($M=2.50$, $SD=0.74$) than those who have worked in their organisation for more than eight years ($M=2.17$, $SD=0.80$); $t(123)=2.20$, $p=.03$ (two-tailed).

Again the T-test results revealed that women with eight or less years of tenure were more likely to report experiencing 'time poverty' ($M=2.73$, $SD=0.62$) than women with more than eight years of tenure ($M=2.36$, $SD=0.86$); $t(123)=2.64$, $p=.009$ (two-tailed). Results further revealed that women with lower tenure were more likely to report experiencing family exhaustion ($M=2.70$, $SD=0.70$) than those with higher tenure ($M=2.31$, $SD=0.86$); $t(123)=2.64$, $p=.009$ (two-tailed).

Finally women with lower tenure were more likely to report being worn out ($M=2.05$, $SD=0.70$) than those with higher tenure ($M=1.70$, $SD=0.62$); $t(123)=3.08$, $p=.003$ (two-tailed); on the other hand women with higher tenure were more likely to report more family satisfaction ($M=2.90$, $SD=0.82$) than women with lower tenure ($M=2.63$, $SD=0.67$); $t(123)=1.90$, $p=.05$ (two-tailed).

The final T-test was on hours worked per week. The result show that women who had heavy work schedules (see. Table 6.9) were more likely to report being stressed at work by things that affected

them personally ($M=2.27$, $SD\ 0.82$) than those who had normal work schedules (see Table 6:9), ($M=1.97$, $SD=0.70$); $t(108) = 1.93$, $p=.05$ (two-tailed). Additionally women with heavy work schedules were more likely to report about their inability to make to make changes to family plans ($M=2.62$, $SD=1.07$) than their counterparts with normal schedules ($M=2.15$, $SD=1.07$); $t(108)=2.50$, $p=.01$ (two-tailed). And finally women with heavy schedules were more likely to report being worn out ($M=2.05$, $SD=0.67$) than those with normal schedules ($M=1.75$, $SD=0.65$); $t(108) = 2.33$, $p=.02$ (two-tailed).

6.3.8 Summary of initial findings

Preliminary findings of Study 3 were quite interesting. For example the descriptive statistics pointed to an older sample (i.e. more women above 40 years), with more women having four or more dependants living at home (see Table 6:11). Again majority of women had longer tenure and also had more normal to heavy schedules. There was however a nearly equal split in terms of work status, age of children and duration of marriage.

Comparison of means of subscales using the refined research model with M/\max show that Ghanaian women's self-report of issues that affected them personally at work was the highest predictor of WRS, while time poverty, family strain and family exhaustion were all

high predictors of WFI. Again women were more likely to report family satisfaction than job satisfaction, while reporting being more worn out than tense (see Table 6.10).

The results of the analysis of relationships within the refined research model (Figure 6:11) using t-test are also interesting. The results indicate that the most at risk group were younger women, the bulk of who were middle level managers. This is because they were more likely to have been married for fewer years, with younger children and dependants, as well as having shorter tenures. They were thus more likely to report being affected by personal issues at work, being stressed by daily tasks at work; experience more time poverty and receiving less spousal/child support. Again these younger women were more likely to report experiencing family exhaustion, being worn out and experiencing less family satisfaction than their older counterparts.

The most striking result was the t-tests for children and dependants living at home with women. The results showed that women with one to three children/dependants reported experiencing more time poverty and family strain than women with four or more children/dependants. A possible explanation to this, which ought to be understood in the Ghanaian cultural context as opposed to typical western society, is this: Women with four or more

children/dependants probably had older children/dependants than younger children/dependants who gave the needed support at home freeing valuable time for these women, and also reducing the strain that would have otherwise affected their families.

6.4 Chapter summary

This chapter introduced the quantitative aspect of the thesis. It described in full how Study 1 (qualitative study on the incidence and effect of WRS and WFI on Ghanaian women) and Study 2 (Ghanaian men's perception on the impact of WRS and WFI on their spouses) were integrated into Study 3. Again the procedure and validation of the pilot study for Study 3 were described. Next the initial research model, as well as the cluster of items used to measure key components of the research model were discussed. Furthermore the justification for using PCA in the development of sub-scales and the results of the factor analysis were outlined. Additionally the methods, including data screening used to obtain the sample for Study 3 were discussed. Finally the descriptive analyses, as well as inferential analysis of relationships (using t-tests) within the refined research model, and the preliminary findings for Study 3 were outlined.

The next chapter presents the results of the multivariate analyses, including regression analysis and hierarchical regression of the main scales developed and validated in Chapter 6. The refined research model is also further refined and tested in this next chapter, as part of the hypothesis testing.

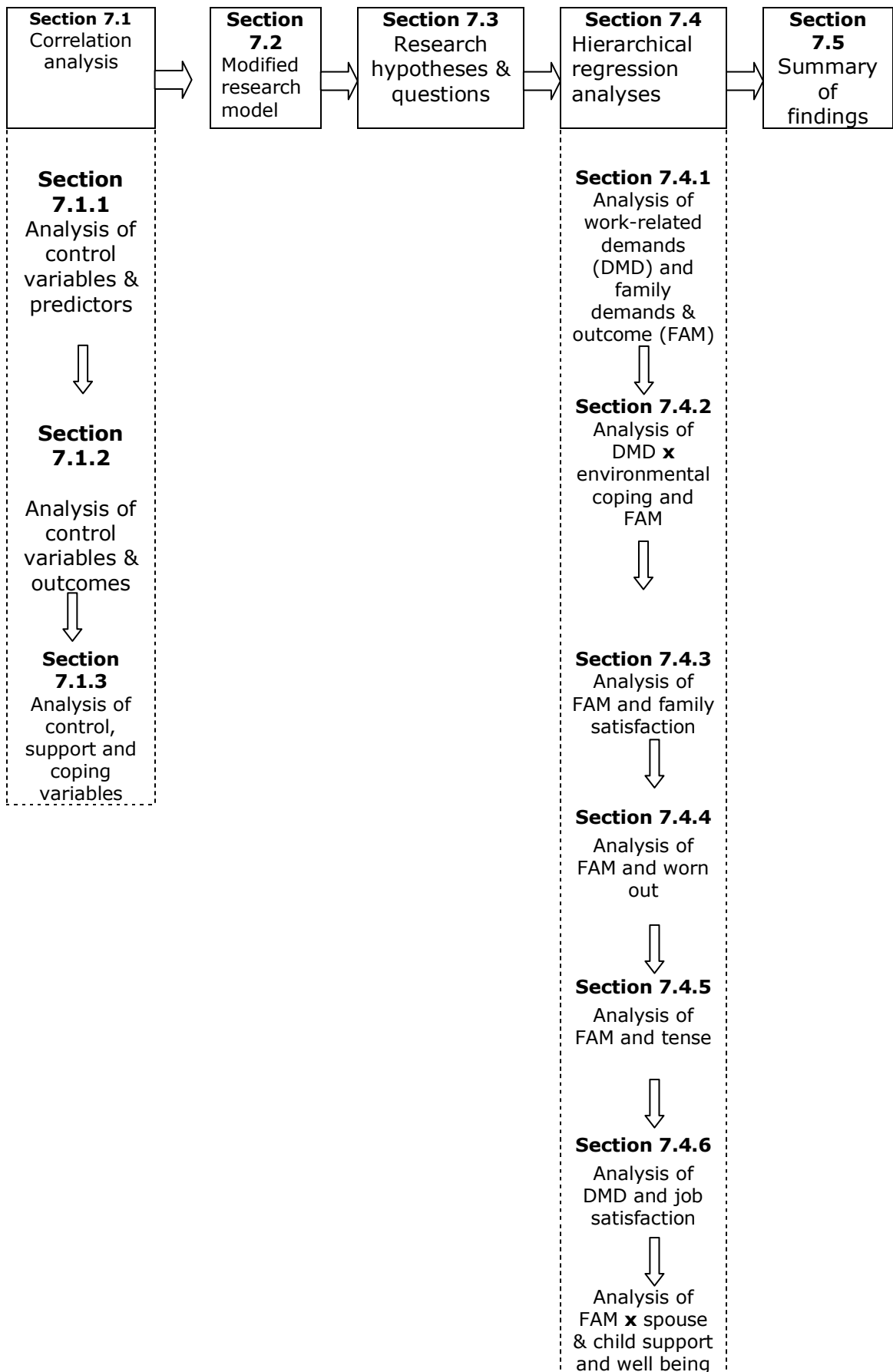
Chapter 7

Quantitative Study (Study 3)

7.0 Overview

Chapter Six discussed the integration of Studies 1 and 2 into Study 3, which culminated in the development of scales and the subsequent refining of the initial research model (Figure 6:2) and the suggestion of a refined model (Figure 6:11). In the current chapter, multivariate statistics are used to analyse the relationships within the refined research model. As part of the process, the psychometric properties of the behaviour of key variables in the refined model were examined in more detail. Specifically, correlation analyses are first used to check on the relationships between the key variables in the sub-scales and also highlight any multicollinearity that may breach the assumptions for their subsequent use in regression analysis. On the basis of these analyses, the refined research was further modified. Next the results of the hierarchical regression used to test the modified research model are outlined. The structure of the current chapter is displayed in Figure 7:1.

Figure 7.1: Chapter 7 structure



7.1 Correlation analysis of study variables

Correlations cannot be regarded as implying causal relationships (Dancey and Reidy, 2007), but its use at this point in the thesis was not only to discover the relationships that existed between the variables which is unlikely to occur by sampling error, but also to determine the direction as well as the magnitude of the relationships. This was important as these conditions will determine the variables to be included in further regression analyses. Indeed Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) caution against the use of two variables with bivariate correlations of 0.70 and above in the same analysis. They suggest the use of only one of such variables instead of both as that will amount to multicollinearity, violating one of the assumptions for the use of multiple regressions. Instead only one of the variables should be used. The results of the correlation analysis are presented later in Section 7.1.2.

7.1.1 Correlations among control and predictor variables for Ghanaian women

Before testing for the appropriateness of the refined research model (see Figure 6.11) to be used in further regression analysis, correlation analyses were performed on all the variables in the model, together with the control variables (see Table 6.9). This analysis was needed to check whether there is a relationship between the variables which is not attributable to sampling error. Additionally, the analysis was needed to determine the direction and strength of these relationships; since these have implications for future regression analysis and subsequent model building.

Preliminary investigation of the relationships between control variables and predictor variables within the refined research model were conducted using Pearson's product-moment correlations. The results are presented in Table 7.1(see p. 240). Table 7.1 shows that overall, control variables were moderately correlated. Age correlated moderately with duration of marriage ($r=0.42$), age of child ($r=0.36$) and job tenure ($r=0.45$). However with children and dependants the correlation was low ($r=0.19$). Duration of marriage also correlated moderately with job status ($r=0.54$) and job tenure ($r=0.32$). Age of child also correlated moderately with children and dependants ($r=0.33$) and job tenure ($r=0.36$). The correlation

between hours worked and other control variable however, was not significant.

Intercorrelations between work-related demands variables ranged from a moderate of 0.3, to a high 0.6. Daily tasks correlated highly with stress of expectations ($r= 0.61$) and moderately with outside stress ($r= 0.40$, and personal worry ($r= 0.36$). Stress of expectations also correlated moderately with outside stress ($r=0.35$) and personal worry ($r=0.33$), while the correlation between outside stress and personal worry was also moderate ($r=0.49$). Since none of the intercorrelations between control variables as well as work-related demand variables was above the 0.7 threshold for multicollinearity as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), both scales were deemed as appropriate to be used in subsequent regression analysis.

Intercorrelations between family demands and outcomes variables ranged from moderate, 0.3 to very high 0.7. Time poverty correlated moderately with family strain ($r=0.36$), very high with family exhaustion ($r=0.76$), and moderately high with unchanged plans ($r=0.57$). Family strain on the other hand correlated moderately with both family exhaustion ($r=0.40$) and unchanged plans ($r=0.53$). Finally family exhaustion correlated moderately with unchanged plans ($r=0.52$).

The correlation between time poverty and family exhaustion ($r=0.76$ shaded in grey) in Table 7.1, falls above the threshold of 0.7 recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), for conducting additional regression analysis. This implied the violation of one of the assumptions of conducting regression analysis – multicollinearity (no bivariate correlation above the threshold should be used in the same analysis). Consequently family exhaustion was removed from subsequent analysis. Two main reasons informed this decision. First was the fact that time poverty has a higher internal reliability ($\alpha =0.87$) than family exhaustion ($\alpha =0.80$) (see Table 6.3). Second, findings from Chapter 6 indicated that Ghanaian women were more likely to report experiencing time poverty than family exhaustion (see Table 6.10).

7.1.2 Correlations among control variables and outcomes for Ghanaian professional women

Pearson's product-moment correlation was also used to investigate the relationships between control variables and outcomes. The results shown in Table 7.2 (p. 241) indicate that age of respondent had a low negative correlation with worn out ($r=-0.21$), while job status had a low positive correlation with family satisfaction ($r=0.18$), and a low negative correlation with worn out (-0.28). Age of a child also negatively correlated with worn out ($r=-0.25$). Job

tenure was negatively correlated with worn out (-0.27), while hours work per week was positively correlated with worn out (0.28). Job satisfaction was positively correlated with family satisfaction ($r=0.36$), but negatively correlated with both worn out (-0.24) and tense (-0.33). Finally, worn out and tense were high and positively correlated ($r=0.62$). None of the variables in Table 7.2 violates the assumption of multicollinearity, so the scales were deemed as appropriate for use in further multiple regression analyses.

7.1.3 Correlations among control, support and coping variables for Ghanaian women

These correlations are shown in Table 7.3 (p. 242). Duration of marriage was negatively correlated with colleague support ($r=-0.21$), while hours worked per week was positively correlated with home assistance ($r=0.18$). Job status was also positively correlated spouse and child support ($r=0.21$). Supervisor support was positively correlated with colleague support ($r=0.61$) and personal-social coping strategies ($r=0.29$). Colleague support was positively correlated with personal-social coping strategies ($r=0.22$). Home assistance was negatively correlated with autonomous coping strategies ($r=-0.19$), while autonomous coping was positively correlated with both personal-social coping strategies ($r=.24$) and

environmental coping strategies ($r=0.44$). All scales within this correlation analysis were deemed appropriate for further regression analysis as none of the values violates the assumption of multicollinearity. The next section describes the processes and reasons that undergirded the modification of the refined research model.

Table 7.1: Correlations among control and predictor variables for Ghanaian women

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Age	1														
2. Duration of marriage	.424**	1													
3. Job status	.062	.538**	1												
4. Age of child	.358**	-.058	-.072	1											
5.Children/dependants	.189*	.207**	.091	.329**	1										
6. Job tenure	.456**	.318**	.033	.362**	.233	1									
7. Hrs. worked per week	-.019	-.084	.120	-.052	-.135	.035	1								
8. Daily tasks	-.108	-.023	-.042	-.127	-.141	-.192*	.101	1							
9. Stress of expectations	-.008	.116	.047	-.056	.020	-.022	-.084	.609**	1						
10. Outside stress	-.035	-.026	.148	-.067	.039	-.041	.014	.398**	.352**	1					
11. Personal worry	-.097	-.214**	.267**	-.193*	-.098	-.169	.003	.366**	.332**	.489**	1				
12. 'Time poverty'	-.127	-.094	.035	-.184*	-.204*	-.233**	.169	.432**	.264**	.166	.270**	1			
13. Family strain	.051	.096	-.034	.104	-.217*	-.012	.089	.063	.081	.077	.133	.359*	1		
14. Family exhaustion	-.127	-.052	-.051	-.123	-.105	-.233**	.109*	.435**	.298**	.165	.263**	.763**	.403**	1	
15. 'Unchanged plans'	.006	.030	-.018	.076	-.156	-.082	.148	.266	.284**	.033	.164	.577**	.527**	.523**	1

*p<.05, **p<.01

N.B: Correlation coefficients have been rounded up to 2 decimal places in the text

Table 7.2: Correlations between control variables and well being outcomes of Ghanaian women

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	1										
2. Duration of marriage	.062	1									
3. Job status	.424*	-.058	1								
4. Age of child	.358*	-.072	.538**	1							
5.Children/dependants	.189*	.091	.207*	.329**	1						
6. Job tenure	.456**	.033	.318**	.362**	.223*	1					
7. Hrs. worked per week	-.019	.120	-.084	-.052	-.135	.035	1				
8. Job satisfaction	.155	-.094	.036	.045	.106	.088	-.108	1			
9. Family satisfaction	.125	-.105	.178*	.136	.005	.170	-.136	.360**	1		
10. Worn out	-.211*	-.008	-.279**	-.249**	-.121	-.268**	.280**	-.241**	-.376**	1	
11. Tense	-.033	.000	.020	-.146	-.132	-.005	.175	-.328**	-.368**	.620**	1

*p<.05, **p<.01

N.B: Correlation coefficients have been rounded up to 2 decimal places in the text

Table 7.3: Intercorrelations between control, support and coping variables for Ghanaian women

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	1													
2. Duration of marriage	.062	1												
3. Job status	.424**	-.058	1											
4. Age of child	.358**	-.072	.538**	1										
5.Children/dependants	.189*	.091	.207*	.329**	1									
6. Job tenure	.456**	.033	.318**	.362**	.223*	1								
7. Hrs. worked per week	-.019	.120	-.084	-.052	-.135	.035	1							
8. Supervisor support	.004	-.067	-.006	-.161	-.134	-.026	-.136	1						
9. Colleague support	-.100	-.216*	-.049	-.137	-.130	-.115	-.032	.610**	1					
10. Spouse/child support	-.050	-.010	.210*	.091	-.134	.062	.047	.059	.084	1				
11. Home assistance	-.068	-.016	.001	.084	.029	.140	.183*	-.049	-.014	.130	1			
12. Autonomous coping strategies	.060	.099	.031	.114	.108	.040	.071	-.052	-.118	.023	.114	1		
13. Personal-social coping strategies	.071	-.177	-.022	.123	.029	-.064	-.050	.296**	.226*	.066	-.189*	.238**	1	
14. Environmental coping strategies	.045	.021	.035	.130	.074	.089	.017	-.007	-.115	.013	-.012	.441**	.149	1

*p<.05, **p<.01

N.B: Correlation coefficients have been rounded up to 2 decimal places in the text

7.2 Modified research model

In order to ensure that all the scales to be used in the final hierarchical regression conformed to the assumptions of statistical analyses and also to reduce the complexity of the refined model, (Figure 6:10) changes were made to the research model. These changes were conducted in two steps.

First, owing to the decision to remove family exhaustions from further analysis (see Section 7.1.1) the model had to be altered to reflect this change. Additionally, it was decided to collapse two of the scales (i.e. work-related demands and family demands and outcomes (see Figure 6:10), to simplify the refined research model by reducing the number of variables to be tested in the model. This was necessary because apart from ensuring that the model to be tested retained an acceptable level of complexity, it was equally important to guarantee an increase in the power of the test for the model with the number of participants (125) available. Hence the collapsing of these scales ensured that the numbers of predictors to be tested in the model were reduced to an appreciable level (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). However, subscales in the well-being domain (Figure 6:10) were maintained as individual scales for the modified model. Job

satisfaction and family satisfaction in the refined model were single factor scales with high internal reliability and Cronbach's alpha (see Tables 6.5 and 6.6); they were also maintained. Additionally since worn out and tense are established subscales with high Cronbach's alphas, (see Table 6.4), they were also maintained as individual scales.

Neither the work moderators (work support and coping subscales) nor the family moderators (spouse and child, and house help subscales) (see Figure 6.10) in the refined research model lent themselves to the process of collapsing the data. Even though they had high individual Cronbach's alphas, the internal reliabilities of the scales dropped below 0.6 when they were collapsed. And in line with George and Mallery (2003) who suggests that such a reliability coefficient renders the scale a poor one, the decision was consequently made to maintain them as individual subscales in the modified model in order to maintain the statistical integrity of the model as well as subsequent findings. The work-related demands scale, which had all the subscales (undertaking daily tasks, stress of expectations, outside stress and personal worry) maintained during the merger process, had a reliability of ($\alpha = 0.75$). Finally, the family demands and outcomes scale which had the family exhaustion subscale removed (see

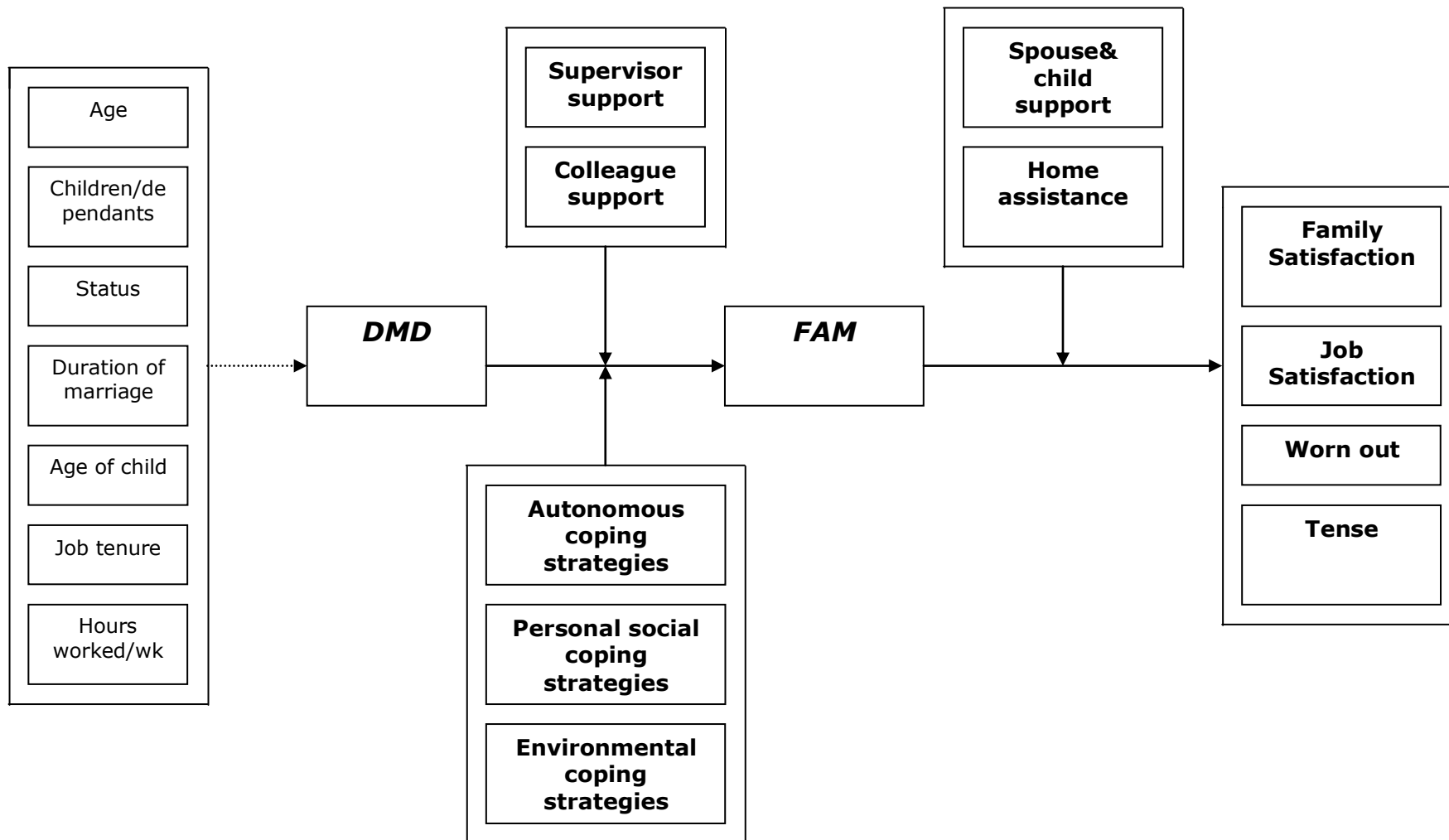
Section 7.1), as a result of multicollinearity with time poverty, had an internal reliability of ($\alpha = 0.78$). So only the remaining three subscales (time poverty, family strain and unchangeable plans) were collapsed. All the scales, including the new merged scales as well as the individual scales, were considered appropriate for use in the regression analyses. The summary of the original subscales that were collapsed, and new scales together with their internal reliabilities, are shown in **Table 7.4**.

Table 7.4: Summary of original subscales used to form new scales and their Cronbach's alphas

<i>Original subscales</i>	<i>Original αs</i>	<i>New scale</i>	<i>New α</i>
1. Undertaking daily tasks	0.75	} Work-related demands (DMD)	0.75
2. Stress of expectations	0.75		
3. Outside stress	0.70		
4. Personal worry	0.68		
1. Time poverty	0.87	} Family demands & outcomes (FAM)	0.78
2. Family strain	0.75		
3. Unchangeable plans	0.72		

The modified research model, which emerged as a result of the incorporation of new scales, DMD and FAM as well as the control variables, is shown in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2: Modified research model with control variables



The modified model as shown in Figure 7.2 incorporates the changes to work-related demands and family demands and outcomes domains (see Figure 6:10). The work-related demands scale is now replaced with the new collapsed scale DMD, while family demands and outcomes scale is replaced with the collapsed scale, FAM. The model envisages that control variables will affect work-related demands (DMD), which in turn will directly affect family outcomes and effects (FAM). The model however envisages the impact of DMD on FAM being moderated by work support (supervisor and colleague support) and work coping strategies (autonomous, personal-social and environmental coping strategies). The final stage of the model sees FAM as predicting women's well being while being moderated by home support (spouse and child support and home assistance).

7.3 Research questions and hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses were formulated to test the modified research model.

Hypothesis 1: Work-related demands will be positively related to family demands and outcomes, moderated

by supervisor and colleague support, as well as the type of coping strategy women use at work.

Question 1a: Which control variable is the best predictor of women's experience of family demands and outcomes (FAM)?

Question 1b: How well do the two measures of work support moderate the impact of work-related stress (DMD) on women's family demands and outcomes (FAM)?

Question 1c: Which coping strategy is the best moderator of the effect of DMD on FAM after controlling for DMD?

Question 1d: What effect does work related- demands have on women's well being?

Hypothesis 2: Family demands and outcomes will be negatively related women's experience of job and family satisfaction; and the relationship will be moderated by women's receipt of home support.

Hypothesis 3: Women's reported feeling of tense and worn out will be negatively related to family demands and outcomes, moderated by the receipt of home support.

Question 3a: Which control variable(s) best predicted woman's well being (i.e. job satisfaction, family satisfaction, worn out and tense).

Question 3b: To what extent do the two measures of home support ameliorate the impact of FAM on women's well being?

The next section presents the results of the hierarchical regression based on this modified research model.

7.4 Hierarchical regression analyses

Multiple hierarchical regression analysis was chosen to test the appropriateness of the modified research model. This type of regression analysis was chosen because it lends itself to the explicit control of other factors that may simultaneously affect the dependent (outcome) variable and its relationship with the main predictors. In this regard hierarchical regression allows

for the examination of associations in cases where simple regression may miss or misrepresent such inferences. Additionally as an approach, hierarchical regression is flexible as it allows for more factors that are useful in explaining the dependent variable to be considered. This means that one can be confident of building reasonably sound models that are able to predict dependent variables.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest a minimum of $50+8m$ (where m is the number of predictors) for testing a model and $104+m$ for testing individual predictors. This means that ideally one needs a minimum of 154 subjects to conduct a regression analysis of the nature reported here. However of the 13 predictors used in this particular regression, 7 were control variables. And they accounted for 0.7% of R^2 and an adjusted R^2 of 0.1% (see Table 7.5c) and their effects was consistently non significant (see Table 7.5a), with the exception of hours worked per week in Step 2.

Furthermore these control variables account for less than 1% of the data. So though they are put in the model for 'completeness', individually and collectively they do not make a significant contribution to the model and do not affect the outcome. It is therefore argued here that, in the light of this, it was safe to continue with the slightly fewer subjects than

recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Thus the 125 subjects used for the regression analyses were thus deemed appropriate.

Again one can further argue that the nature of the variables to be measured is also vital in establishing the power of the test to be undertaken. And since all the scales and sub scales in the both the refined and subsequent modified research model had high reliability coefficients (see Table 6.10 and Table 7.4); it is safe to use the scales as per the modified model. The regression analyses were consequently run to reflect the modified research model (Figure 7.2).

There were two main stages of the analyses. The first stage examined the relationship between control variables, DMD (as a predictor), work support (supervisor and colleague support) coping strategies at work and FAM as an outcome. The second stage examined the relationship between control variables, FAM (as a predictor), home support (spouse and child and home assistance) and well being variables (family satisfaction, job satisfaction, worn out and tense) as outcomes.

Additional moderation and mediation analyses were conducted as part of the strategy to test the modified research model.

Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest that a moderator variable can be a qualitative (e.g. sex, race, class) or quantitative variable that affects the direction and or strength of the relationship between the predictor variable and the criterion variable. Consequently, a moderator specifies the conditions under which a given effect occurs, as well as the conditions under which the direction or strength of an effect vary. And it has been argued that any study that attempts to identify moderators of relationships between the predictor and criterion variables shows not only maturity but sophistication in that particular field of enquiry (Aguinis, et al., 2001). In moderation analysis a new product term (predictor x envisaged moderator) is created, and entered into the regression equation after the control variable, and then the predictor variables have been entered. The moderation hypothesis is supported if the product term (new variable) has a significant relationship with the criterion variable, after the main effects of its components have been accounted for. It is however rejected if the relationship is not significant. In the current chapter the moderator analysis was conducted with the new product term WDEC to find out whether environmental coping strategies moderated the relationship between work-related demands (WRS) and family demands and outcomes (WFI).

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation on the other hand is the mechanism through which a second independent variable is shown to convey the effects of the criterion variable of interest. They further suggest that mediation analysis is best done when there is a strong relationship between the predictor and criterion variable. In mediation the predictor variable influences the mediator, which in turn influences the outcome (Shadish and Sweeny, 1991). It is important to point out however that the relationship is not necessarily causal. Mediation analysis depends on a comparison of the regression models involving the variable of interest, where the order of entry of the independent variable is reversed from one analysis to the other. Mediation analysis was conducted in the present chapter to find out whether DMD mediated FAM in women's worn out and tense symptoms.

7.4.1 Hierarchical regression of work-related demands (DMD) and family demands and outcomes (FAM) as outcome (Stage 1)

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the ability of control, support and coping variables to predict FAM after controlling for DMD. Further analyses conducted ensured

there were no violations of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. An examination of collinearity statistics revealed no problems with the tolerance (an indicator of how much the specified independent is not explained by the other independent in the model; with the formula $1 - R^2$ for each variable). The variance inflation factor (VIF), which is an inverse of the tolerance also revealed no problems. An examination of the Mahalanobis (which measures the distance of cases from the means of the predictor variables) and Cook's distances (the measure of the overall influence of a case on the model) showed no problems. And finally, a check on Durbin-Watson's test (which tests whether adjacent residuals are correlated), revealed that no assumptions of independent errors have been violated.

Analysis of FAM as the dependent variable was completed in four steps. The control variables (Age, Children and dependants, Status, Duration of marriage, Age of child, Job tenure and Hours work per week), which were also expected to predict FAM were put in the first block, to examine their variance as well as extract any potential effects. This was followed by the other variables under exploration (i.e. DMD, work support and coping strategies at work).

Rather than presenting the results of multiple regression analyses as recommended by the American Psychological Association (APA), regression analyses are presented here as recommended by Field (2009, p. 252). The reason for this choice of reporting style is that the APA guidelines suggest reporting only standardised betas, their significance values, and general statistics about the model (e.g. R²). This comprehensive reporting style recommended by Field allows the interested reader to reconstruct the regression model if needed as all important indicators in the model can be seen at a glance (Knight, 2009). Table 7.5 shows the changes in the model at each step.

Table 7.5: Hierarchical regression model for work-related demands as predictor and family demands and outcomes as outcome: Details of regression models

Model	B	SE B	β
STEP 1 (Control variables)			
Constant	2.52	0.35	
Age	0.05	0.26	0.02
Children/dependants	-0.18	0.16	-0.11
Job status	-0.04	0.15	-0.03
Duration of marriage	0.10	0.19	0.06
Age of child	0.09	0.19	0.06
Job tenure	-0.30	0.18	-0.18
Hours worked per week	0.27	0.12	0.18
STEP 2 (Work-related demands)			
Constant	1.56	0.42	

Age	0.07	0.25	0.03
Children/dependants	-0.20	0.16	-0.12
Job status	-0.11	0.15	-0.07
Duration of marriage	0.06	0.18	0.04
Age of child	0.17	0.18	0.10
Job tenure	-0.24	0.17	-0.14
Hours worked per week	0.23	0.11	0.18*

Work-related demands (DMD)	0.45	0.12	0.33***

STEP 3 (Support)

Constant	1.86	0.49	
Age	0.09	0.25	0.04
Children/dependants	-0.20	0.15	-0.12
Job status	-0.12	0.15	-0.07
Duration of marriage	0.08	0.18	0.05
Age of child	0.11	0.18	0.07
Job tenure	-0.12	0.17	-0.14
Hours worked per week	0.20	0.11	0.16

DMD	0.45	0.12	0.33***

Supervisor support	-0.15	0.10	-0.16
Colleague support	0.03	0.11	0.03

STEP 4 (Coping)

Constant	1.86	0.52	
Age	0.14	0.24	0.06
Children/dependants	-0.25	0.15	-0.15
Job status	-0.11	0.15	-0.07
Duration of marriage	0.08	0.18	0.05
Age of child	0.10	0.18	0.06
Job tenure	-0.28	0.17	-0.17
Hours worked per week	0.19	0.11	0.16

DMD	0.42	0.12	0.31***

Supervisor support	-0.16	0.10	-0.18
Colleague support	0.07	0.11	0.07

Autonomous coping strategies	-0.09	0.07	0.12
Personal-social coping strategies	-0.04	0.06	-0.07

Environmental coping strategies	0.18	0.06	0.31**

Note: $R^2 = 0.07$ for Step 1, $R^2 = 0.17$ for Step 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.10$, $p < .05$, $p < .001$). $*p < .05$, $***p < .001$. $R^2 = 0.19$ for Step 3 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.02$, $p < .001$). $***p < .001$. $R^2 = 0.30$ for Step 4 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.11$, $p < .001$). $**p < .05$, $***p < .001$.

The hierarchical regression analysis summarised in **Table 7.5** suggests that the covariate, hours worked per week (only in Step 2) and predictors, work-related demands and environmental coping were significant predictors of family demands and outcomes. Both work-related demands and environmental coping were significant, in the final model; and both of them were positively related to FAM. This means that as Ghanaian women reported experiencing work-related demands (DMD), they were also more likely to experience family demands and outcomes. And they were likely to resort to environmental coping strategies at work to deal with DMD. So in Step 4 with all the control variables and predictor variables in the model, the adjusted R^2 value of 0.18 indicates that nearly a fifth of the variance in reported experience of family demands and outcomes by Ghanaian professional women is predicted by DMD and environmental coping strategies. This compares to an R^2 value of 0.17 in Step 2, when only the control variables and DMD had been added; and 0.19 in Step 3 when the control variables, DMD and work support had been added. The next set of regression tables

outlines the significance of the Steps in the regression model, and the significance of the main variables in the regression.

Table 7.6: Hierarchical regression model for work-related demands as predictor and family demands and outcomes as outcome: significance of each step in regression model

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.616	7	.802	1.22	.300 ^a
	Residual	71.254	108	.660		
	Total	76.870	115			
2	Regression	13.328	8	1.666	2.81	.007 ^b
	Residual	63.542	107	.594		
	Total	76.870	115			
3	Regression	14.897	10	1.490	2.52	.009 ^c
	Residual	61.973	105	.590		
	Total	76.870	115			
4	Regression	20.745	13	1.596	2.90	.001 ^d
	Residual	56.125	102	.550		
	Total	76.870	115			

Table 7.7: Hierarchical regression model for work-related demands as predictor and family demands and outcomes as outcome: significance of contribution of main variable groups

Variable entered	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error	R ² Δ	FΔ	df1	df2	Sig.F Δ
CONTROL	0.27a	0.07	0.01	0.81	0.07	1.21	7	108	.300
DMD	0.42b	0.17	0.11	0.80	0.10	12.90***	1	107	.000

WORK SUPPORT	0.44c	0.19	0.12	0.77	0.02	1.33	2	105	.269
WORK COPING STRATEGIES	0.52d	0.27	0.18	0.74	0.08	3.54**	3	102	.017

*p<.05, ***p<.001

The analyses summarised in **Table 7.6** and **Table 7.7** suggest that at Step 1, the regression model was not significant. And this Step accounted for 7% of the variance in family demands and outcomes. The model became significant in Step 2, accounting for 17% of the variance. The model remained significant in Step 3, accounting for 19% of variance.

However the unique contribution of work support to the model was not significant (see **Table 7.7**). The model still remained significant in Step 4. And the variance increased by 8% to 27%. The contribution of work coping strategies (especially environmental coping) was significant. This indicates that work-related demands are significant predictors of Ghanaian women's experience of family demands and outcomes.

However whiles work support is not a good at predicting Ghanaian professional women's experience of family demands and outcomes, work coping strategies (environmental coping strategies in particular) are good predictors of family demands and outcomes. So the final model with all the predictor variables entered, was significant.

7.4.2 Hierarchical regression of work-related demands x environmental coping (WDEC) and family demands and outcomes (FAM)

This analysis was designed to determine whether the effect of work-related demands on family demands and outcomes was moderated by environmental coping. The question is essentially one of the interaction between demands and coping in determining the outcome of interest. The regression analysis was conducted in three steps with a new variable, work-related demands x environmental coping (WDEC). All the control variables were entered in the first step, DMD and environmental coping strategies in the second step, and WDEC in the final step. This analytical strategy assesses the additional contribution of the interaction term to the model after the main effects have been considered. The results are presented in the tables below:

Table 7.8: Hierarchical regression model for work-related demands work-related demands x environmental coping as predictors and family demands and outcomes as outcome: Details of regression models

Model	B	SE B	β
STEP 1 <i>Control variables</i>			
Constant	2.52	0.34	
Age	0.05	0.26	0.02
Children/dependants	-0.18	0.16	-0.11
Job status	-0.04	0.15	-0.03

Duration of marriage	0.10	0.19	0.06
Age of child	0.09	0.19	0.06
Job tenure	-0.30	0.18	-0.18
Hours worked per week	0.23	0.12	0.18*
STEP 2 <i>Work-related demands & environmental coping strategies</i>			
Constant	1.35	0.41	
Age	0.08	0.24	0.03
Children/dependants	-0.24	0.15	-0.14
Job status	-0.12	0.14	-0.07
Duration of marriage	0.08	0.17	0.05
Age of child	0.12	0.18	0.07
Job tenure	-0.26	0.17	-0.16
Hours worked per week	0.22	0.11	0.18*
Work-related demands (DMD)	0.45	0.12	0.32***
Environmental coping strategies	0.14	0.05	0.24**
STEP 3 <i>Work-related demand x environmental coping strategies (WDEC)</i>			
Constant	1.82	0.87	
Age	0.07	0.24	0.03
Children/dependants	-0.23	0.15	-0.14
Job status	-0.14	0.15	-0.09
Duration of marriage	0.08	0.17	0.05
Age of child	0.12	0.18	0.07
Job tenure	-0.27	0.17	-0.16
Hours worked per week	0.22	0.11	0.18*
Work-related demands (DMD)	0.67	0.38	0.49
Environmental coping strategies	0.33	0.31	0.54
WDEC	-0.43	0.71	-0.35

Note: $R^2 = 0.07$ for Step 1, $R^2 = 0.23$ for Step 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.16$, $p < .001$). * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$. $R^2 = 0.23$ for Step 3 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $p < .05$). $p > .05$.

The hierarchical regression analysis summarised in **Table 7.8** suggests that DMD and environmental coping strategies taken together were significant positive predictors of family demands

and outcomes . However having controlled for their effects WDEC was not shown to be a significant predictor of family demands and outcomes. This means that the impact of work-related demands on family demands and outcomes was not moderated by environmental coping strategies used by women at work. After Step 3 with all the control variables, DMD and environmental coping and WDEC in the model, the adjusted R^2 value of 0.16 indicates that about a fifth of the variance in reported experience of family demands and outcomes by Ghanaian professional women is predictable. This compares to an R^2 value of 0.07 in Step 1 when only the control variables had been entered, and 0.23 in Step 2, when the control variables, DMD and environmental coping strategies had been entered. There was no increase in the variance when WDEC was entered into Step 3. The next set of regression table outlines the significance of each step in the regression model, and also the unique contribution of the main variables to the model.

Table 7.9: Hierarchical regression model for work-related demands work-related demands and environmental coping as predictors, and family demands and outcomes as outcome: significance of each step in regression model

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
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1	Regression	5.71	7	0.82	1.24	.288 ^a
	Residual	72.49	110	0.66		
	Total	78.21	117			
2	Regression	17.84	9	1.98	3.55	.001 ^b
	Residual	60.37	108	0.56		
	Total	78.21	117			
3	Regression	18.05	10	1.81	3.21	.001 ^c
	Residual	60.16	107	0.56		
	Total	78.21	117			

Table 7.10: Hierarchical regression model for work-related demands work-related demands and environmental coping as predictors, and family demands and outcomes as outcome: significance of contribution of main variable groups

<i>Variable entered</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>Adjusted R²</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>R² Δ</i>	<i>FΔ</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>Sig.F Δ</i>
CONTROL	0.27a	0.07	0.01	0.81	0.07	1.24	7	110	.288
DMD & ENVIRONMENTAL COPING	0.48b	0.23	0.16	0.75	0.16	10.84***	2	108	.001
WDEC	0.48c	0.23	0.16	0.75	0.00	0.38	1	107	.541

*p<.05, ***p<.001

The analyses summarised in **Tables 7.9** and **Table 7.10** suggest that at Step 1, the regression model was not significant and it accounted for 7% of variance. The unique contribution of the control variables was also insignificant. However in Step 2, the model became significant, while accounting for 23% of the variance in the outcome. The contribution of DMD and EC (environmental coping) was also significant. The model remained significant in Step 3, but there was no change in the variance. And there were no

interaction effects between work-related demands and environmental coping (WDEC). In other words unique contribution of the new variable WDEC to the model was not significant. This indicates that work-related demands (DMD) and environmental coping strategies are significant predictors of Ghanaian women's experience of family demands and outcomes. However the combination of work-related demands x environmental coping (WDEC) is not a good predictor of Ghanaian professional women's experience of family demands and outcomes.

The next set of analyses dealt with the second stage of the main analyses, which run regressions with FAM, spouse and child support, and home assistance as predictors, and well being variables (family satisfaction, job satisfaction, worn out, and tense), as outcomes.

7.4.3 Hierarchical regression of family demands and outcomes as predictors (FAM) and well being variables as outcomes (Stage 2)

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the ability of control variables, and the main variables spouse and child support and home assistance to predict Ghanaian women's well being after controlling for FAM. All the processes needed

to ensure the appropriateness of the data set for these particular regression analyses (c.f. Section 7.3.1) were followed, before running the analyses.

7.4.3.1 Hierarchical regression of family demands and outcomes as predictors (FAM) and family satisfaction as outcome

The first well being variable to be considered as a dependent variable was family satisfaction. Specifically hierarchical regression was used to assess the ability of control, spouse and child support, and home assistance to predict family satisfaction, after controlling for FAM. The analysis was completed in three steps. The control variables were entered in the first block. FAM was entered in the second block, with spouse and child support and home assistance, in the third block. Tables 7.11, 7.12 and 7.13 give a summary of the regression analyses conducted.

Table 7.11: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and family satisfaction as outcome: Details of regression models

Model	B	SE B	β
STEP 1 <i>Control variables</i>			
Constant	3.15	0.32	
Age	0.06	0.24	0.03
Children/dependants	-0.27	0.15	-0.17

Job status	-0.10	0.14	0.06
Duration of marriage	0.16	0.18	0.10
Age of child	0.07	0.18	0.04
Job tenure	0.23	0.17	0.15
Hours worked per week	-0.16	0.11	-0.13

STEP 2 Family effect/demands

(FAM)

Constant	3.44	0.40.	
Age	0.07	0.24	0.03
Children/dependants	-0.29	0.15	-0.18*
Job status	-0.10	0.14	-0.06
Duration of marriage	0.18	0.18	0.11
Age of child	0.08	0.18	0.05
Job tenure	0.19	0.17	0.12
Hours worked per week	-0.13	0.11	-0.11
Family demands & outcomes	-0.11	0.09	-0.11

(FAM)

STEP 3 Home support (HS) (spouse/child support & home assistance)

Constant	2.97	0.41	
Age	0.21	0.23	0.10
Children/dependants	-0.83	0.14	-0.18*
Job status	-0.11	0.13	-0.71
Duration of marriage	-0.00	0.17	-0.00
Age of child	0.11	0.16	0.07
Job tenure	0.16	0.10	0.10
Hours worked per week	-0.15	0.16	-0.12
Family demands & outcomes	-0.13	0.09	-0.14
Spouse/child support	0.22	0.05	0.38*
Home assistance	-0.03	0.05	-0.05

Note: $R^2 = 0.09$ for Step 1, $R^2 = 0.10$ for Step 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $p > .05$), $*p < .05$. $R^2 = 0.23$ for Step 3 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.13$, $p < .001$).

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$.

The hierarchical regression analysis summarised in Table 7.7a suggests that children and dependants, and spouse and child support were significant predictors of family satisfaction. But while children and dependants showed a significant negative

relationship with family satisfaction, spouse and child support had a significant positive relationship. This meant that the fewer children and dependants a subject in this sample of Ghanaian professional women had in the home, the more family satisfaction she was likely to experience. And as expected the more spouse and child support she received at home, the more likely it was, for such a woman to experience family satisfaction. It is also important to point out that family demands and outcomes (FAM), as expected, was negatively related to family satisfaction. However the relationship was not significant. After Step 3 with all the control variables and predictor variables in the model, the adjusted R^2 value of 0.16 indicates that about a fifth of the variance in reported experience of family satisfaction is predicted by covariate children and dependants, and the predictor, spouse and child variables. This compares to an R^2 value of 0.10 in Step 2, when only the control variables and FAM had been added; and an R^2 value of 0.09 in Step 1 when only the control variables been added. The next set of table outlines the significance of each step and that of the main variables in the regression model.

Table 7.12: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and family satisfaction as outcome: significance of each step in regression model

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.798	7	.971	1.64	.132 ^a
	Residual	67.050	113	.593		
	Total	73.848	120			
2	Regression	7.651	8	.956	1.62	.127 ^b
	Residual	66.197	112	.591		
	Total	73.848	120			
3	Regression	17.183	10	1.718	3.34	.001 ^c
	Residual	56.665	110	.515		
	Total	73.848	120			

Table 7.13: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and family satisfaction as outcome: significance of contribution of main variable groups

Variable entered	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error	R ² Δ	FΔ	df1	df2	Sig.FΔ
CONTROL	0.30	0.09	0.03	0.77	0.09	1.64	7	113	.132
FAM	0.32	0.10	0.04	0.77	0.01	1.44	1	112	.233
HOME SUPPORT (HS)	0.48	0.23	0.16	0.71	0.13	9.25***	2	110	.001

*p<.05, ***p<.001

The analyses summarised in Table 7.12 and Table 7.13 suggests that at Step 1, the regression model was not significant. And this Step accounted for 9% of the variance in women's experience of family satisfaction. The model was again not significant in Step 2, even though there was a marginal increase of 1% in the variance. However the model

became significant in Step 3, accounting for 23% of the variance in the outcome. The final model was thus significant. This indicates that of all the variables entered in the model, only children and dependants (negatively), and spouse and child support (positively), could be said to significant predictors of Ghanaian women's experience of family satisfaction. This means that the fewer children and dependants a woman has living at home, there more likely she would report experiencing family satisfaction. Again the receipt of more spouse and child support at home was likely to increase Ghanaian women's experience of family satisfaction. The next well being variable to be analysed using hierarchical regression, was job satisfaction as a dependent variable.

7.4.3.2 Hierarchical regression of family demands and outcomes as predictors (FAM) and job satisfaction as outcome

Hierarchical regression was used to assess the ability of control and home support (i.e. spouse and child support and home assistance variables to predict job satisfaction, after controlling for FAM.

The analysis was completed in three steps. The control variables were entered in the first block. FAM was entered in the second block, and the third block had spouse and child

support, and home assistance as the variables. The results of the analyses are summarised in the tables below.

Table 7.14: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor, and job satisfaction as outcome: Details of regression models

Model	B	SE B	β
STEP 1 <i>Control variables</i>			
Constant	2.90	0.30	
Age	0.31	0.20	0.17
Children/dependants	-0.13	0.13	-0.10
Job status	-0.13	0.12	-0.10
Duration of marriage	-0.09	0.15	-0.07
Age of child	0.02	0.15	0.01
Job tenure	0.08	0.14	0.06
Hours worked per week	-0.11	0.09	-0.11
STEP 2 <i>Family effect/demands (FAM)</i>			
Constant	3.19	0.33	
Age	0.32	0.20	0.17
Children/dependants	-0.16	0.13	-0.12
Job status	-0.13	0.12	-0.02
Duration of marriage	-0.07	0.15	-0.06
Age of child	0.03	0.15	0.02
Job tenure	0.04	0.14	0.03
Hours worked per week	-0.08	0.09	-0.09
Family demands & outcomes (FAM)	-0.12	0.08	-0.15
STEP 3 <i>Home support (spouse/child support and home assistance)</i>			
Constant	3.30	0.37	
Age	0.28	0.21	0.16
Children/dependants	-0.16	0.13	-0.12
Job status	0.13	0.12	-0.10
Duration of marriage	-0.07	0.15	-0.06
Age of child	0.04	0.15	0.03

Job tenure	0.07	0.15	0.05
Hours worked per week	-0.07	0.09	-0.07
Family demands & outcomes (FAM)	-0.11	0.08	-0.14
Spouse/child support	-0.01	0.05	-0.02
Home assistance	-0.04	0.05	-0.07

Note: $R^2 = 0.06$ for Step 1, $R^2 = 0.08$ for Step 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.02$, $p > .05$).

$p > .05$. $R^2 = 0.08$ for Step 3 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $p > .05$). $p > .05$.

The hierarchical regression analysis summarised in Table 7.14 suggests that FAM, spouse and child support, and home assistance were not significant predictors of job satisfaction. All the predictors had a negative non significant relationship with job satisfaction. This meant that whether or not Ghanaian women experienced FAM, and received spouse and child support as well as home assistance, did not affect how satisfied they were with their jobs. After Step 3, with all the control variables and predictors in the model, the adjusted R^2 of 0.00 indicates that none of variance in Ghanaian women's reported experience of job satisfaction is predicted by the control variables, FAM and HS.

This compares with R^2 values of 0.08 again in Step 2 when only the control variables and FAM had been added and 0.06 in Step 1, with only the control variables. This indicates that none of the Steps in the model was significant in predicting Ghanaian professional women's experience of job satisfaction.

The significance of each step and the main variables in the regression model are outlined in Tables 7.15 and 7.15.

Table 7.15: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and job satisfaction as outcome: significance of each step in regression model

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.015	7	.431	1.02	.424 ^a
	Residual	47.923	113	.424		
	Total	50.938	120			
2	Regression	3.984	8	.498	1.19	.313 ^b
	Residual	46.954	112	.419		
	Total	50.938	120			
3	Regression	4.237	10	.424	1.00	.450 ^c
	Residual	46.700	110	.425		
	Total	50.938	120			

Table 7.16: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor, and job satisfaction as outcome: significance of contribution of main variable groups

Variable entered	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error	R ² Δ	FΔ	df1	Df2	Sig.FΔ
CONTROL	0.24a	0.06	0.00	0.65	0.06	1.02	7	113	0.42
FAM	0.28b	0.08	0.01	0.65	0.02	2.31	1	112	0.13
HOME SUPPORT	0.30c	0.08	0.00	0.65	0.01	0.30	2	110	0.74

p.>05

Tables 7.15 and 7.16 suggest that at Step 1, the regression model was not significant, and accounted for 6% of the variance in women's reported experience of job satisfaction. The model was again insignificant in Step 2, accounting for 8% of variance in the outcome. The model was still not significant in Step 3, and there was no increase in the variance. This indicates none of the variables entered in the model could be said to be significant predictors of Ghanaian women's experience of job satisfaction. This showed that the final model with the predictor variables was not significant. The results of the hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and job satisfaction as outcome seem to suggest that there is a separation of Ghanaian women's experience of FAM and their reported experience of job satisfaction. This means that whether or not women were experiencing FAM, did not affect how satisfied they were with their jobs. This seems to stem from the attitude adopted by most women interviewed in Study 1. Women had claimed that having come so far up the corporate ladder they were not willing to allow family demands to ruin their chances of further promotion; and they were also prepared to ensure that their families did not suffer as such. Consequently separating the

demands of the two domains (i.e. work and family) was important to them. For example one woman remarked:

Even though combining work and family duties is so tiring, I make sure that when I enter into this building (work site) I leave all my family problems before I enter this door (office). Because else, you know, the men will say "They say they can do it", You know what I mean.

[Human Resource Manager]

The next set of regression analyses deals with worn out as the outcome variable.

7.4.4 Hierarchical regression of family demands and outcomes as predictors (FAM), and worn out as outcome

Hierarchical regression again was used to assess the ability of control variables and home support (HS) (i.e. spouse and child support and home assistance) to predict worn out, after controlling for FAM.

The analyses were completed in three steps. The first block contained the control variables, the second contained FAM, and the third block, HS. Tables 7.17, 7.18 and 7.19 examine the results the three different analyses performed.

Table 7.17: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and worn out as outcome: Details of regression models

Model	B	SE B	β
STEP 1 Control variables			
Constant	1.70	0.26	
Age	-0.06	0.19	-0.03
Children/dependants	0.11	0.12	0.08
Job status	-0.07	0.12	-0.05
Duration of marriage	-0.21	0.14	-0.15
Age of child	-0.12	0.14	-0.09
Job tenure	-0.29	0.13	-0.21*
Hours worked per week	0.29	0.09	0.28***
STEP 2 Family effect/demands (FAM)			
Constant	0.64	0.28	
Age	-0.08	0.17	-0.04
Children/dependants	0.21	0.11	0.15*
Job status	-0.07	0.12	-0.05
Duration of marriage	-0.26	0.12	-0.19*
Age of child	-0.16	0.12	-0.12
Job tenure	-0.14	0.12	-0.10
Hours worked per week	0.20	0.08	0.20**
Family demands & outcomes (FAM)	0.41	0.06	0.48***
STEP 3 Home support (spouse/child support and home assistance)			
Constant	0.78	0.30	
Age	-0.12	0.17	-0.07
Children/dependants	0.21	0.11	0.15*
Job status	-0.06	0.10	-0.04
Duration of marriage	-0.18	0.13	-0.13
Age of child	-0.18	0.12	-0.13
Job tenure	-0.14	0.12	-0.10
Hours worked per week	0.20	0.08	0.20**
Family demands & outcomes (FAM)	0.41	0.06	0.49***
Spouse/child support	-0.09	0.04	-0.18*
Home assistance	0.03	0.04	0.06

Note: $R^2 = 0.21$ for Step 1, $R^2 = 0.42$ for Step 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.21$, $p < .05$, $p < .001$). * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$. $R^2 = 0.45$ for Step 3 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.03$, $p < .001$). * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

The hierarchical regression analysis summarised in Table 7.17 suggests that hours worked per week, children and dependants, and FAM were positive significant predictors of Ghanaian women's experience of worn out. Spouse and child support at home on the other hand was a negative significant predictor of worn out; while home assistance (help from house helps) had no significance. This meant that the more hours per week a woman worked and the more children and dependants she had living at home, coupled with her experience of family demands and outcomes (FAM), the more likely the woman would report of feeling worn out. On the other hand, the receipt of less spouse and child support at home meant that women is likely to report feeling more worn out and vice versa. After Step 3, with all the control variables and predictors entered in the model, the adjusted R^2 of 0.40 indicates that about half of the variance in the reported feeling of worn out by Ghanaian professional women, is predicted by the control variables (especially hours worked per week), FAM and spouse and child support. This compares to an R^2 of 0.21 in Step 1 when only the control variables had been entered and 0.42 in Step 2 when only the control variables and FAM had been entered. The next set of analyses outlined in

Tables 7.18 and 7.19 examine the significance of each step in the regression model, as well as those of the main variables.

Table 7.18: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and worn out as outcome: significance of each step in regression model

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.58	7	1.66	4.20	.001 ^a
	Residual	44.55	113	0.39		
	Total	56.14	120			
2	Regression	23.38	8	2.92	10.00	.001 ^b
	Residual	32.75	112	0.29		
	Total	56.14	120			
3	Regression	25.04	10	2.50	8.86	.001 ^c
	Residual	31.10	110	0.28		
	Total	56.14	120			

Table 7.19: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and worn out as outcome: significance of contribution of main variable groups

Variable entered	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error	R ² Δ	FΔ	df1	df2	Sig.FΔ
CONTROL	0.45a	0.21	0.16	0.63	0.21	4.20***	7	113	.001
FAM	0.65b	0.42	0.38	0.54	0.21	40.34***	1	112	.001
HOME SUPPORT	0.67c	0.45	0.40	0.53	0.03	2.94*	2	110	.05

*p<.05, ***p<.001

The analyses that are summarised in **Tables 7.18** and **7.19** suggest that at Step 1, the regression model was significant, accounting for 21% of the variance in women's reported feeling of worn out. The model remained significant in Step 2, and accounted for 42% of the variance (a 50% increase in variance). The model was still significant in Step 3, with a 3% increase in the variance to 45%. This shows that all the variables entered in the model could be said to be significant predictors of Ghanaian women's feeling of worn out. Specifically children and dependants and hours worked per week, and to some extent duration of marriage were the significant predictors of worn out among the control variables. And FAM, as well as spouse and child support, also significantly predicted women's feeling of worn out. The next set of regression analyses considered tense as the outcome variable.

7.4.5 Hierarchical regression of family demands and outcomes as predictors (FAM) and tense as outcome

Hierarchical regression again was used to assess the ability of control variables and home support (HS) (i.e. spouse and child support and home assistance) to predict tense, after controlling for FAM.

The analyses were completed in three steps. The first block contained the control variables, the second had FAM, and the third block had HS. Tables 7.20, 7.21 and 7.22 examine the results the three different analyses performed.

Table 7.20: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and tense as outcome: Details of regression models

Model	B	SE B	β
STEP 1 <i>Control variables</i>			
Constant	0.95	0.25	
Age	-0.07	0.19	-0.04
Children/dependants	0.11	0.12	0.09
Job status	-0.05	0.12	-0.04
Duration of marriage	0.19	0.14	0.16
Age of child	-0.30	0.14	-0.25*
Job tenure	0.04	0.13	0.03
Hours worked per week	0.18	0.09	0.19*
STEP 2 <i>Family effect/demands (FAM)</i>			
Constant	0.08	0.29	
Age	-0.08	0.17	-0.05
Children/dependants	0.19	0.11	0.15
Job status	-0.05	0.10	-0.04
Duration of marriage	0.16	0.13	0.13
Age of child	-0.34	0.13	-0.28**
Job tenure	0.16	0.12	0.12
Hours worked per week	0.10	0.08	0.11
Family demands & outcomes (FAM)	0.33	0.07	0.44***
STEP 3 <i>Home support (spouse/child support and home assistance - HS)</i>			
Constant	-0.05	0.32	
Age	-0.05	0.18	-0.03
Children/dependants	0.19	0.11	0.15
Job status	-0.04	0.14	-0.03

Duration of marriage		0.17	0.13	0.14
Age of child		-0.37	0.13	-0.30**
Job tenure		0.12	0.13	0.10
Hours worked per week		0.09	0.08	0.09
Family demands & outcomes (FAM)		0.33	0.07	0.42***
Spouse/child support	} HS	-0.01	0.04	-0.01
Home assistance		0.06	0.04	0.13

Note: $R^2 = 0.07$ for Step 1, $R^2 = 0.25$ for Step 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.18$, $p < .001$). * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$. $R^2 = 0.26$ for Step 3 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $p < .001$). * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

The analysis summarised in Table 7.20 suggests that age of child and FAM were significant predictors of Ghanaian women's experience of feeling tense. However while age of child was negatively related to a woman's feeling tense, FAM was positively related. This meant that the younger a child a woman had living at home, the more likely she would report being tense. Additionally the more a woman experiences family demands and outcomes (FAM), the more likely she would report being tense. Interestingly, neither the receipt of spouse and child support, nor home assistance had any significant impact of Ghanaian women's feeling of being tense. After Step 3, with all the control variables and predictors entered in the model, the adjusted R^2 of 0.19 indicates that nearly a fifth of variance in women's reported feeling of being tense is predicted by the control variables (especially age of a child), and FAM. This compares to an R^2 value of 0.07 in Step 1 when only the control variables had been entered, and 0.25

in Step 2 when only the control variables and FAM had been entered. The significance of each step, as well as the significance of the main variables in the regression model, is examined in the next set of analyses. And these have been summarised in Tables 7.21 and 7.22.

Table 7.21: Hierarchical regression model for family effects and demands as predictor, and tense as outcome: significance of each step in regression model

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.40	7	0.49	1.28	.268 ^a
	Residual	42.97	113	0.40		
	Total	46.37	120			
2	Regression	11.40	8	1.43	4.56	.001 ^b
	Residual	34.97	112	0.31		
	Total	46.37	120			
3	Regression	12.07	10	1.21	3.87	.001 ^c
	Residual	34.31	110	0.31		
	Total	46.37	120			

Table 7.22: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor, and tense as outcome: significance of contribution of main variable groups

Variable entered	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error	R ² Δ	FΔ	df1	Df2	Sig.FΔ
CONTROL	0.27a	0.07	0.02	0.62	0.07	1.28	7	113	.268
FAM	0.50b	0.25	0.19	0.56	0.17	25.62	1	112	.001
HOME SUPPORT	0.51c	0.26	0.19	0.56	0.01	1.07	2	110	.347

p.>05, ***p<.001

The analyses summarised in Tables 7.21 and 7.22 suggest that at Step 1, the regression model was not significant, and it accounted for 7% of variance in women's feeling of tense. The model however became significant in Step 2, accounting for 25% of the variance in the outcome. The model remained significant in Step 3. However there was a marginal increase in the variance to 26%. This shows that the control variables alone in the model could be said to be poor predictors of Ghanaian women's feeling of being tense. However in combination with FAM especially, they become better at predicting women's feeling of being tense. And the unique contribution of home support to the model is not significant, even though the final model itself is significant. This indicates that the final model with all the control variables as well as the predictors was significant. Specifically, in terms of Ghanaian women's feeling of being tense, the model shows that the most important variable is family demands and outcomes (FAM).

The next set of regression analyses revisited job satisfaction as an outcome variable. This became necessary because in Section 7.3.3.2 none of the models examined was significant. In other words whiles controlling for FAM, neither the control

variables nor home support (HS) could predict Ghanaian women's experience of job satisfaction. The decision was consequently made to use the variables in the first part of the modified model, Figure 7.2, namely the control variables, DMD, supervisor and colleague support (Work support –WS) and work coping strategies to run a regression analysis with job satisfaction as the outcome variable. This was to allow one to see which variables in the modified model significantly affected women's experience of job satisfaction. This was needed in order to come out with a model that fitted the Ghanaian situation.

7.4.6 Hierarchical regression of work-related demands (DMD) as predictors, and job satisfaction as outcome

The ability of control variables work support (WS) (i.e. supervisor and colleague support) and work coping strategies (WCS) (i.e. autonomous coping strategies, personal-social coping strategies and environmental coping strategies) to predict job satisfaction, after controlling for DMD was assessed. The analysis was completed in four steps. The first block contained the control variables, the second had DMD, and the third block had WS and the final block had WCS.

Tables 7.23, 7.24 and 7.25 examine the results the different analyses performed.

Table 7.23: Hierarchical regression model for work-related demands as predictor and job satisfaction as outcome: Details of regression models

Model	B	SE B	β
STEP 1 (Control variables)			
Constant	2.91	0.28	
Age	0.29	0.21	0.16
Children/dependants	-0.15	0.14	-0.12
Job status	-0.10	0.13	-0.08
Duration of marriage	-0.12	0.16	-0.09
Age of child	0.10	0.16	0.08
Job tenure	0.47	0.15	0.04
Hours worked per week	-0.11	0.10	-0.11
STEP 2 (Work-related demands)			
Constant	3.50	0.35	
Age	0.28	0.20	0.15
Children/dependants	-0.14	0.13	-0.11
Job status	-0.06	0.13	-0.04
Duration of marriage	-0.10	0.15	-0.08
Age of child	0.06	0.16	0.04
Job tenure	0.01	0.15	0.01
Hours worked per week	-0.11	0.09	-0.11
Work-related demands (DMD)	-0.28	0.10	-0.26**
STEP 3 (Work support - WS)			
Constant	2.91	0.38	
Age	0.25	0.19	0.14
Children/dependants	-0.13	0.12	-0.10
Job status	-0.05	0.12	-0.04
Duration of marriage	-0.15	0.14	-0.12
Age of child	0.16	0.15	0.12

Job tenure		-0.01	0.14	-0.01
Hours worked per week		-0.05	0.09	-0.05
<hr/>				
DMD		-0.28	0.10	-0.26**
Supervisor support	} WS	0.31	0.08	0.43***
Colleague support		-0.07	0.08	-0.10

STEP 4 (Work coping strategies)

Constant		2.71	0.41	
Age		0.19	0.18	0.11
Children/dependants		-0.11	0.12	-0.08
Job status		-0.01	0.12	-0.01
Duration of marriage		-0.12	0.14	-0.09
Age of child		0.10	0.15	0.07
Job tenure		0.04	0.14	0.03
Hours worked per week		-0.05	0.09	-0.05
<hr/>				
DMD		-0.28	0.10	-0.26**
Supervisor support	} WS	0.26	0.08	0.36**
Colleague support		-0.08	0.08	-0.11
Autonomous coping strategies	} WCS	0.04	0.06	0.07
Personal-social coping strategies		0.12	0.05	0.24*
Environmental coping strategies		-0.06	0.05	-0.11

Note: $R^2 = 0.06$ for Step 1, $R^2 = 0.12$ for Step 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.06$, $p < .01$), $**p < .01$. $R^2 = 0.25$ for Step 3 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.13$, $p < .001$), $***p < .001$. $R^2 = 0.31$ for Step 4 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.06$, $p < .05$), $*p < .05$.

The hierarchical regression analysis summarised in Table 7.23 shows that work-related demands (DMD), supervisor support and personal-social coping strategies at work were significant predictors of Ghanaian women's experience of job satisfaction. However as expected, whereas supervisor support and personal-coping strategies were positively related to job satisfaction, DMD was negatively related to job satisfaction. This means that the more Ghanaian professional women

receive supervisor support and use personal coping strategies at work, the more likely they will report experiencing job satisfaction. And the less women experienced work related demands at work, the more likely will they report being satisfied with their jobs. After Step 4, with all the control variables and predictors entered in the model, the adjusted R² of 0.22 indicates that nearly a quarter of the variance in women's reported experience of job satisfaction is predicted by the control variables, DMD, WS and WCS. This compares to an R² of 0.06 in Step 1 when only the control variables had been entered, 0.12 in Step 2 when only the control variables and DMD had been entered and 0.25 for Step 3, when the control variables, DMD and WS were entered. The next set of analyses summarised in Tables 7.24 and 7.25, examines the significance of each step in the regression model and the significant contribution of the main variables.

Table 7.24: Hierarchical regression model for work-related demands as predictor and job satisfaction as outcome: significance of each step in regression model

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.70	7	0.39	0.87	.532 ^a
	Residual	45.95	104	0.44		
	Total	48.64	111			
2	Regression	5.78	8	0.72	1.74	.099 ^b
	Residual	42.86	103	0.42		

	Total	48.64	111			
3	Regression	12.28	10	1.23	3.41	.001 ^c
	Residual	36.36	101	0.36		
	Total	48.64	111			
4	Regression	15.16	13	1.17	3.41	.001 ^d
	Residual	33.48	98	0.34		
	Total	48.64	111			

Table 7.25: Hierarchical regression model for work-related demands as predictor, and job satisfaction as outcome: significance of main variables in regression model

<i>Variable entered</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>Adjusted R²</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>R² Δ</i>	<i>FΔ</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>Sig.F Δ</i>
CONTROL	0.24a	0.06	-0.01	0.66	0.06	0.90	7	104	.532
DMD	0.35b	0.12	0.05	0.65	0.06	7.40	1	103	.008
WS	0.50c	0.25	0.18	0.60	0.13	9.03	2	102	.001
WCS	0.56d	0.31	0.22	0.58	0.06	2.80	3	98	.044

*p<.05, **p<.01

The analyses summarised in Tables 7.24 and 7.25 indicate that at Step 1 the model was not significant, and it accounted for 6% of the variance in women's experience of job satisfaction. The unique contribution of the control variables in the model was not significant. The model remained insignificant in Step 2, accounting for 12% of the variance in the outcome but the contribution of DMD to the model was significant. The model became significant in Step 3,

accounting for 25% of the variance in the outcome; the contribution of WS to the model was also significant. The final model remained significant in Step 4 and accounted for 31% of variance. The unique contribution of WCS to the model was significant. This means that apart from the control variables all the other main variables, namely DMD, WS and WCS were all good predictors of women's experience of job satisfaction.

The next set of regressions examined the possible interaction effects of family demands and outcomes x spouse and child support on well being variables (c.f. Section 7.3.2)

7.4.7 Hierarchical regression of family demands and outcomes (FAM), and family demands and outcomes x spouse and child support (FAM SCS) as predictors, and well being variables as outcomes.

These analyses were designed to determine whether the effect of family demands and outcomes on well being variables were moderated by spouse and child support. The key question here essentially, is one of the interaction (c.f. Section 7.3.2) between family demands and outcomes and spouse and child support (i.e. the new variable – FAMSCS) in determining the well being outcomes. All the processes needed to ensure the appropriateness of the data set for these particular regression

analyses (c.f. **Section 7.3.1**) were followed, before running the analyses.

7.4.7.1 Hierarchical regression of family demands and outcomes (FAM) and family demands and outcomes and spouse and child support (FAMSCS) as predictors and family satisfaction as outcome.

Specifically, hierarchical regression was used to assess the ability of control variables and FAMSCS to predict family satisfaction, after controlling for FAM and spouse and child support. The analysis was completed in three steps. The control variables were entered in the first block. FAM and spouse and child support were entered in the second block. FAMSCS the new variable was entered in the third block. This analytical strategy assesses the additional contribution of the interaction term after the main effects have been considered. The results of the analyses are summarised in the tables below.

Table 7.26: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor, and family satisfaction as outcome: significance of interaction effects of the combination of family outcomes and demands x spouse and child support

Model	B	SE B	β
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STEP 1 (Control variables)			
Constant	3.18	0.32	0.03
Age	0.06	0.24	0.03
Children/dependants	-0.27	0.15	-0.17
Job status	-0.11	0.14	-0.07
Duration of marriage	0.15	0.17	0.10
Age of child	0.09	0.17	0.06
Job tenure	0.23	0.17	0.14
Hours worked per week	-0.17	0.11	-0.14
STEP 2 (Family demands & outcomes & spouse/child support)			
Constant	2.90	0.38	
Age	0.23	0.22	0.10
Children/dependants	-0.28	0.14	-0.18
Job status	-0.12	0.13	-0.08
Duration of marriage	0.00	0.17	0.00
Age of child	0.10	0.16	0.07
Job tenure	0.15	0.16	0.10
Hours worked per week	-0.16	0.10	-0.14
Family effect/demands (FAM)	-0.13	0.08	-0.14
Spouse/child support	0.21	0.05	0.38***
STEP 3 (FAM x spouse/child support) - FAMSCS			
Constant	2.89	0.43	
Age	0.23	0.22	0.10
Children/dependants	-0.28	0.14	-0.18
Job status	-0.12	0.13	-0.08
Duration of marriage	-0.00	0.17	0.00
Age of child	0.10	0.16	0.06
Job tenure	0.15	0.16	0.10
Hours worked per week	-0.16	0.10	-0.14
FAM	-0.12	0.27	-0.13
Spouse/child support	0.24	0.46	0.43
FAMSCS	-0.14	0.24	-0.05

Note: $R^2 = 0.10$ for Step 1, $R^2 = 0.24$ for Step 2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.14$, $p < .001$). *** $p < .001$. $R^2 = 0.24$ for Step 3 ($\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $p > .05$).

The hierarchical regression analysis summarised in **Table 7.26** indicates that only spouse and child support was a significant predictor of women's experience of family satisfaction. However having controlled for the effects FAM and spouse and child support, FAMSCS, the new interaction term was not shown to be significant. This means that the more women receive spouse and child support at home, the more likely they will report satisfaction with family life. However the impact of family demands and outcomes on women's family satisfaction was not moderated by (FAMSCS) spouse and child support. In Step 3 with all the control variables, FAM and SCS, and FAMSCS entered in the model, the adjusted R^2 of 0.17 indicates that nearly a fifth of the variance in women's reported family satisfaction is predictable. This compares to an R^2 of 0.10 in Step 1 when only the control variables had been entered, 0.18 in Step 2 when only the control variables and FAM and spouse and child support were entered. There was a decrease in the adjusted R^2 , when FAMSCS was entered in Step 3. The next two tables 7.27 and 7.28 examine the significance of each Step, as well as the significant contribution of the main variable groups in the regression model.

Table 7.27: Hierarchical regression model for family outcome and demands as predictor, and family satisfaction as outcome: significance of each step in model

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.053	7	1.01	1.74	.107 ^a
	Residual	65.43	113	0.58		
	Total	72.48	120			
2	Regression	17.18	9	1.91	3.83	.001 ^b
	Residual	55.30	111	0.50		
	Total	72.48	120			
3	Regression	17.18	10	1.72	3.42	.001 ^c
	Residual	55.30	110	0.50		
	Total	72.48	120			

Table 7.28: Hierarchical regression model for family demands and outcomes as predictor and family satisfaction as outcome: significance of main variables in model

Variable entered	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error	R ² Δ	FΔ	df1	df2	Sig.F Δ
CONTROL	0.31	0.10	0.04	0.76	0.10	1.74	7	113	.107
FAM & SCS	0.49	0.24	0.18	0.71	0.14	10.17	2	111	.001
FAMSCS	0.49	0.24	0.17	0.71	0.00	0.00	1	110	.955

p.>05, p<.001***

The analyses summarised in Table 7.27 and Table 7.28 suggest that at Step 1, the regression model was not

significant. And this Step accounted for 10% of the variance in family satisfaction. The model became significant in Step 2, accounting for 24% of the variance in women's experience of family satisfaction. In Step 3 however, the model remained significant. However there was no change in the variance. This shows that the control variables are poor predictors of Ghanaian women's experience of family satisfaction. However FAM and spouse and child support especially, are better at predicting women's experience of family satisfaction. Finally the lack of increase in the variance after the addition of FAMSCS indicates that the unique contribution of this variable to the model is not significant.

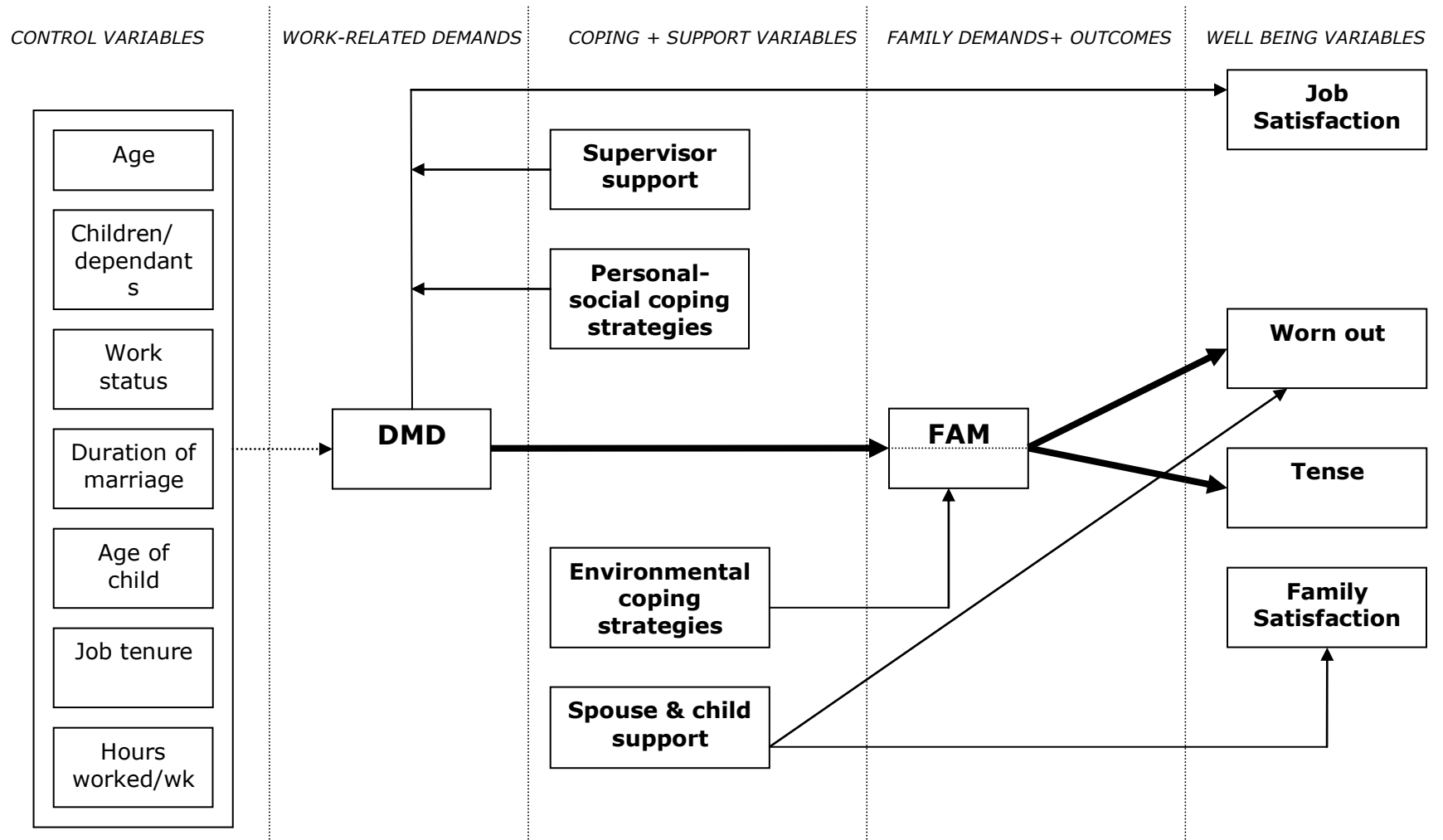
The next set of regressions looked at the possibility of the interaction effects (FAM x spouse and child support) with worn out and tense as outcomes. In both analyses the same analytical strategy described in Section 7.3.4.1 and summarised in Tables 7.26, 7.27 and 7.28 was used. No significant interaction effects were found. Job satisfaction as an outcome was left out in these regressions as the analyses in Section 7.3.3.2 had shown that the control variables, FAM and HS (spouse and child support and home assistance) were all poor predictors of Ghanaian women's experience of job satisfaction. Again additional mediation analysis to find out

whether DMD mediated FAM when predicting both worn out and tense, did not find any significant effects. The next section presents a description as well as an explanation of the final research model, resulting from the findings of the hierarchical regression conducted previously in this chapter.

7.5 Final research model (Paulbed's model)

The final research model (Figure 7.3) suggests that some control variables will predict women's experience of DMD, and DMD directly predicts FAM without moderation from any work support variable or work coping strategies. Rather the model suggests that environmental coping strategies will have a direct effect on FAM. Again the model posits that women's job satisfaction is determined by work-related demands; and the effect is moderated by supervisor support and personal-social coping strategies used by women at work. The model further suggests that FAM directly predicts how worn out and tense Ghanaian professional women are, but does not predict their report of family satisfaction. Rather it is receipt of spouse and child support at home that predicts family satisfaction, as well as how worn out the woman is but not how tense she is. The final research model is shown below.

Figure 7.3: Paulbed's model of work-family interference among Ghanaian professional women



7.6 Summary of findings

The findings from Study 3 were interesting. The correlations among the variables in the refined research model (see Figure 6.11) are discussed below. The correlation among both the control and predictor variables was moderate to low. Among the control variables, the highest correlation was between duration of marriage and job status ($r = 0.54$) and the lowest correlation was between women's age and number of children and dependants ($r = 0.19$) (see Table 7.1). Correlations among work-related demands variables on the other hand ranged from moderate to high. The lowest correlation was between the stress of expectations and personal worry ($r = 0.33$); with the highest occurring between the stressfulness of women's daily tasks at work and stress of expectations ($r = 0.61$). Further, correlations between family demands and outcomes showed moderate to very high correlation. The lowest correlation was between time poverty and family strain ($r=0.36$); with the highest occurring between time poverty and family exhaustion ($r=0.76$) (see Table 7.2). Among the support variables, the most significant correlation occurred between supervisor and colleague support ($r=0.61$). Among the coping variables, the lowest correlation was between autonomous and personal-social coping ($r=0.24$), while

autonomous coping and environmental coping showed the highest correlation, ($r=0.44$).

The results of the correlation analysis meant that the refined research model (see Figure 6.11) had to be modified to reflect the issue of multicollinearity between time poverty and family exhaustion variables (see Section 7.2). Again an attempt was made to better structure the work-related demands and family effects and demands scales (see Table 7.4) to simplify the modified model (Figure 7.2) for subsequent regression analysis.

Hierarchical regression conducted to test the modified model produced quite interesting results (see Figure 7.3). First, the results showed that DMD directly affected FAM as expected. This means that women's experience of work-related demands directly contributed to their experience of family demands and outcomes. However this relationship was not moderated by any support they received at work or coping strategy they utilised while at work. However, environmental coping directly affected FAM. Further DMD predicted women's self-reported job satisfaction, and this was moderated by quality of supervisor support received, and the amount of personal-social coping strategy they used at work. Additionally FAM

predicted how worn out and tense women were, as expected. Unexpectedly, FAM did not predict how satisfied women were with family life; and the expected buffering effect of spouse and child on all the well being variables (see Figure 7.2), did not occur. Rather the quality of spouse and child support women received determined how satisfied they were with the family, and how worn out they felt. As a result of these findings the modified research model (Figure 7.2) was further amended, culminating in the final research model (Figure 7.3).

7.7 Chapter summary

This chapter introduced the use of multivariate statistics to analyse the relationships within the refined research model and the modified research model. The procedure for modifying the refined research model, as well as the subsequent testing of the modified research model, using hierarchical regression was described in detail. Additionally, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis, as well as the moderation and mediation analysis conducted, were presented and expatiated upon. Finally, the final research

model of this thesis which emerged from the testing of the modified research model was presented and explained.

The next chapter presents a summary of the main research hypotheses and research questions and how they were answered. Additionally the research findings from the three studies in this research are discussed. Also included is a more detailed discussion of the results of Study 3. Further, the implications of the main research findings are highlighted together with some recommendations. Finally the chapter concludes by highlighting the some of the contributions made by this thesis to the discourse work-family interference, as well as limitations and suggestions for future research.

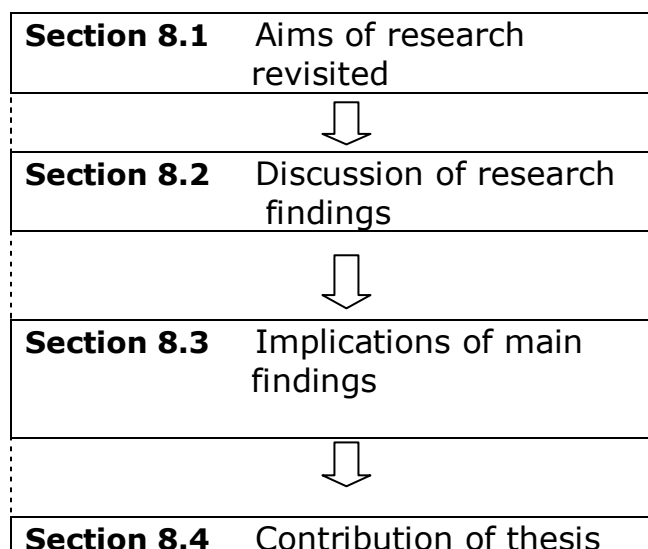
CHAPTER 8

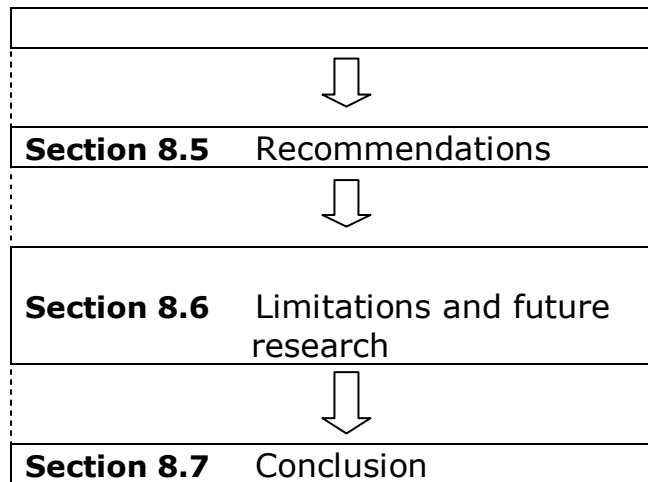
DISCUSSION

8.0 Overview

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the results and implications of the research. First, a brief summary of the main research findings is presented. Next, the empirical findings are related to the research objectives. The implications of the research findings are then highlighted, together with an examination of the contribution of the thesis. Next, the recommendations are presented, followed by the limitations and future direction of research and conclusion of the thesis. The structure of this chapter is displayed in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8.1: Chapter 8 structure





8.1 Aims of research revisited

The aim of this research was to examine work-family interference among Ghanaian women working in higher status occupations (professional women). Specifically, the first study examined the pervasiveness of work-related stress (WRS) among professional women, the level of permeability of women’s work and family domains, the prevalence of work-family interference (WFI), the role of work-family enhancement(WFE), and the possibility of legislating WFI. In the second study, the perception of Ghanaian men on the effect of women’s experience of WRS and WFI on their well being was investigated. Finally in Study 3, a model was developed which examined the impact of work-related demands (stress) on women’s family life. The role of coping strategies and social support at work in buffering the impact of

work-related demands on family demands and outcomes was also examined along with the effect of family demands and outcomes on women's well being, with the possible moderation of home support,.

8.1.1 Summary of research findings

The results of Study 1 suggested that work-related stress was prevalent among Ghanaian professional women. Women reported experiencing permeability between the work and family domains, resulting in WFI. However the buffering effect of social support at work and home, together with work-family enhancement helped women cope with the effects of WFI on women's well being. Further, women also agreed about the need to incorporate WFI into Ghanaian labour laws. Women also reported sometimes considering quitting their jobs for less stressful jobs where they felt that work demands were overly affecting their family lives.

Findings from Study 2 suggested that men considered their spouses' work demands such as long hours at work impinged on family demands; which in turn led to women experiencing WFI, which affected their well being as well as threatened family cohesion. Further, men saw their offer of support to

their spouses, coupled with WFE, as buffering their spouses' experience of WFI.

The results of Study 3 suggested that women's experience of work-related demands is positively related to their family demands and outcomes (work-family interference – WFI) but this relationship is neither moderated by work support nor the coping strategies they use at work. However, the use of environmental coping strategy directly affected women's experience of WFI. Women's experience of job satisfaction was negatively related to work demands; and this relationship was moderated by supervisor support and personal-social coping strategies. The research findings suggest a more complex set of relationships between women's WFI and the other well being variables. WFI was positively related to women's feelings of being worn out and tense, but this did not affect women's family satisfaction. What determined how satisfied women were with their family life was the quality of spouse and child support they received at home. Spouse and child support was also negatively related to women's feeling of worn out. The results of the main research hypothesis and answers to research questions are also presented

The hypotheses and research questions were derived from the findings of Studies 1, 2 and 3 and used to test the modified research model.

Hypothesis 1 which posited that women's work demands will positively predict WFI, with work support and coping strategies moderating the relationship, was partially supported. This is because while work demands positively predicted WFI, neither work support nor coping strategies moderated this relationship.

Hypothesis 2 envisaged a negative relationship between WFI and women's job and family satisfaction, with the receipt of home support moderating the relationship. This was not supported. First, there was no direct relationship between women's WFI, and their reported job satisfaction. These two variables operated separately. Second, women's reported family satisfaction was not dependant on demands from the family, but rather on the quality of spouse and child support they received. Finally, the envisaged moderating effect of home support was also not supported.

Hypothesis 3 suggested that WFI will be positively related to women's feeling of worn out and tense, moderated by home

support. This was partially supported. WFI was indeed positively related to women's feeling of worn out and tense. The relationship was however not moderated by women's receipt of home support.

Research Question 1a (see Section 7.3), sought the control variable which was the best predictor of women's experience of WFI. 'Hours worked per week' was the control variable that best predicted women's experience of WFI. This means that the more time women spent at work, the more they were likely to report experiencing WFI. For Research Question 1b, none of the two support measures moderated the impact of work-related demands on WFI. Research Question 1c, sought to find which coping strategy used at work best moderated the relationship between work-related demands and WFI. The results showed that none of the coping strategies moderated the relationship.

Finally Research Question 1d, sought to find whether there was any direct impact of work-related demands on women's well being variables. The results showed that only job satisfaction had a direct and negative relationship with work-related demands; and the relationship was moderated by supervisor support and personal social coping strategies. This

means the less work-related demands women reported, the more they were likely to experience job satisfaction. Again their experience of job satisfaction was further enhanced if they received quality supervisor support, as well as their ability to use personal-social coping strategies such as discussing a problem with work colleague or plan a course of action to deal with a problem.

Research Question 3a sought to find which control variable(s) best predicted women's well being. For job satisfaction, none of the control variables was a significant predictor. Children and dependants as a variable on the other hand, was negatively related to family satisfaction. This means that the fewer children and dependants a woman had, the more likely she would report being satisfied with family life. For worn out, hours worked per week had the most significant relationship (positive), followed by children and dependants. This means that the longer a woman spends at work in the week, and the more children and dependants she has living at home, the more likely she would report feeling worn out.

It is pertinent to point out here that while job tenure had a negative relationship with worn out in Step 1 (see Table 7.17), duration of marriage also had a negative relationship with

worn out in Step 2. But none of these variables was significant in the final step. Consequently one can argue that the fewer years of marriage or the shorter a woman's tenure, the more likely she would report feeling worn out. Finally for tense, age of child was the most significant control variable; and it had a negative relationship with tense. Hours per week however had a positive relationship with tense. This means that if women had younger children living at home, they were more likely to report feeling tense; and also the more time they spent at work during the week, the more likely they would report feeling tense.

Further, Question 2b aimed at finding the extent to which home support ameliorated the impact of WFI on women's well being. Even though none of the two variables had a moderating effect on the relationship between women's WFI and well being, only spouse and child support was significant in predicting women's well being. Spouse and child support was positively related to family satisfaction. This means that if a woman received quality spouse and child support at home she was more likely to be satisfied with family life. Again spouse and child support was negatively related to women's feeling of worn out. This means if a woman received less support from her husband and the children living at home did

not allow her enough time to rest after work, she was more likely to report being worn out.

Research Question 3a sought to find which control variable(s) best predicted women's well being. Results show that women's family satisfaction was best predicted by children and dependants living at home; and the relationship was negative. This meant that the fewer children and dependants a woman had living at home the more likely would she experience family satisfaction. None of the control variables was significant in predicting women's job satisfaction. However, duration of marriage, children and dependants living at home, job tenure and hours worked per week, were all significant predictors of women's feeling of worn out. While duration of marriage and job tenure were negatively related to worn out, children and dependants living at home and hours worked per week were positively related to worn out. This meant that the shorter the length of marriage or tenure a woman has experienced, the more likely she would report feeling worn out. Conversely, the more children and dependants a woman has living at home and the longer a woman spends at work during the week, the more likely she would report being worn out.

Finally, Research Question 3b examined the extent to which home support ameliorated the impact of family demands and outcomes (WFI) on women's well being. The envisaged moderating effect of home support was not confirmed. Results however showed that only spouse and child support was related to women's well being, albeit this relationship was not universal. There was no relationship between spouse and child support, and women's job satisfaction and feelings of tense. Rather, while spouse and child support was negatively related to women's feelings of worn out, it was positively related to women's family satisfaction. This means that women's receipt of decreased spouse and child support exacerbated their feelings of worn out; but an increase in spouse and child support enhanced their family satisfaction.

8.2 Discussion of research findings

The results from Study 1 pointed to the pervasiveness of work-related stress among women, and especially those with less work experience suggest that stressors relating to work design such as tight work schedules, long work hours and high expectations, need some modification to reduce the pressure on employees in general and professional women in particular.

This will not only ensure that women are healthy and happy, but more importantly improve their productivity at work (Gavin and Mason, 2004), help them reduce stress-induced health related problems (Halpern, 2005; McCraty et al., 2003), and have a sense of fulfilment within their organisations (Filbeck and Preece, 2003; Fulmer et al., 2003, Kets de Vries', 2001).

Findings on permeability between work and family domains in studies 1 and 3 seemed contradictory. While Study 1 showed that the boundaries in the two domains were permeable, Study 3 results were contrary to earlier studies. Research shows that when workers experience work-related stress, resulting from things such as heavy work schedules and 'unfinished' home and work tasks, there is the likelihood of them trying to complete such tasks in the other domain (Aryee et al., 2005; Martins et al., 2002; Clark, 2000;), leading to permeability. Consequently it was surprising that women in Study 3 did not allude much to the issue of permeability. It is probable that women in Study 3 ensured that they completed most or all of their tasks at work before going home, thus reducing the risk of permeability. Additionally, it is probable that women endeavoured to keep the two domains as separate as possible, as a way of reducing their experience of

WFI (Desrochers and Sargent, 2004). A third possible explanation is that the interview method of data collection used in Study 1 afforded women the latitude to express their opinions on the issue; something the questionnaire's 'restrictive' structure did not afford them in Study 3.

This gives credence to the use of mixed methods in studies such as used in this thesis when there is such a dearth of literature, and the socio-cultural context does not engender the use of a single method to really do justice to the research problem. For instance, the use of open ended questionnaires for the spouse of selected women in Study 2 ensured that assertions made by women in the face-to-face interviews in Study 1, especially pertaining to work-family interference, could be confirmed or disconfirmed.

All three studies highlighted the invaluable role of social support in helping buffer the impact of work-related stress and work-family interference on women's well-being (Schaffer, 2001; Goff et al. 1990; Jones and Butler, 1980). For example in Study 1, the receipt of support at work in the form of supervisor's understanding of women's personal issues (sometimes family related) allowed women to have a sense of purpose, belonging and enjoyment in the work place

(Frost,2003; Kets de Vries' ,2001). Again in Study 2, men's understanding of the pressures their spouses were under in trying to balance work and family roles brought relief to women. Additionally men's concrete assistance, such as helping out with household chores and childcare tasks (Lewis et al., 2007) also went a long way to reduce women's experience of WFI. And finally in Study 3 the buffering impact of supervisor support on the negative effect of work-related demands on job satisfaction (Bakker et al., 2007; Bakker et al.,2005; Stamper and Johlke, 2003), as well as the effect of spousal and child support in ameliorating worn out feelings of women, clearly come out.

Work-family enhancement (WFE), as a resource that helped women deal with WFI was also highlighted in this thesis (Studies 1 and 2). And this confirms earlier studies (Wadsworth and Owens, 2007; Grzywacz and Butler, 2005; Hill, 2005; Grzwacz and Bass, 2003). Specifically, monetary rewards, values and people management skills acquired at work were put to use at home by women to improve family life and enhance family satisfaction. Both women and men alluded to the positive contribution of WFE to family life. Women in Study 1 pointed to competences such as planning daily schedules, good communication and negotiation as some

of the skills they transferred home, to enhance their family lives. Men in Study 2 on the other hand, recognised the immense financial contributions their spouses were making to the family. Consequently, they saw their contribution to household chores and childcare tasks as crucial if they were to continue enjoying the effects of WFE, resulting from their spouses' work.

Model development has taken place throughout this thesis. The research model has become more parsimonious as the thesis has progressed. Within the complexity and plethora of different possible relationships, significant and substantive ones have been identified. And to help with this simplification of the model, the regression analyses were conducted in two phases. The first phase utilised work-related demands as predicting WFI, moderated by support and coping variables. The second phase utilised WFI as predicting women's well being, with possible moderation from spouse and child support as well as home assistance.

For the final model, while work-related demands directly affected WFI, neither supervisor nor colleague support, as well as work coping strategies moderated the effect of work-related demands on WFI. Among the coping strategies,

environmental coping affected WFI directly. This means that Ghanaian professional women's experiences of work-related demands directly impinged on their family demands and outcomes (WFI). Women were more likely to use environmental coping strategies to deal with their experience of WFI. This finding suggests a rethink of work design especially in Ghana to take into account the impact of work-related stress on family lives of women as well as men. The culture of having an employee physically present at the work site for eight or more hours a day with its attending stresses (tight schedules, low supervisor support and high expectations), could probably give way to flexi hours. Here, employees could be judged by their output for the day, and not by their physical presence at work. This does not only reduce pressure on work space as well as reduce energy (as computers, lighting and other electrical gadgets could be put off), but can increase job satisfaction, which is also known to improve productivity especially when the Service-Profit Chain concept is adopted (Harvard Business Review, August, 2008, p. 120) . The links in the chain which are regarded as propositions are as follows: Profit and growth in an organisation are stimulated primarily by customer loyalty. Loyalty is a direct result of customer satisfaction, which is largely influenced by the value of service provided to

customers. Value is created by satisfied, loyal and productive employees. Employee satisfaction in turn, results primarily from high quality support services and policies that enable employees to deliver results to customers (Heskett et al., 2008).

The final research model also shows that the amount of demand a woman is under from the family determines how tense and worn out they are; but this did not have any effect on the level of their satisfaction with their family life. Family satisfaction was rather about how much their spouses assisted with household chores, childcare and other extra-mural activities such as attending the Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) meetings on behalf of their wards and picking them up from school. Again family satisfaction for women was also the extent to which older children also helped with household work; and also the extent to which younger children allowed women to rest and recoup some energy after work.

Furthermore spouse and child support also affected how worn out a woman was, but not how tense she was. In other words how worn out a woman feels at home depended on the quality of help she received from her spouse, as well as children. Nonetheless this kind of support did not affect how tense she

was. What affected a woman's feeling of tense was rather the level of WFI she experienced at home.

Additionally the final model shows that women's reported job satisfaction was totally independent on any experience of WFI. Rather women's experience of work demands affected how satisfied they were with their jobs. And such demands were in turn moderated by the quality of supervisor support they received, as well as the level of personal coping strategies they used at work. However work demands did impinge on women's WFI, so did environmental coping strategies used by women at work.

Research abounds with findings which show work demands affecting job satisfaction and being moderated by supervisor support (Bakker et al., 2005; Erdwins, et al., 2001; Martins, et al.). Additionally, research on work-family conflict also points to the fact that it can lead to job dissatisfaction (Anderson et al, 2002; Noor, 2002). The aspect of WFI not impinging on job satisfaction was a surprising finding. This finding is contrary to findings where work-family interference is known to impinge on women's experience of job satisfaction (Grandey et al., 2005). Some reasons can be adduced for this particular finding.

First, it is probable that this particular cohort of Ghanaian professional women allowed little or no permeability between the work and family domains (as was envisaged in Figure 4.3 – Working model for Study 1) unlike women elsewhere. This might again be due to their personality (Wayne et al., 2004). Findings from Studies 1 and 3 show that Ghanaian women were of the opinion that having reached this far on the corporate ladder, it was essential they consolidated their positions in a male dominated work place. They were therefore prepared to do all it took to maintain a proper balance between the demands of work and the demands of family life. Consequently women in this sample may have ensured that these two domains were kept separate, in spite of the inherent difficulty of doing this. In spite of difficulty of balancing work and family life, women in this sample were prepared to do all it took to maintain their position at work and also ensure family cohesion.

Second, one can argue that this particular sample of Ghanaian women from these two sectors may have possessed proactive personalities, which among others allowed them persevere until meaningful change occurs, whiles remaining unconstrained by situational forces (Bateman and Crant

(1993). In other words these women were those who could deal with pressure of work as well as home pressure, owing to this underlying personality (Noor, 2002, Cohen & Edwards, 1989). The issue of personality allowing women to deal with work and family issues surfaced during Study 1 (see Section 4.8.6).

Another thing that could have accounted for this is women's role salience. Role salience is said to provide individuals with meaning, self-worth, and purpose. As such, it is perceived to contribute positively to psychological well-being (Martire, Stephens, and Townsend, 2000; Pleck, 1985). Thus the prestige and social recognition that came with women's position meant that there was the additional motivation to choose to maintain this status, as well as ensure good family cohesion as much as they could.

The contributions of women's personality, as well as role salience to the WFI discourse were not tackled in this thesis. However, their importance in possibly explaining women's ability to separate work and family domains means that further research on WFI especially in the Ghanaian or African context should consider their inclusion. This is because their inclusion will help develop models that capture these

important variables, as well as test their significance in relation to employees' experience of WFI.

The final research model also showed that women's receipt of good quality spouse and child support increased their family satisfaction (Pederson et al., 2009; Erdwins et al., 2001; MacMurray et al, 2000). This finding confirms an earlier finding in Study 1, where women pointed out that receipt of appreciable levels of spousal support especially, allowed them to deal with their experience of work family interference, thereby increasing family satisfaction. This means that the issue of social support was very important for Ghanaian professional women. It was a form of 'safety net', which ensured that the home provided the needed solace to counteract any stress they encountered at work. And since the spouse and child support women received did not moderate their experience of WFI, one could argue that having the family support (Luk and Schaffer, 2005; Fu and Schaffer, 2001) was very important to them.

This probably explains why women's experience of family satisfaction was independent of the family demands they encountered at home. It is probable that even though they encountered family pressures, the receipt of spouse and child

support was what brought women most satisfaction at home (Fu and Shaffer, 2001). Consequently so long as they received this support, the level of family demands women had to deal with did not matter.

The long hours women spent at work contributed to their experience of WFI. It contributed to nearly a fifth of the variance in women's reported experience of WFI. This finding is similar to other studies (Major et al., 2002, Pocock & Wilson, 2001). This also supports the multiple role theory (Sieber, 1974) which posits that conflict is expected to occur when too many demands are placed on one's limited time and energy. In this regard this finding also confirms an earlier finding in this thesis in Chapter 6 where among others, women with heavy schedules reported being more stressed at work and feeling worn out at home. This means that the long hours most women in this cohort spent at work left them with little time and energy to deal with family demands, leading to WFI.

Question 1d asked whether there was any direct impact of women's work-related demands on their well being. The results show that only women's job satisfaction was directly related (negatively) to their work-related demands, albeit moderated by supervisor support and personal-social coping

strategies. This finding is also consistent with the literature. For example work-related stress is known to affect employees' job satisfaction (Bacharach et al., 1991)

The final research model showed that the design and the measures used in this thesis are capable of showing interaction effects, because some were found. For example the impact of work-related demands on women's job satisfaction was moderated by supervisor support and personal coping strategies used at work. (see Figure 7.3). So where interaction effects were not found, like the hypothesised moderation of the impact of work-related demands on WFI by support and coping variables, as well as the hypothesised buffering effect of home support on the relationship between family demands and outcome on women's well being, one can argue that with a degree of certainty they have not been missed. Rather, they may not exist. The main research findings have important implications for stakeholders such as employees, employers, families and policy makers.

8.3 Implications of main research findings

One important implication of the research findings is the effect of spouse and child support on women's family satisfaction.

This issue is crucial if one wants to address work-family interference among Ghanaian women holistically. In the light of this it is argued that Ghanaian men, (whether in dual-earner relationships or not) who may still have high levels of patriarchal tendencies (Eyango, 2001), should be made aware of the benefits of providing support for their spouses at home. Firstly by helping their spouses, men will enhance the physical, mental, as well as the psychological well being of women. Again both family cohesion and family satisfaction for spouses can be increased with such assistance.

This is quite important for dual earner couples in Ghana. Even though no specific research exists, recent divorces among dual-earner Ghanaian couples may have some of its antecedents in their inability to deal with work-family interference issues. Issues such as family strain and exhaustion (resulting from long hours of work), men's insistence of wives still cooking their meals, men taking minimal role in childcare activities, as well as couples sometimes working in different cities and only meeting at

weekends, may be having their toll on some Ghanaian marriages. Consequently offering such spouse support can ameliorate the impact work-family interference on family cohesion.

Employing house helps may go a long way to assist Ghanaian professional women deal with the issue of work-family interference. However there are attending problems. First is the issue of the female house help. Most professional women in Ghana did not feel very comfortable having a female non relative as a house help. This is because most would like to avoid a situation where spouses can be tempted into extra marital affairs with such house helps. Indeed quite a number of women on Study 1 intimated that they preferred a male house help (relative or non relative) or a female house help (a relative). This to them would ensure that such the occurrence of situations where their spouses were tempted, were significantly reduced if not eradicated (see Sections 4.8.4 and 5.3.2.2).

Second is the issue of the fact that even if most domestic helpers are trustworthy caretakers of children, they may not be sufficiently skilled to deal with the full spectrum of child-rearing issues. This then necessitates the involvement of

parents in such areas such as medical appointments for children, extra-mural activities, homework (from school) assistance et cetera (Vermeulen, 2006). It is pertinent to point out that in Ghana the typical house help is usually neither very skilled nor highly educated to help out in such activities. This implies that even the employment of domestic helps cannot be viewed as the complete solution for women especially in this context to have a good work-life balance.

Ghanaian policy makers and employers in particular should not see work and family as two separate and discrete domains with no overlapping influences upon each other. Rather a good solution for a positive work balance is to 'engraft' family issues into job design, work process and organisational structures just as one would consider marketing concerns or information technology (IT) input in a company or organisation. This is because the implementation of such work-family interference (or specifically work-life balance) programmes increase employee loyalty (Dex and Scheibl, 2001); and loyalty has a tangible effect on profitability (Vermeulen, 2006,). Additionally work-life balance policies are known to improve recruitment and retention rates (Evans, 2001; Galinsky and Johnson, 1998); result in reduced absenteeism and sick leave usage (Dex and Scheibl, 1999);

enhances reduction in worker stress (Evans, 2001) and brings improvement in employee satisfaction (Comfort et al 2003), and improved productivity (White et al. 2003, Konrad and Mangel, 2000).

It is argued that employers in general, and Ghanaian employers in particular should be made aware of the cost implications of not dealing with work-related stress and its attendant work-family interference experiences of their employees. For example Gatrell and Cooper(2008), point out that according to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), UK, in 2004, workplace stress accounted for the single biggest source of long term absence. And the total cost of work-related stress absences in the UK are equivalent to around £3.7 billion per annum (Swan and Cooper, 2005, p.10). Additionally, stress-related absences from work in USA in the 1980s is said to have accounted for between 1% and 3% of Gross National Product (GNP), (Cooper et al., 1986).

Indeed it is known that human resources are a very relevant source for organisations or firms to realise their competitive advantage aims (Snell et al. 2005; Wang and Barney, 2006). It is thus important for employers to ensure that employees

are not only willing, committed and highly motivated, but more importantly healthy. This is because, it is argued that a highly motivated, committed and willing employee who is not healthy, both mentally and physically might not be productive, thereby reducing the competitive advantage a firm seeks to attain. And this becomes very crucial for a developing nation like Ghana which seeks to attain middle level income status by 2020. Research has shown that it costs more to recruit and train new employees and nurture them to acquire the needed experience and competences than maintaining an already employed, experienced and competent employee (Hakim, 2007). Consequently the cost implications of employers failing and or refusing to attend to issues of work-related stress and work-family interference, especially in the Ghanaian context cannot be overlooked.

Again employers should understand the kinds of pressures women in higher status occupations undergo to ensure a good balance between work and family demands. Such efforts by women do not only guarantee family cohesion, but failure to achieve a proper balance can have a latent if not a direct effect on their productivity (Young and Wallace, 2009). It is argued that women in Ghanaian organisations like the ones under discussion should not be recruited or promoted on the

basis of whether family issues will in the future impinge on their work. Rather such decisions should be solely based on competence as pertains in countries such as the United Kingdom. This is because it takes a longer time and much money and resources to train a younger woman who has no immediate family issues (that impinge on her work), than maintain a woman who has acquired the needed competences and experience. What is important here is for the necessary work support in the form supervisor or colleague assistance as well as understanding of employee personal issues, to be given to women.

Additionally employers in Ghana with women in their work force should be helped (with workshops, lectures and symposia) to better understand and appreciate the issue of work-family interference; and how a proper handling of it, especially as it pertains to their high calibre women employees will inevitably benefit organisations (Dex and Scheibl, 2001; Vermeulen, 2006; White et al. 2003, Konrad and Mangel, 2000).

It is therefore argued that the long-practised “normative basis for working arrangements” (Hopfl and Hornby Atkinson, 2000; p 137) which is based on the conventional, masculine and

Parsonian notion of bodily presence at work for extended periods (Gatrell and Cooper, 2008), should give way to a more flexible approach aimed at encouraging 'results' that lead to productivity (but not at the expense of employees' health), rather than the emphasis on presenteeism (Collinson and Collinson, 2004) on site.

It is consequently suggested that in the Ghanaian finance sector in particular, where most work processes are networked, critical staff who may be mothers with younger children, can be allowed to work from home to reduce working hours on site. This is known to improve employees' health by reducing their sickness levels (Ala-Mursula et al, 2006; Worrall and Cooper, 1999), as well as enhance job (Comfort, et al., 2003) and family satisfaction. It may also help organisations save some costs (Halpern, 2005). The improvement in the health of employees means Ghanaian organisations may spend less money paying for hospital bills of sick employees. Again bills for fuel allowances paid to most professional women with cars in Ghana to commute to and from work can be reduced with a de-emphasis on 'presenteeism' – bodily presence on site (Collison and Collision, 2004). This can also improve retention rates and organisational commitment (Eaton, 2001). And it known that a less stressed, satisfied, healthy and happy workforce is more likely to show loyalty to an organisation,

(Lockwood, 2007; Rolando, 2005; Halpern, 2005) than a highly stressed, unsatisfied, unhealthy and unhappy workforce.

The above position notwithstanding, employees opting for flexi-hours should also be made aware some of the unintended consequences of reduced hours (Barnett et al., 2004, Hartwell, 2003), such as psychological contract violations (the beliefs employees hold regarding the terms of the informal exchange agreement between themselves and their organizations' (Turnley and Feldman, 1999, p. 897). This is because even though studies have shown that reduced hours impacts positively on work-family interference (Hartwell, 2003), psychological contract fulfilment is also known to be a strong predictor of intention to leave one's job, intention to leave a particular occupation, burnout, and career satisfaction.

Finally, one important social implication derived from the final research model is the importance of support at home. It is argued that this needs to be addressed to help women and get the best out of professional women in Ghana without unduly risking their health and family lives. This obviously has a cultural, as well as a psychological context. And although it

might be difficult to implement measures that could achieve this in everyday Ghanaian life, it still needs to be looked at.

8.4 Contribution of current thesis to the work-family interference discourse

One can point to several contributions of the current thesis to the work-family interference literature.

The first is the theoretical contribution of the thesis. It is argued that this study has been able to refine the initial basic rationale model (Figure 1.4), which was partly based on Western studies, and the initial research model (Figure 6.2) which was based purely on Western studies. These models which were initially overly broad, and included everything that was deemed relevant to the research problem, have now become more specific and focused (see Figure 7.3). This has been achieved through the evidence from the findings of the three studies conducted in this thesis.

Again the final research model of this thesis (Figure 7.3) is simple and parsimonious. Consequently, this thesis has shown that, it is theoretically possible to produce a simple and yet economic model for work-family interference in the Ghanaian

context; and still maintain all the variables found in the Western literature.

Furthermore, it is argued that this thesis has shown that though it was right to question the use of purely Western models in the local Ghanaian context, as far as the evidence shows, these models can be used for Ghanaian professional women. However it is possible that this coterie of Ghanaian women is the exception rather than the rule, when using Western models in the Ghanaian context. The important consideration however is to ensure that any linguistically different or culturally sensitive items are modified to suit the local context, while still maintaining the key essence of the item(s).

The second contribution of the current thesis is practical. It is argued that this thesis has demonstrated a number of relationships in the data and in the final research model, which can be used to help Ghanaian professional deal with work-related stress and work-family interference. For example in targeting help for women in relation to work-related stress, the thesis has shown that the emphasis should be on women in middle level management, those with less work experience, who are younger and have younger children (see Section

6.4.3). Additionally, the final research model has shown that spouse and child support is an effective resource in helping women deal with worn out symptoms at home.

An additional practical contribution is that by engaging women, their families and the organisations they work in discussions, this thesis, it is argued has brought this gender-based issue of work-family interference to the forefront of Ghanaian thinking. Consequently any Government Ministry or gender advocacy group in Ghana looking to engineer policy changes, labour and social relations, are likely to have an empirically legitimate framework in this thesis to fall upon.

A further practical contribution of the thesis can be seen in the wider strategic value of one being in Ghana and engaging the stakeholders and spreading awareness of the research problem. It is argued that this legitimises the study in the local context. Indeed this becomes more crucial if the one considers the patriarchal nature of Ghanaian society (Eyango, 2001).

Speaking from a male angle on a gender-based issue such as work-family interference in Ghana, and how women in particular can be assisted, it is argued, raises awareness of

this issue, legitimises the findings and conclusions, and allows for wider acceptance in such a society. The point here is that the findings of this thesis, it is argued, might go a long way to probably change patriarchal tendencies in Ghana. This is because in spite of the demands of their work, Ghanaian professional women's 'bodily social roles as child bearers are still linked with the expectation that they should undertake the physical labour of childcare and housework' (Gatrell and Cooper, 2008, p.79). The final research model however clearly points to spouse support as a vital resource for this sample of Ghanaian professionals, when dealing with work-family interference. Consequently Ghanaian men ought to be made aware that supporting their spouses is not a sacrifice but rather a necessity to have a healthy spouse as well as the needed family cohesion, not counting the vital financial contributions professional women do make to the family income.

Yet another contribution of the thesis has to do with methodology. Methodologically, it is argued that this thesis has shown the importance of using mixed methods (multi-strategy) to validate Western theories and models in local contexts. In the current thesis, the use of this multi-strategy was necessitated by the lack of published Ghanaian studies on

work-family interference. Not only were the Western theories and models and validated, but the use of the multi-strategy also allowed for modifications, to research instruments. This allowed for the incorporation of items in the research instruments, which were culturally legitimate, while removing culturally sensitive ones.

8.5 Recommendations

The search for a conducive work environment, to give high pressured jobs a human face that allows employees to fulfil work and family roles with satisfaction, while still achieving productivity targets and maintaining the needed family cohesion, is yet to be noticed in the developing world.

The current thesis highlights the impact of work-related stress and work-family interference on the well-being of a sample of Ghanaian women professionals. On the basis of the findings and the implications presented earlier, the measures below are recommended as a way of helping Ghanaian professional women, as well as men handle work-related stress and work-family interference in more effective ways.

- Legislation is needed to ensure that issues of work-related stress and work-family interference, which impinges on the health and well-being of employees, are taken seriously by employers. However a broad consensus must be sought from all stakeholders. This will ensure that everyone will feel part of the process, thereby legitimising such a law.
- As a consequence, the Government of Ghana through the parliament will have to show extra commitment to occupational health issues by legislating on a national policy for occupational health. Additionally an executive body made up of experts in occupational health psychology, employers and employees can be established with the sole aim of dealing with policy and operational aspects of work design, occupational health, well-being and safety matters in the work place. This can be modelled on the examples like the HSE in the UK. This will ensure that Ghanaian employees can work in conducive working environments, maintain good health, and also ensure that employers get their money's worth by being productive.

- The government of Ghana, through the Ministries of Health, Manpower and Employment can give support to key research on work-related stress and work-family interference. This will help in work re-design as well as implement intervention policies to make the labour front more humane for employees working in pressured work environments.

- Additionally the Ministry of Manpower and Employment, Labour Commission, Employers Association of Ghana and other affiliate bodies could form a coordinating body tasked with conducting regular needs assessment on the labour front. This needs assessment must target work-related stress, work family interference and the well-being of employees.

- Consequently, the Ministry of Women and Children Affairs, Ghana and other gender-based organisations in Ghana can tap into the findings of this thesis to advocate the needed policy modifications to help employees (not only women) deal with work-related stress and work-family interference issues. And through a coordinated series of workshops, training and seminars, men and women executives and HR managers alike can be made

aware of the benefits of taking a proactive perspective of tackling work-related stress and work-family interference.

- Career Guidance and Family counselling taught in Ghanaian secondary schools and tertiary institutions should incorporate aspects of work-related stress and work-family interference to create further awareness. Additionally, the teaching of Life Skills both at the primary and secondary levels should begin to address the ingrained patriarchal nature of Ghanaian society. In this regard, boys especially can be made aware at an early age that they should also help out in the home, and that the bodily social role of a woman is not only that of a child bearer, child care and house worker.
- Ghanaian organisations should endeavour seek interventions to train and maintain high quality leadership within their organisations. This is because it is well known that such leaders, who have a deep understanding of how work design can affect employees' have the tendency to positively impact employees' well-being (Kelloway et al., , 2005). This will go a long way

to ensure that the recruit and keep the cream of workers in their organisations.

- The government of Ghana can through an Act of Parliament establish an Institute of Mental Health and Well-Being, to coordinate research, dissemination and the implementation of interventions on issues such as stress, work-related stress, work family interference, as well as resources such as social support and coping in the Ghanaian context. This will help employers obtain timely and up to date empirical evidence of best practices in dealing with the issues alluded to.

- The Ministry of Education through its Department for Curriculum Development should encourage Ghanaian authors and curriculum planners to include the issue of stress, work-related stress and work family interference in Guidance and Counselling, Career Guidance as well as Career Counselling books used presently in Training Colleges and Universities. This will ensure that would-be employees are made aware of such issues prior to their entering the world of work.

- The Ministry of Manpower and Employment as well as umbrella bodies of Ghanaian employers should encourage firms and organisations to established worker friendly facilities' like crèches and nurseries on site as done in other countries and even being practised by Databank Ghana (according Ghana Broadcasting Corporation News Bulleting on 20th May, 2010) to cater for employees with younger children. This will go a long way to relieve parents, especially women in their quest to find a balance between work and such family demands as child care.
- It is further suggested that researchers in developing countries who use established theories and measures that are not localised should think of using mixed methods. So for example qualitative methods can be used to initially check the suitability of theories and methods for the local context, especially if there s a dearth of studies in that area. After using quantitative methods to further explore and confirm initial findings, qualitative methods can again be used to cross validate the final results.

8.6 Limitations of study and future research

Even though the strengths of the current thesis have been alluded to earlier, there are some limitations which would allow others to take the research further. First, the number of participants used in Study 2 was a bit low, as one had to depend on the women to get their spouses to fill in the questionnaires. It is probable that the other 10 who failed to return the questionnaire (see Section 5.2) would have said something different. And this number could probably have affected the findings and subsequent conclusions of Study 2. It is therefore suggested that any future study on WFI in the Ghanaian context, should consider obtaining a larger sample.

Second, the potentially confounding effects of personality (Noor, 2002, Cohen and Edwards, 1989), and role salience (Martire et al., 2000; Pleck, 1985) on women's experience of work-related stress and work-family interference could not be investigated in the current thesis.

It is again suggested that any future study on work-family interference especially in the Ghanaian context should consider including these variables to check their role in the work-family interface in the Ghanaian context.

Going forward however, since the thesis could only utilise a sample from two sectors (finance and education), the final research model can be further tested using different samples of professional women within Ghana, West Africa and beyond. For example research can be conducted to find out how the model sits with professional women who work in manufacturing, mining, the army, the hospitality industry, and health sectors of the Ghanaian economy.

Additionally, professional women working in rural and peri-urban settings, and whose work schedules may not be as pressured as those in the sample used for the thesis, can be roped in as part of testing the final research model further.

Finally, studies can be conducted, using the final model, among Ghanaian women entrepreneurs in small businesses, as well as non professional women working in the non-formal sector of the economy, who may not have educated spouses, and who may not be as highly educated as those in the sample used in this thesis.

8.7 Conclusion

The issue of work-life balance is becoming quite entrenched in Western societies. Sadly however this trend is at worst non-existent in most developing nations in Africa, or at best given little attention. And with globalisation and the subsequent downsizing of many firms and companies in developing nations, causing the work environment to become more pressurised, developing nations like Ghana, can no longer ignore ensuring that employees are able to deal with stress in a manner that does not affect their family lives.

Indeed it is absolutely crucial that countries like Ghana ensure that do not fall into the trap of having an unhealthy working population as a result of work-related stress and work-family interference. It is argued that the long term effect of not ensuring a healthy working, especially that of women, will be dire for any country. Davey (2007), points to similar concerns in Europe, where she posits that all EU countries now have fertility rates below replacement level (2.1 children per woman). This according to Rüdiger (2006), these are the result of women struggling to combine their family responsibilities with their participation in unsupportive labour markets. Davey concludes that significant changes in lifecycle

choices and generational behaviour make it unlikely that the EU will ever see a return to the high fertility levels of the past.

Such a situation has serious implications for labour in any country in the decades ahead. Low fertility rates, predicated upon women's inability to balance work and family would mean that younger adults to replace an ageing working population will be very rare. Consequently the needed young and energetic skilled manpower needed to turn the engine of growth for any country will be non-existent as a result. This is the pitfall that countries like Ghana will have to avoid, as they strive towards achieving high income status.

Finally, Hakim (2007) asserts that several countries have adopted individual pieces of legislation or policies that address some aspect of work-life balance. These initiatives may not be necessarily part of a comprehensive program or policy approach to achieve work-life balance. However such measures could be seen as one way to improve an employee's balance between work and other responsibilities. Examples include France's reduction of hours in the statutory work week, Belgium's introduction of time credits, Ireland's "Work Life Balance Day" and the U.S. resolution to proclaim "Work and Family Month." It is argued that countries that have not yet

brought the issue of work-life balance to the fore should start doing so because of the inherent benefits.

The search for finding ways to assist professional employees especially women to find a proper balance between work and family roles in Africa and the developing world may be in its infancy; and this thesis makes a contribution. It is hoped that this thesis will generate the needed interest among employers, employees and policy makers in the use of the final research model to promote issues of work-life balance. This, it is argued, will not only produce healthy, happy and committed employees who can help increase productivity; but will also ensure that family satisfaction and cohesion is also not sacrificed.

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APPENDIX I



INSTITUTE OF WORK, HEALTH & ORGANIZATIONS (I-WHO)

William Lee Buildings 8
Science and Technology Park
University of Nottingham
Nottingham, NG7 2QR

*A World Health Organization Collaborating Institute in
Occupational Health European Academy of Occupational
Health Psychology Topic Centre on Stress at Work*

INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM

Work- family interference (WFI) among Ghanaian women in higher status occupations.

This project is being undertaken by Mr. Paul Kobina Annan Bedu-Addo within the Institute of Work, Health & Organisations, which is a research centre with an international reputation for the study of relationship between work, stress and family life.

The overall purpose of the project is to explore work-family interference among Ghanaian females in higher status occupations.

The purpose of this interview is to gain your personal views on different issues associated with this topic.

The interview will last for approximately *1 hour*. It will be recorded on tape, if you are in agreement. The tape is purely to assist the interviewer in remembering what has been said and save time during the interview. You may switch the tape recorder off at any point during the interview, if you wish. The content of the tape will not be disclosed to any one beyond the research team, and the information will be destroyed at the end of the project.

You may terminate the interview at any stage and may withdraw your consent for the use of the information gained from the interview.

Any personal material from the interview that is used in project reports or academic papers will be quoted *anonymously* and any references that could identify you will be *removed*.

During the interview you will be asked about your own experiences. You do not have to answer any question that you find upsetting and the interviewer will respect your decision. However, even though the interviewer is a trained counsellor, if you find that you are upset during the interview or at some later time, you should approach general practitioner, your occupational health service/unit or your staff counsellor.

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this interview.

Work- family interference ((WFI) among Ghanaian females in higher status occupations: A research project

Consent to participate and assurance of confidentiality

I, the undersigned, agree to be interviewed as part of the project "*Work family interference among Ghanaian females in higher status occupations*". I have been give an explanation of the study and have been assured that:

- I will not have to answer questions that I find upsetting;
- I may withdraw from the interview at any time without having to justify my decision and may withdraw my consent for the use of any information gained form the interview;
- Similarly I may switch off the tape recorder at any time during the interview;
- The contents of the tape will not be disclosed to anyone outside the research team at I-WHO and will not be used for any purpose outside this project. The tapes will be destroyed at the end of the project (October 2010);
- Any material used in project reports, academic papers or feedback to the organization will be used anonymously and will not identify me in any way.

Signature

Date

--	--

**Name of interviewee
(optional)**

Contact details

--	--

Organization

--

Name of interviewer

Contact details

--	--

Supervisors/research team

Contact details

<i>Names of researchers involved in project</i> Paul Kobina Annan Bedu-Addo Professor Tom Cox Associate Professor Nigel Hunt	I-WHO, University of Nottingham Tel. (0115) 8466929
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APPENDIX II

Interview Schedule

Part I: General Knowledge

1. Kindly describe your normal day from the house to work and back
2. Do you normally plan your day before setting off for work?
3. To what extent do you have disruptions to your plan for the day?
4. What is your understanding of the term 'work-family conflict' with special reference to women?

Part II: Work related issues

1. How many people are under your supervision?
1-25 25- 50 50-75 75-100 100+
2. To what extent do you find your work schedule manageable?
3. Explain the extent to which your responsibilities and decisions are crucial to the running of this organization/office
4. What do you know about work-related stress?
5. Do you think it has been given much attention in the Ghanaian work place? *Kindly explain your answer.*
6. Do you encounter any work-related stress? Kindly describe your experience of it
7. If yes which aspect of your work schedule/environment do you think gives rise to this most and why?
8. How far is your house from your work site?
0-5km 5-10km 10-15km 15-20km 20km+
9. Do you normally encounter traffic congestion on your way to work? *If yes expatiate*

10. To what extent does this add to any work-related stress you would normally face at work?

Part III: Family issues

1. How many children/dependants are living with you and your spouse?
1 2 3 4 4+
2. Describe your typical day at home after work?
3. Describe how you generally spend time with your family at home after work.
4. Can you say you spend enough time with your family at home especially after work? *If no why?*
5. Describe any help you receive with your house chores before and after work?
6. Which home activity normally gives you much stress after work?
7. Do you sometimes bring work home to complete? *If yes why?*
8. Are you able to complete the work before the next day? *If yes how? If no why?*
9. Does any childcare activity undertaken at home have a bearing on the level of WFI you experience?

Part IV: Work-family interference

1. What does your spouse think about your work and family roles?
2. Does your work life intrude into your family life in any way? *If yes, kindly explain.*
3. Do you think 'flexibility' and 'permeability' contribute to your experience of WFI?

4. Do you think your status at work contributes to your experience of WFI?
5. To what extent do you think the length of your work day contribute to your experience of experience WFI?
6. To what extent does having to cater for children/dependants contribute to your experience of WFI?
7. Describe anything/activity within the home environment that increases your experience of WFI?
8. Do undertaking household chores normally overwhelm you? *If yes kindly expatiate.*
9. To what extent do your experiences in the house after work affect your attitude at work the next day?
10. Does spousal support or the lack of it have an influence on any WFI you experience? *If yes kindly explain?*
11. What percentage range would give as an indication of your ability to balance your work and family roles?

Below 20%	20-40%	40-60%	60-80%	80-100%
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>struggling coping extremely well</i>	<i>barely coping</i>	<i>fairly coping</i>	<i>coping well</i>	
12. Describe some of the methods you would normally use to cope with any WFI you experience at home on a typical day.

Part V: Work-family enhancement

1. What is your understanding of the term 'work-family enhancement/enrichment'?
2. What are some of the tangible benefits you get from doing this job?
3. What specific skills would you say you may be transferring form your work to enhance your family life?

4. What specific values would you say you may be transferring from your work to enhance your family life?

5. What percentage range would give as an indication of your work benefiting your family life?

Below 20% 20-40% 40-60% 60-80% 80-100%

Not very barely quite very extremely
beneficial beneficial beneficial beneficial beneficial

6. Kindly explain your choice of this percentage range.

Part VI: Legislation and policies

1. Are you aware of any legislation in the Ghanaian law that caters for WFI among women? *If yes expatiate.*

2. Why do you think WFI has not been given the needed attention by employers and policy makers alike?

3. Do you think enacting a law to cater for WFI especially among women is necessary for a developing country like Ghana?

4. How do you think such a law should be framed?

5. What kinds of advocacy do you think will be needed for such a law to become a reality?

6. To what extent do you think the typical educated Ghanaian man will support such a law?

7. What do you think might be some of the bottlenecks that will militate against the enactment of such a law?

APPENDIX III



QUESTIONNAIRE (for male spouses)

The purpose of our study is to find the extent to which females in higher status organizations are able to combine the work schedules and their family lives.

*Kindly tick inside the box that rightly expresses your opinion on a particular issue using the following criteria:

1 = **Strongly Agree**; 2 = **Agree**; 3 = **Not Sure**; 4 = **Disagree**; 5 = **Strongly Disagree**

Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable
a. My spouse usually works long hours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. My spouse usually has to leave home early for work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. My spouse usually returns home late from work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. I usually help to get the kids ready for school before also going to work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. I believe household duties are solely for females.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. The long hours my spouse spends at work seems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

to affect her physically.						
g. The long hours my spouse spends at work seems to affect her emotionally.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h. My spouse's work schedule does not allow us to have fruitful interaction in the home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
*Indicate the % of your contribution to household duties	* 20% <input type="checkbox"/>	21 - 40% <input type="checkbox"/>	41 -60% <input type="checkbox"/>	61 -80% <input type="checkbox"/>	81-100% <input type="checkbox"/>	Not. Applic. <input type="checkbox"/>
Answer the questions below using this criteria	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable
i. I must encourage my spouse when she is emotionally drained after work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
j. I feel combining daily household duties and work schedule normally overwhelms my spouse	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
k. I feel my spouse should spend less hours at work and more hours at home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

For items 'l' to 'n', kindly type your response (in italics) in the grey rectangular box provided. Just click inside the box and begin typing your response.

i. What do you think are the main benefits of your spouse's work to the family?

m. What do you think are the main problems of your spouse's work in relation to your family?

n. Are there times you wished that you had more family interaction with your spouse in place of all the benefits her work brings to the family? Yes

No

Kindly explain further: **Because**

***Any information given towards the success of this study will be treated with the highest level of confidence.**

WE REALLY APPRECIATE YOUR CONTRIBUTION TOWARDS THE SUCCESS OF THIS STUDY.

THANK YOU.



APPENDIX IV



Institute of Work, Health & Organisations

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*A World Health Organization Collaborating Centre in Occupational Health
European Agency's Topic Centre on Stress at Work*

SURVEY ON WORK-FAMILY INTERFERENCE AMONG GHANAIAN WOMEN IN HIGHER STATUS OCCUPATIONS

Dear Madam,

I am a research student in Applied Psychology at the University of Nottingham, UK. My PhD. examines the incidence and impact of work-family interference among Ghanaian women in higher status occupations, normally characterized by longer working hours, higher levels of responsibility and decision-making, flexibility in work schedules and sometimes higher levels of remuneration.

The aim of this questionnaire is to explore your perception of work-family interference. It is important that I get a balanced perspective of your views. The more objective and accurate your responses, the more useful the information will be.

Your questionnaire is strictly anonymous and will only be read by my supervisor and myself. All the information you give is voluntary, and if there are any questions in the survey which you do not feel happy about answering, please leave those particular questions blank, and fill in the rest. Any report based on the findings of the study will not identify individuals.

Kindly fill in the questionnaire and return it to the contact person in your organization. A summary of the findings will be made available to anyone interested after October, 2010. If you have any queries about this questionnaire, its nature or its purpose, or you wish to be informed on the results of the study, do not hesitate to ask me in person, or contact me confidentially on +447946281682, or at the following address.

Paul Kobina Annan Bedu-Addo
Institute of Work, Health & Organisations
University of Nottingham

Section 2

Demands of Going to Work

Most professional women in Ghana undertake several activities before going to work and more often than not, such activities tend to have an impact on their work schedule for the day. Listed below are a series of such activities alluded to by female professionals who were interviewed recently. **For each item kindly circle the number** that reflects whether or not a particular activity(s) is a problem or source of stress to you, using the following criteria:

0 = not at all stressful; 1 = somewhat stressful; 2 = stressful;
3 = very stressful; 4 = extremely stressful; 9 = not applicable

1. Bathing my children before going to work	0	1	2	3	4	9
2. Preparing breakfast before going to work	0	1	2	3	4	9
3. Giving the day's instruction to the house help	0	1	2	3	4	9
4. Cross-checking my children's homework	0	1	2	3	4	9
5. Ensuring all my work papers are in my bag	0	1	2	3	4	9
6. Driving through the morning traffic	0	1	2	3	4	9
7. Dropping my kids at school	0	1	2	3	4	9
8. Cross-checking my day's work itinerary	0	1	2	3	4	9
9. Attending an early meeting(work-related)	0	1	2	3	4	9
10. The time it takes to get to work	0	1	2	3	4	9
11. The time it takes me to get ready for work	0	1	2	3	4	9

Section 3

Demands of Your Job

Almost every job has its demanding and/or difficult aspects. And these features can relate to the nature of the job itself or to the personal and organisational circumstances that we have to work in. Listed below are a series of such job demands raised by Ghanaian women professionals who were interviewed recently. For each item **circle** the number which reflects whether or not a particular aspect of your job is a problem or a source of stress to you, using the following criteria:

0 = not at all stressful; 1 = somewhat stressful; 2 = stressful;
3 = very stressful; 4 = extremely stressful; 9 = not applicable

1. Having too much variety in my work	0	1	2	3	4	9
2. Too many interruptions in daily schedule	0	1	2	3	4	9

3. Working beyond normal working hours	0	1	2	3	4	9
4. Knowing the importance of my decisions	0	1	2	3	4	9
5. Working to tight time limits/target dates	0	1	2	3	4	9
6. Meeting performance indicators	0	1	2	3	4	9
7. Amount of new learning required for the job	0	1	2	3	4	9
8. Having meetings/other tasks outside office whiles daily work is still undone	0	1	2	3	4	9
9. Replying work related e-mails whiles still going through daily schedule	0	1	2	3	4	9
10. Colleagues not 'pulling their weight'	0	1	2	3	4	9
11. Supervisor's misunderstanding of my personal problems	0	1	2	3	4	9
12. Having to perform so many tasks at work on a daily basis	0	1	2	3	4	9
13. Having to help a colleague out with a task whiles mine remains undone	0	1	2	3	4	9
14. High expectations of my daily work from management/boss	0	1	2	3	4	9
15. High expectations of my work from colleagues	0	1	2	3	4	9
16. Colleagues demanding an early review of their work to beat deadlines, even when they bring it close to the deadline	0	1	2	3	4	9

17. Having to settle disputes between subordinates	0	1	2	3	4	9
18. Having to sit by the computer for a long time	0	1	2	3	4	9
19. Lack of team spirit amongst colleagues	0	1	2	3	4	9
20. Peers not keeping each other well informed about work-related issues	0	1	2	3	4	9
21. Dealing with angry customers/visitors	0	1	2	3	4	9
22. Insufficient financial remuneration	0	1	2	3	4	9
23. Not having enough autonomy/control in my job	0	1	2	3	4	9
24. Personality clashes at work	0	1	2	3	4	9
25. A colleague filing a complaint against me	0	1	2	3	4	9
26. Stress related illness not addressed sufficiently by organization	0	1	2	3	4	9

27. To what extent do you think work stress has been addressed in your work place?

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Section 4. Support at work and at Home

*Even though the work place and the home can be such demanding arenas, there are times we are able to receive support in dealing with both work, personal and even family issues while at work or home. Listed below are a series of support alluded to by Ghanaian female professional recently interviewed. **For each item kindly circle the frequency** at which you receive such support at work and at home on a daily*

basis if needs be, using the following criteria:

0 = never; 1 = rarely; 2 = sometimes; 3 = often; 4 = always; 9 = not applicable

1. My boss is supportive when I have a work problem	0	1	2	3	4	9
2. My boss accommodates me when I have family or personal business to take care of for example medical appointment, meeting with my child's teacher	0	1	2	3	4	9
3. During working hours I am able to take time of and attend to a pressing personal or family need	0	1	2	3	4	9
4. I feel comfortable bringing up personal or family issues with my boss.	0	1	2	3	4	9
5. My boss really cares about the effects that work demands have on my personal and family life	0	1	2	3	4	9
6. My colleagues support me when I have a work problem	0	1	2	3	4	9
7. My colleagues show understanding if I talk about personal issues that affect my work.	0	1	2	3	4	9
8. My colleagues will 'stand in' for me if I have to go out of the office on an important personal, or family errand	0	1	2	3	4	9
9. I feel comfortable sharing my personal or family problems that might affect my work performance with my colleagues	0	1	2	3	4	9
11. My spouse assists me in getting the kids ready for school in the morning	0	1	2	3	4	9
12. My spouse sometimes helps me in getting foodstuffs and other essentials for the home	0	1	2	3	4	9
13. My spouse sometimes helps me in cooking for the home	0	1	2	3	4	9
14. My spouse/driver/friend sometimes pick up the kids at school for me	0	1	2	3	4	9
15. I am able to chat with my spouse and release my emotional exhaustion after work	0	1	2	3	4	9
16. I get assistance from my house help in household chores, which relieves me of much of the physical exhaustion before work	0	1	2	3	4	9

17. I get assistance from my house help in household chores, which relieves me of much of the emotional burden I would have gone through after work	0	1	2	3	4	9
18. My kids allow me to rest when I get home tired and exhausted	0	1	2	3	4	9
19. My spouse does not demand too much of my time and energy after work	0	1	2	3	4	9
20. I am able to chat with my kids after work which helps me to relax after a stressful day at work	0	1	2	3	4	9

Section 5: Work-Family Interference

*Balancing work and family roles seems to have become increasingly difficult for the modern professional female, owing to several factors, some of which are beyond the individual's control and others which can be dealt with by the individual. Listed below are a series of situations, alluded to by Ghanaian professional females interviewed recently, which they believe, may give rise to work-family interference. **For each item kindly circle the number** which most appropriately expresses your opinion in **the last 6 months**, using the following criteria:*

0 = completely disagree; disagree; 1 = disagree; 2 = neither agree nor disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = completely agree; 9 = not applicable

1. I am sometimes irritable at home because my work is demanding	0	1	2	3	4	9
2. I can't have time to enjoy the company of my spouse owing to the nature of my work	0	1	2	3	4	9
3. I find it difficult to fulfil my domestic obligations owing to the nature of my work.	0	1	2	3	4	9
4. There are times I have to cancel appointments with my spouse/friends/family owing to work-related commitments	0	1	2	3	4	9
5. My work takes up the time I would like to spend with my family	0	1	2	3	4	9
6. My family dislikes how often I am preoccupied with my work even while I am at home	0	1	2	3	4	9
7. Owing to work commitments I often make changes to my plans for family activities	0	1	2	3	4	9
8. On typical day I feel I have to rush to	0	1	2	3	4	9

get things done at home and work						
9. My job produces strain that makes difficult to make changes to plans for my family	0	1	2	3	4	9
10. The demands of my job makes it difficult to be relaxed all the time at home	0	1	2	3	4	9
11. The demands of my job makes it difficult to be the kind of spouse I would like to be	0	1	2	3	4	9
12. The demands of my job makes it difficult to be the kind of parent I would like to be	0	1	2	3	4	9
13. I am usually unable to spend more time with my kids owing to my job	0	1	2	3	4	9
14. Things I want to do at home, do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me	0	1	2	3	4	9
15. I wish I had more time to do things for my family	0	1	2	3	4	9
16. The demands of my job means I am unable to pursue my hobbies/ leisure activities frequently	0	1	2	3	4	9
17. I feel physically drained when I get home from work	0	1	2	3	4	9
18. I feel emotionally drained when I get home from work	0	1	2	3	4	9
19. I feel mentally exhausted when I get home from work	0	1	2	3	4	9
20. I feel my job sometimes takes me from my family too much	0	1	2	3	4	9
21. I sometimes feel my marital life suffers as a result of the demands of my work	0	1	2	3	4	9
22. The nature of my work means I don't have enough time for myself	0	1	2	3	4	9
23. It is difficult balancing the energy needed for work and family life	0	1	2	3	4	9
24. Trying to cope with both work and family life is exhausting	0	1	2	3	4	9

25. I am generally able to balance the demands of my work and family roles	0	1	2	3	4	9
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Section 6.

Your general well-being

Please read each of the questions carefully and decide how often, **over the last six months**, you have experienced the various symptoms that are listed. Below are some of the symptoms alluded to by Ghanaian professionally women interviewed recently. **Kindly circle just one point on each response scale (from All the Time to Never).** We would like you to answer all the questions so that we can score the questionnaire fully.

Over the last six months, how often have you.....	All the Time	Often	Some times	Rarely	Never
1. Been bothered by fatigue?	4	3	2	1	0
2. Become easily bored with work schedule?	4	3	2	1	0
3. Felt emotionally drained from your work	4	3	2	1	0
4. Become easily annoyed or irritated as a result of pressure at work?	4	3	2	1	0
5. Felt used up at the end of the workday	4	3	2	1	0
6. Felt tired when you got up in the morning and had to face another day on the job	4	3	2	1	0
7. Got mixed up in your thinking when you have had to do things quickly?	4	3	2	1	0
8. Broken out in a rash when you have been upset or excited?	4	3	2	1	0
9. Felt burned out or stressed by your work	4	3	2	1	0
10. Done things rashly or on impulse?	4	3	2	1	0
11. Felt nervous and stressed	4	3	2	1	0
12. Felt drained from undertaking household activities like cooking and childcare	4	3	2	1	0
13. Found things getting on your nerves and wearing you out?	4	3	2	1	0
14. Become afraid of unfamiliar places or people?	4	3	2	1	0
15. Become easily tired?	4	3	2	1	0
16. Been bothered by minor	4	3	2	1	0

	health problems such as headaches or stomach upset					
17.	Experienced numbness or tingling in your arms or legs?	4	3	2	1	0
18.	Had difficulty in falling or staying asleep?	4	3	2	1	0
19.	Been tense or jittery?	4	3	2	1	0
20.	Found that you could not cope with all the things you had to do	4	3	2	1	0
21.	Had any pains in the heart or chest?	4	3	2	1	0
22.	Been troubled by stammering?	4	3	2	1	0
23.	Found it hard to make up your mind?	4	3	2	1	0
24.	Worn yourself out worrying about your health?	4	3	2	1	0

Section 7.

Work outcomes

*Even though the work place can be stressful, there are certain aspects of our job that gives us satisfaction. Listed are some of the aspects of work that gave satisfaction/dissatisfaction to Ghanaian professional women interviewed recently. **For each item kindly circle the number** which most appropriately expresses your opinion in the last **6 months**, using the following criteria:*

**0 = totally disagree; 1 = disagree; 2 = not sure;
3 = agree; 4 = totally agree; 9 = not applicable**

1.	I am generally satisfied with my job	0	1	2	3	4	9
2.	The work I do on my job is meaningful to me	0	1	2	3	4	9
3.	I feel respected at work,	0	1	2	3	4	9
4.	Owing to my heavy work schedule I have thought of leaving this job at least once	0	1	2	3	4	9
5.	I always look forward to being at work with my colleagues each day	0	1	2	3	4	9
6.	My flexible work schedule allows me to function well at work	0	1	2	3	4	9
7.	I feel able to cope/manage my work	0	1	2	3	4	9
8.	I am unable to time off work and see to family matters during working hours	0	1	2	3	4	9
9.	At work I feel I must choose between	0	1	2	3	4	9

advancing my career or devoting attention to family or personal needs							
10. Owing to the attitude of my boss, I have considered quitting my job at least once	0	1	2	3	4	9	
11. I am satisfied with my job because my work schedule ties in with my area of expertise	0	1	2	3	4	9	
12. Even though I sometimes work long hours I am satisfied with my job	0	1	2	3	4	9	
13. Owing to the attitude of my colleagues I have thought of leaving this job at least once	0	1	2	3	4	9	
14. The other fringe benefits I receive from my job gives me satisfaction	0	1	2	3	4	9	
15. Since promotion is on merit in my organisation, I am satisfied with my job	0	1	2	3	4	9	
16. Since my supervisor sometimes helps me deal with my personal and family issues, I am happy on this job	0	1	2	3	4	9	
17. The offer of a bit of money with another employer, would not seriously make me think of changing jobs	0	1	2	3	4	9	
18. In general, I don't like my job	0	1	2	3	4	9	
19. I am quite proud to tell people I work for... (your organization)	0	1	2	3	4	9	
20. There are times I feel like quitting this job for another job in order to have more time for my family	0	1	2	3	4	9	

Section 8. Family outcomes

*Even though the family domain is usually a place of 'refuge' from the hassles of work, it can also be a stressful place. There are certain times of our job impacts on our family lives. Listed are some of the views expressed on this issue by Ghanaian professional women interviewed recently. **For each item kindly circle the number** which most appropriately expresses your opinion in the last **6 months**, using the following criteria:*

0 = totally disagree; 1 = disagree; 2 = not sure 3 = agree; 4 = totally agree; 9 = not applicable

1. I am generally satisfied with my family life	0	1	2	3	4	9
2. Owing to pressures of work, I sometimes find myself quarrelling with my spouse/partner	0	1	2	3	4	9
3. I feel I am able to play my role as a wife/partner in spite of the demands	0	1	2	3	4	9

on my time and energy by my job						
4. I am generally satisfied with my marital life in spite of work pressures	0	1	2	3	4	9
5. I feel I am generally able to play my role as a parent	0	1	2	3	4	9
6. I am able to have quality interaction with my children after work in spite of the demands on my time and energy	0	1	2	3	4	9
7. I am able to devote some time and energy for leisure activities at home in spite of work pressure	0	1	2	3	4	9
8. I always look forward to going home from work	0	1	2	3	4	9
9. My children normally take up the little time I have to rest after work	0	1	2	3	4	9
10. I am not able to get the needed interaction with my spouse after work	0	1	2	3	4	9

Section 9: How you cope with the stress you experience at work

*We all have our own means of dealing with work pressures. Listed below are a variety of strategies for handling such pressures suggested by your colleagues who were interviewed recently. How much do you personally employ each strategy as a way of dealing with work pressures? **Kindly circle a number '0' (never) to '4' (all the time)** that best represents the frequency, with which you employ each strategy.*

0 = never; 1 = rarely; 2 = sometimes; 3 = often; 4 = all the time; 9 = not applicable

1. Getting together with the supervisor or line manager to discuss the problem	0	1	2	3	4	9
2. Talk the problem over with my colleagues	0	1	2	3	4	9
3. Talk it over with friends and family outside work	0	1	2	3	4	9
4. Try to avoid the situation as much as possible	0	1	2	3	4	9
5. Plan and initiate a course of action to deal	0	1	2	3	4	9
6. Seek the support of my supervisor/line manager	0	1	2	3	4	9
7. Accept the situation and learn to live with it	0	1	2	3	4	9
8. Use some form of relaxation (music, meditation)	0	1	2	3	4	9
9. Go for a walk during break	0	1	2	3	4	9
10. Suppress emotions and try not to let your feelings show	0	1	2	3	4	9

11. Vent my emotions on family and friends	0	1	2	3	4	9
12. Try to reorganise my time and work tasks more effectively	0	1	2	3	4	9
13. Take stress relieving medication	0	1	2	3	4	9
14. Keep busy and take your mind off things	0	1	2	3	4	9
13. Pray about it during break time/after work go for a drink with colleagues after work	0	1	2	3	4	9
14. Take work home	0	1	2	3	4	9
15. Stay late and work longer hours	0	1	2	3	4	9
16. Tell Secretary to restrict the number of people coming in to see me during working hours	0	1	2	3	4	9
17. Take time off-sick	0	1	2	3	4	9
18. Scream or swear to 'get it off my chest'	0	1	2	3	4	9
19. Have a laugh/see the funny side of things	0	1	2	3	4	9
20. Focus on things outside work	0	1	2	3	4	9
21. Just talk to my family about my day's work	0	1	2	3	4	9

22. Kindly describe any other ways you try to cope with work.

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Section 10: How you cope with the stress you experience at home

*We all have our own means of dealing with family pressures. Listed below are a variety of strategies for handling such pressures suggested by your colleagues who were interviewed recently. How much do you personally employ each strategy as a way of dealing with stress at home? **Kindly circle a number '0' (never) to '4' (all the time)** that best represents the frequency with which you employ each strategy.*

0 = never; 1 = rarely; 2 = sometimes; 3 = often; 4 = all the time 9 = not applicable

1. I just sleep	0	1	2	3	4	9
2. I try to read	0	1	2	3	4	9
3. I chat with the kids	0	1	2	3	4	9
4. I try going for a walk	0	1	2	3	4	9
5. I listen to music	0	1	2	3	4	9
6. I watch films	0	1	2	3	4	9

7. I pray	0	1	2	3	4	9
8. I try chatting with friend/next door neighbour	0	1	2	3	4	9
9. I play with the kids	0	1	2	3	4	9
10. I try to intimately chat to my spouse/partner	0	1	2	3	4	9

Kindly describe any other strategy you use, which has not been mentioned above.

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THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR TAKING TIME TO FILL IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

GOD RICHLY BLESS YOU.

