Interference between Work and Home: An Empirical Study of the Antecedents, Outcomes, and Coping Strategies amongst Public Sector Employees

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Abstract

Work-home interference has been receiving increasing attention in the organizational behaviour literature. It is defined as a form of inter-role conflict in which the demands of the work role and the demands of the home role are mutually incompatible. Existing research on work interference with home/home interference with work has focused on situational antecedents and attitudinal outcomes, with limited attention paid to gender- and disposition-based predictors, behavioural outcomes, and coping strategies associated with interference. Using a quantitative methodology, this thesis drew upon two separate samples of UK public sector employees, comprising 208 and 226 respondents respectively, to pursue three aims: 1) to examine the roles of gender and of personality in contributing to interference, as well as the potential for characteristics associated with one domain (e.g., home) to influence the degree of interference generated by the opposing domain (e.g., work); 2) to investigate the link between interference and extra-role work behaviours such as organizational citizenship and workplace deviance; and 3) to extend existing knowledge of coping strategies for dealing with work-home interference.

Findings indicated that gender moderated the effects of both home- and work-related characteristics on home interference with work, and that dispositional variables were capable of predicting work-home interference above and beyond the effects of situational characteristics. With regard to behavioural outcomes, work-home interference predicted increased workplace deviance amongst employees. Work interference with home was associated with greater employee participation in organizational citizenship behaviours, while the opposite was true for home interference with work. In terms of coping with interference, cognitive reappraisal was identified as the most effective strategy, and gender was found to moderate the effect of certain coping strategies on interference. Contributions of the thesis, major research and practical implications, and future research directions are discussed.

Publications arising

Beauregard, T. A. (2004, August). *Effects of work-home interference on task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, New Orleans, LA.

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1.1 What is work-home interference?

Over the last twenty years, the intersection of paid work and home life has received an increasing amount of attention in both the academic and popular press. Work-home interference has been defined as a form of role conflict in which the demands of the work role and the demands of the home role are mutually incompatible (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997), such that meeting demands in one domain (e.g., work) makes it difficult to meet demands in the other (e.g., home). Its popularity as a topic of discussion coincides with a number of demographic and employment trends in the UK and abroad, which have presented new challenges for individuals seeking to manage simultaneous demands from work and from home.

Changes in women's participation in the labour force, in population demographics, in working time, and in office-related technology have contributed to both 1) an increased number of roles for the average individual, and 2) increased opportunities for the multiple demands associated with work and home roles to interfere with one another. This chapter will describe these changes and their impact on the emergence of work-home interference as a major phenomenon of the past two decades, before examining the key theoretical perspectives on the effects of multiple role demands on individual well-being. The perspective taken by this thesis will then be presented, and the aims of the thesis outlined.

1.2 Contributing factors to the current prevalence of work-home interference and multiple roles

1.2.1 Changes in women's employment

Over the past few decades, there has been a growing trend in both the United Kingdom and the United States toward the greater participation of women in the labour force. Between 1984 and 2003, the percentage of all women of working age in the UK who were employed rose from 58% to 70% (Hibbett & Meager, 2003). In the US, the figure rose from 44% in 1978 to 65% in 1998 (Cohen & Bianchi, 1999).

The increase in employment of mothers of young children has been particularly dramatic. In 1984, 27% of mothers in the UK with children under 5 years of age were employed; by 2002, that number had also doubled to reach 53%, with 27% working full-time (Brannen, 2000; Duffield, 2002). In the US, 58% of mothers with children under 6 years of age were employed in 1998, 35% full-time (Cohen & Bianchi, 1999).

This rise in the number of working women has produced a substantial increase in the number of dual-earner households. Traditional families, in which only the male partner is employed outside the home, constitute only 19% of all families in the US. Dual-earner families account for 54% of all American families (Cornell Employment and Families Careers Institute, 1999). In the UK, dual-earner households have become the most common household type for two-parent families; in 1994, 60% were in this category, compared with 47% ten years previously (Brannen, Moss, Owen and Vale, 1997). At the same time, the number of two-parent households in which there was only one earner declined by about a third, from 43% in 1984 to 30% in 1994 (Brannen et al., 1997.).

Single-parent households are also on the increase. The proportion of households headed by lone parents has doubled in the UK since 1970; in 2002, 6% of all households were single-parent households, with 90% of these headed by women (Office for National Statistics, 2004). At the time of the 2001 Census, 23% of children were living in households headed by single parents (Office for National Statistics, 2003). Nearly 40% of single mothers in the UK are employed, with 19% working full-time (Paull, Taylor, & Duncan, 2002). In the US, 28% of children live in households headed by a lone parent, with 23% living in households headed by single mothers (Fields, 2003). Approximately 73% of single American mothers are employed outside the home (Lerman, McKernan, & Pindus, 2001).

The growing presence of women in the labour force means that there is a shrinking proportion of households in which one member stays at home full-time. Completion of household work and childcare responsibilities must therefore be tackled by individuals, both women and men, whose time and energies are also allocated to the workplace. These multiple demands upon one's personal resources create further opportunities for the world of work to intrude upon home life, and vice versa.

Furthermore, single employed parents are faced with additional challenges in terms of balancing their work and home responsibilities. Like parents in dual-earner households, they must cope with the combined demands of paid work and domestic duties, but unlike parents in two-partner households, they must do so without the practical assistance and emotional support of a partner, and often under the burden of financial strain (Brannen, 2000).

1.2.2 Changes in population demographics

The population of both the UK and the US is aging (Office for National Statistics, 2003; US Census Bureau, 2002). The age distribution of both countries is characterized by an overrepresentation of people in their prime working years, and a diminishing pool of young adults. As the average age of the population increases, more working adults will be called upon to take responsibility for care of their elderly parents or other relatives.

There is already a substantial segment of the workforce engaged in unpaid caregiving activities. The 2001 Census reveals that nearly 11% of full-time workers in the UK provide unpaid care for elderly or disabled relations (Office for National Statistics, 2003). A recent Family Resources Survey found that approximately 75% of all informal caregivers for the elderly in the UK are employed outside the home, with 56% working full-time (Machin & McShane, 2001).

As with parents of young children, the combination of paid work and caregiving responsibilities yields increased opportunities for work and home demands to conflict with one another. Particularly affected are working adults with caregiving responsibilities for both elderly relatives and young children. According to recent General Household Surveys in the UK, 33% of women and 34% of men aged 35-59 care for both elderly parents and dependent children (Agree, Bissett, & Rendall, 2003). In a recent survey of a nationally representative sample of the US labour force, 20% of respondents had simultaneous childcare and eldercare responsibilities (Bond, Galinsky, & Swanberg, 1998). These individuals are commonly referred to as the "sandwich generation", and are acknowledged as facing exceptional difficulties in balancing the demands of work and home (Vanier Institute of the Family, 2000).

1.2.3 Changes in working time

Over the past two decades, there has been a decreasing trend in the average number of hours worked by UK employees. In 1980, workers logged an average 1,775 hours on the job; in 2000, they worked 1,728 (International Labour Office, 2001). Recently, however, this trend has begun to reverse itself, with an increase from 2002 to 2003 in the number of average hours worked weekly (Williams, 2004). Moreover, the average number of hours worked by parents of young children in two-earner households has increased from 71.3 in 1984 to 74.5 in 1994. In households where both parents work in professional or managerial jobs, this figure rose to 90 hours per week (Brannen et al., 1997).

In the US, working hours have risen steadily in the past twenty-odd years. In 1980, American workers put in an average of 1,883 hours on the job; in 2000, they worked 1,978 (International Labour Office, 2001). There has also been a significant increase in the proportion of workers who work more than 50 hours per week (Jacobs & Gerson, 2000).

Because time is held to be a finite resource, more time spent at work leaves less time for employees to fulfil their responsibilities at home. The general increase in working hours described above is often cited as a contributing factor to the escalation of conflict between competing role demands (Duxbury & Higgins, 2001).

1.2.4 Changes in office-related technology

Technological advances have fundamentally changed the nature of work over the last few decades. The use of office technology such as e-mail, fax, and mobile phones renders workers available to work at any time and at any location, blurring the boundaries between work and home. According to Duxbury and Higgins (2001), these forms of office technology are associated with increased workloads and greater job stress. Employees *can* be available to work beyond regular hours and outside of the usual location of work; therefore, employers grow to expect that they *should*. Bringing work into the home domain can impede the fulfilment of family

responsibilities and reduce the amount of time available overall for leisure and social activities.

The changes described above contribute in two ways to the potential for work and home demands to interfere with one another. First, changes in women's employment and in the demographic profile of the population create new roles for individuals: mothers are more likely to be employees, employees are more likely to be unpaid caregivers to the elderly, and the tasks associated with the traditional role of homemaker must be redistributed among household members. Second, changes in working time and in office-related technology create new ways for existing roles to conflict with each other, by extending the amount of time spent at work and thereby reducing the amount of time available to spend at home, or by bringing work activities into the home.

1.3 Effects of multiple roles on individual well-being

The effects of multiple roles such as these on individual well-being vary according to which of the three major perspectives on multiple demands is adopted. The most common approach in the work-home interference literature is the *role stress hypothesis*, which states that the combination of work and home demands generates stress and psychological illness in the long term (Nordenmark, 2002). This phenomenon can be explained by the scarcity hypothesis (Chapman, Ingersoll-Dayton, & Neal, 1994), which proposes that individuals possess a fixed amount of time and energy. An increase in roles will therefore result in an increased likelihood of role conflict and role overload, which in turn produce negative repercussions such as physical and psychological strain (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001). This perspective is reflected in the essentially negative terminology used in much of the work-home research to describe the intersection of multiple demands; work-family "conflict" and work-home "interference" are the phrases most commonly employed (e.g., Demerouti, Bakker, & Bulters, 2004; Foley, Ngo, & Lui, 2003; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997).

Because the majority of research on interference between work and home uses the role stress hypothesis as its foundation, there is a wealth of empirical evidence

supporting this theory (a review follows in Chapter 2). Employed individuals who hold additional family roles have been found to report higher levels of psychosomatic symptoms such as headaches, tension, and fatigue (Doyle & Hind, 1998; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Moen & Yu, 1998). Caregiving responsibilities for dependent children or elderly adults has been shown to predict increased amounts of interference between work and home demands (Carlson, 1999; Gignac, Kelloway, & Gottlieb, 1996), and work-home interference is itself an established predictor of anxiety, depression, and low levels of general health and energy (Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996; MacEwen & Barling, 1994).

A contrasting viewpoint is that of the *role expansion hypothesis*, which states that the manifold resources provided by multiple roles compensate for any negative effects of multiple demands on well-being, and that multiple roles therefore have positive effects overall on psychological well-being and physical health (Nordenmark, 2002). An individual with multiple social roles is assumed to be able to compensate for difficulties in one domain by seeking support and satisfaction in another. According to Pietromonaco, Manis, and Frohardt-Lane (1986), participation in multiple roles can also increase an individual's perception of control over his or her life by providing opportunities to control financial, family, and social matters. This perspective is reflected in recent research on work-family "facilitation" and work-life "balance", which investigates the positive consequences of multiple roles (e.g., Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, in press; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004).

While there is less research investigating this hypothesis than that of role stress, there have been findings to support its propositions. Rushing and Schwabe (1995) demonstrated that individuals holding the roles of spouse, parent, and paid worker generally enjoy higher levels of psychological well-being than do individuals holding only one or none of these roles. Walters, Eyles, Lenton, French, and Beardwood (1998) also found that a strong engagement in both employment and family life has a positive effect on health and well-being. The psychological benefits of multiple roles may be greatest, however, when family responsibilities are not too onerous (White, Booth, & Edwards, 1986).

Finally, the *selection hypothesis* holds that the relationship between multiple social roles and well-being is due to prior personal and emotional characteristics, and is not caused by the multiple role situation (Nordenmark, 2002). Proponents of this perspective suggest that individuals who are strongly engaged in both employment and family life enjoy a high level of physical and psychological well-being because only healthy individuals are likely to achieve this position to begin with, and not because the position itself contributes to improved health. Nordenmark (2002) found that parents who worked over 40 hours a week or had a highly-qualified job experienced levels of psychological distress similar to or lower than individuals who were less engaged in multiple roles, demonstrating support for this theory.

1.4 Perspective and aims of this thesis

The perspective adopted by this thesis is a combination of the role stress hypothesis and the selection approach. The focus will be on a negative aspect of combining multiple role demands: interference between the domains of work and home. In line with the selection hypothesis, personal characteristics will be explored as predictors of the degree to which individuals report negative consequences of multiple role demands.

While it is undoubtedly important to acknowledge and investigate the positive aspects of multiple roles, this thesis will not incorporate the role expansion perspective for two reasons. First, the study of positive repercussions of combining work and home roles is still in its infancy and there is not yet sufficient theoretical or empirical research with which to test hypotheses. Second, there is considerable evidence that work-home interference remains a widespread concern among both individual employees and organizations, and that further research into its determinants and outcomes is required before its negative effects can be resolved. In a recent nationwide survey, 49% of UK workers reported that managing competing work and home demands was a concern for them (JP Morgan Fleming, 2003). Work-home interference is also a major issue for employers. Interviews with a representative sample of large employers across the UK indicate that 66% report absenteeism among staff due to childcare problems, and 42% report that staff concerns regarding care for dependents result in fatigue, irritability, and stress in the workplace (Daycare Trust,

2002). The Department of Trade and Industry has estimated that the economic costs of employee absence to cope with family problems were £11 billion in 1999, an average of £500 per employee. Stress and illness were estimated to have lost between 4.4 and 8.5 million work days, and to have cost £360 million in the same year (DTI, 2000).

It is evident that interference between work and home is a substantial concern for individuals and organizations. Despite the prevalence of work-home interference, however, there are a number of gaps in the work-home literature. This thesis aims to contribute to research on work-home interference by examining under-explored antecedents and outcomes of interference, and also by investigating the coping strategies associated with interference. In the following chapter, the work-home literature will be reviewed, and the aims of this thesis located therein. The roles of work and home characteristics, personality, and gender in predicting interference will then be explored in Chapters 4 and 5. After establishing what determines work-home interference, this thesis will turn in Chapters 6 and 7 to an examination of how interference affects employees' behaviour in the workplace. Finally, an investigation of individual coping strategies and their effectiveness in alleviating work-home interference will be undertaken in Chapter 8. The implications of the findings of this thesis will be discussed in Chapter 9.

Chapter 2 – Literature review

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    2.2.2   Dimensionality of work-home interference

2.3   Antecedents of work-home interference

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2.6   Aims of the thesis

2.1 Introduction

The topic of work-home interference has steadily been gaining in popularity over the past twenty years. However, many questions remain unanswered about what causes interference, what consequences it brings for employees and their organizations, and how individuals cope with interference. For instance, does an individual's gender affect how he or she experiences work-home interference? Can an individual's personality predict the amount of interference he or she experiences? In terms of outcomes, does work-home interference influence the degree to which an employee performs organizational citizenship behaviours? If employees blame their organization for causing their work-home interference, are they more likely to engage in deviant workplace behaviours? Finally, with regard to coping, which coping strategies are most effective in reducing work-home interference? Do men and women use different coping strategies for dealing with work-home interference, and are some strategies more effective for one gender than the other?

This thesis aspires to answer these questions regarding the operation of interference between work and home. The present chapter sets the stage for the research questions investigated in the remainder of the thesis by locating these questions in the existing work-home literature. First, theory regarding how work-home interference is conceptualized in the literature will be described. Empirical evidence supporting the bi-directionality and multidimensional nature of interference will then be presented. Afterwards, empirically established antecedents and outcomes of work-home interference will be reviewed, as well as what knowledge exists regarding how individuals cope with interference.

2.2 Conceptualization of work-home interference

The intersection of work and home has usually been portrayed in terms of two general hypothetical processes. The first is *compensation*, in which disappointments in one area of life (e.g., work) can be made up for in another area (e.g., home). This is an aspect of the role expansion hypothesis described in Chapter 1, which asserts that holding multiple roles provides an individual with numerous resources (e.g., social, emotional, financial) which can then compensate for any negative effects of multiple

demands on well-being. The second process is *spillover*, in which attitudes, behaviours, or emotions from one domain diffuse to the other (Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980). Spillover can be positive or negative. An individual who has had a good day at work may return home in a jovial mood. Alternatively, strain arising from family discord may cause an employee to be tense and irritable in the workplace. The vast majority of work-home research has concentrated on negative spillover, in an effort to better understand and thus prevent its occurrence. Although compensation and spillover are not held to be mutually exclusive processes, the spillover perspective is the most commonly accepted in the work-home literature. This is due in part to the demographic and employment trends documented in Chapter 1, which have brought the domains of work and home closer together.

2.2.1 Directionality of work-home interference

Work-home interference can operate in two directions. First, work demands can interfere with an individual's home life (work interference with home). Work interference with home occurs when work activities impede performance of personal or family roles. For example, attending an early-morning meeting may prevent a parent from transporting a child to daycare, and thinking about a work-related problem while at home may divert an individual's attention from a spouse or partner. Second, responsibilities at home can interfere with performance at work (home interference with work). Home interference with work arises when personal or family responsibilities hinder performance at work. For example, worrying about a sick child may distract a parent on the job and reduce his or her efficiency (Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994; MacEwen & Barling, 1994). Alternatively, an employee may be absent from work in order to attend to a flooded basement or other household crisis.

Early studies of work-home interference did not differentiate between these two directions. When measuring work-home interference, questions assessing both directions of interference were included in the same scale, generating a composite, "non-directional" measure of the construct (e.g., Burke, 1988; Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz, & Beutell, 1989). Combining both directions of work-home interference into one construct renders it difficult to ascertain whether given antecedents are predicting work interference with home,

home interference with work, or both. Similarly, it is problematical to establish which direction of interference is responsible for a particular outcome. For instance, a study establishing a negative link between a non-directional measure of work-home interference and job satisfaction would be unable to specify whether reduced job satisfaction comes as a result of high levels of work interference with home, or of home interference with work (e.g., Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992). Either is possible; an employee whose work consistently prevents him from spending time with his children may consequently become dissatisfied with his job, or an employee whose job performance suffers because of personal responsibilities (e.g., the necessity of allocating time and attention during working hours to seeking daycare for an elderly parent) may experience less satisfaction in her job as a result. Due to the composite nature of the non-directional measure of work-home interference, it is impossible to identify whether one or both of these explanations accounts for the negative link between job satisfaction and work-home interference.

This imprecise method of measurement is still used in a surprising amount of research (e.g., Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2001; Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001; Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001; Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). However, there is a growing trend toward using bi-directional measures of work-home interference that differentiate between work interference with home and home interference with work. Studies distinguishing between the two directions of interference have presupposed a positive, reciprocal relationship between work interference with home and home interference with work, based on the assumption that if work-related problems and obligations begin to interfere with the fulfilment of responsibilities at home, these unfulfilled home responsibilities may then begin to interfere with one's day-to-day functioning at work, and vice versa (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Cross-sectional studies have demonstrated empirical support for this supposition (Gignac et al., 1996; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999; Vinokur, Pierce, & Buck, 1999), and longitudinal research by Huang, Hammer, Neal, and Lim (2000) has corroborated the existence of a reciprocal relationship between work interference with home and home interference with work. A meta-analytic investigation of convergence between measures of work interference with home and home interference with work has demonstrated discriminant validity

between the two directions of interference (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2004), lending further support to the practice of differentiating between them.

Research has consistently found that work interference with home tends to be more prevalent than home interference with work (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle, 1997; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991; Matsui, Ohsawa, & Onglatco, 1995); because of this, the majority of research on work-home interference has investigated the extent to which work interferes with home, rather than the other way around (Thompson & Beauvais, 2000). Organizations, however, may be just as interested in the extent to which their employees' responsibilities at home interfere with their work, and how this process occurs. It is for this reason that the present thesis will investigate the antecedents and outcomes of both directions of interference.

2.2.2 Dimensionality of work-home interference

According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), there are three types of work-home interference. The first is *time-based interference*, which arises when the time demands of one role make it difficult or impossible to participate fully in another role (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997). For example, an individual who is travelling on business and therefore cannot be physically present at a family celebration is experiencing time-based work interference with home. Conversely, an employee who takes an ill relative to the doctor and misses an important meeting at work as a result is experiencing time-based home interference with work.

Impairment of role participation can be either physical, as in the examples given above, or mental. If the individual with the ailing relative returns to work and, instead of concentrating on the report that needs to be finalized, finds himself or herself thinking about how he or she will rearrange his or her schedule to collect the relative from the hospital and provide care for him during convalescence, he or she is experiencing home interference with work despite being physically present in the workplace. Similarly, an employee who is dining at home with his or her family, but thinking about and making plans for an upcoming presentation at work, is experiencing work interference with home to the extent that he or she is not able to

give the family the attention that is expected from him or her in the role of parent/spouse.

The second type of work-home interference is *strain-based interference*, which occurs when symptoms of psychological strain (e.g., anxiety, fatigue, or irritability) generated by the demands of one role intrude or spill over into the other role, making it difficult to fulfil the responsibilities of that role (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997). An example of strain-based work interference with home would be an accountant who has been working long hours to meet the tax deadline, and who is therefore too irritable and exhausted to respond fully to his or he family's needs (Thompson & Beauvais, 2000). Alternatively, an employee who has been up all night with a sick child may be tired and unable to concentrate fully on his or her job tasks, and experience strain-based home interference with work.

Finally, the third type of work-home interference is *behaviour-based interference*. This takes place when specific patterns of in-role behaviour are incompatible with expectations regarding behaviour in another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Put another way, when behaviours that are expected or appropriate at home (e.g., expressiveness, emotional sensitivity) are inappropriate or dysfunctional when used at work, behaviour-based home interference with work ensues (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997). Equally, behaviour-based work interference with home arises when behaviours appropriate at work (e.g., aggressiveness, competitiveness) are viewed as dysfunctional when used at home (Thompson & Beauvais, 2000). Behaviour-based interference is thought to be most prevalent when individuals are unable to adjust their behaviour to comply with the expectations of different roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

These three different types of work-home interference are rarely addressed in the literature. The majority of researchers have used measures of work interference with home and home interference with work that assess a combination of time- and strain-based interference; few studies have differentiated among time-, strain-, and behaviour-based interference. Behaviour-based interference has been particularly neglected. In 1989, Loerch, Russell, and Rush were the first to measure behaviour-based interference and investigate its antecedents, but they developed a non-

directional measure of interference that did not differentiate between behaviour-based work interference with home, and behaviour-based home interference with work. Since then, there has been only a small trickle of published research incorporating measures of bi-directional behaviour-based work-home interference (see Bruck & Allen, 2003; Carlson, 1999; Fu & Shaffer, 2001). As a result, behaviour-based interference remains the least understood of the three types.

The present thesis will address all three dimensions of work-home interference: time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based. This will enable the thesis to determine whether different antecedents and outcomes exist for each dimension of interference, an area in which work-home research has lagged. It will also contribute to knowledge of behaviour-based interference, which has so rarely been examined.

2.3 Antecedents of work-home interference

A number of demographic and situational characteristics have been investigated over the years as possible determinants of work-home interference. For the most part, work-related factors have been hypothesized and confirmed as antecedents to work interference with home, while home-related factors have been hypothesized and established as leading to home interference with work. Despite calls for research as far back as 1985 on the role of individual differences in predicting work-home interference (Greenhaus & Beutell), very few studies to date have examined personality characteristics as antecedents of interference. Encouraging results have, however, emerged from the few existing studies of dispositional predictors. This section will review the literature on antecedents of work-home interference, before describing how this thesis proposes to fill gaps in the work-home literature regarding our understanding of demographic, situational, and dispositional predictors of interference. The hypothesized antecedents of work-home interference are illustrated in Figure 2.1.

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Figure 2.1: Hypothesized antecedents of work-home interference

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┌──────────────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│  Dispositional characteristics│  vs.   │  Situational characteristics │
└──────────────────────────────┘        └──────────────────────────────┘
                        \                  /
                         \                /
                          ↘              ↙
         ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
         │              Work-Home Interference               │
         ├─────────────────────────┬─────────────────────────┤
         │ Work interference with  │ Home interference with   │
         │ home                    │ work                     │
         │                         │                          │
         │  ▪ Time-based           │  ▪ Time-based            │
         │  ▪ Strain-based         │  ▪ Strain-based          │
         │  ▪ Behaviour-based      │  ▪ Behaviour-based       │
         └─────────────────────────┴─────────────────────────┘
                    ↑                          ↑
                    │        Gender            │
                    │   ←───────────→          │
         ┌──────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────────┐
         │ Home-domain          │   │ Work-domain              │
         │ characteristics      │   │ characteristics          │
         └──────────────────────┘   └──────────────────────────┘
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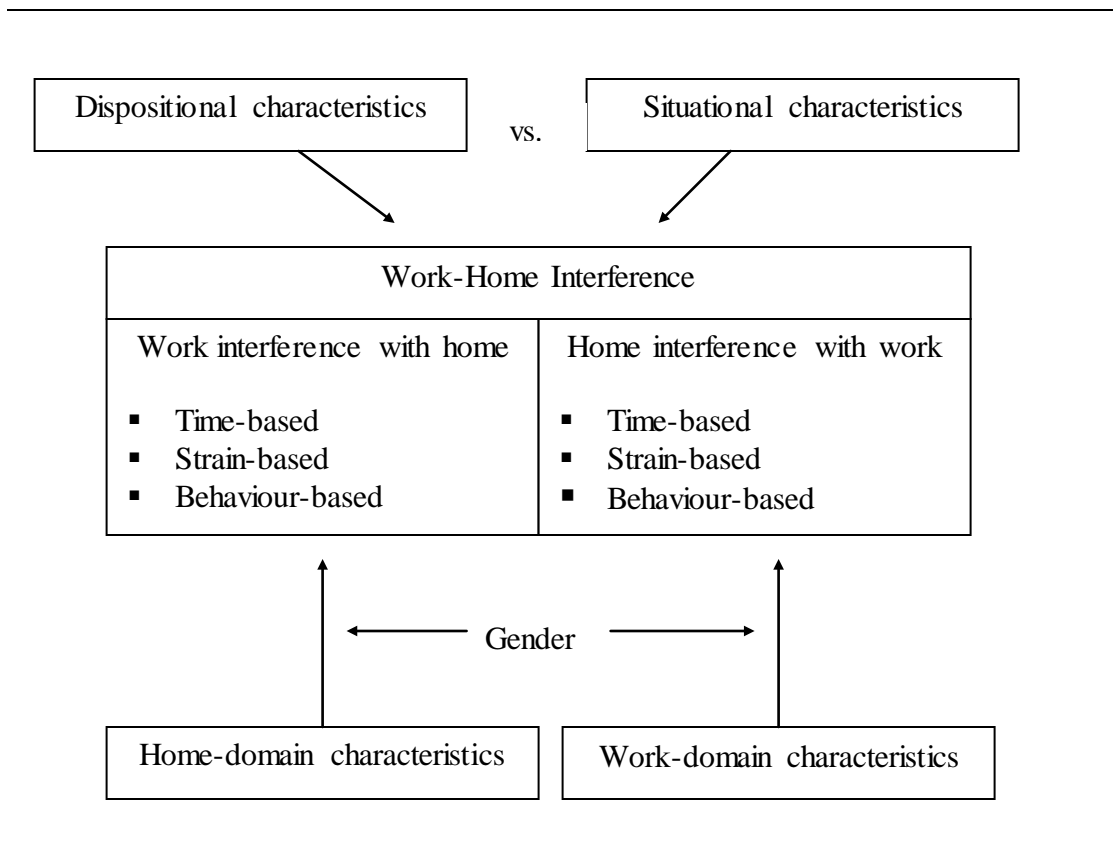
2.3.1 Demographic antecedents

The primary demographic characteristics associated with work-home interference are age, gender, parental status, caregiving status, marital status, educational level, occupational level, household income, and organizational tenure. Each of these is believed to act as a proxy for either household or work-related responsibilities, which consume time and energy in one domain (e.g., home) and leave less available for the other (e.g., work). For instance, the link between age and work-home interference is attributed to the relationship between age and family responsibilities. Young workers, without dependents, and older workers, whose children are grown, have been found to experience less work interference with home and home interference with work than do employees in their thirties and forties (Foley et al., 2003; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999).

The majority of research investigating the role of gender in predicting work-home interference has found that women experience more work interference with home and home interference with work than do men (Duxbury, Higgins, & Lee, 1994; Gutek et al., 1991). This is attributed to the greater responsibility assumed by women for household work and childcare (Bond et al., 1998; Scott, 2001). The presence of young children in one's household is also a factor predicting increased work interference with home and home interference with work (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Kirchmeyer, 1995). In a study investigating work interference with home only, Carlson (1999) found that the higher the number of children living in an individual's household, the greater the individual's levels of time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based work interference with home. Single parenthood is also associated with higher levels of non-directional work-home interference (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001).

Caring for elderly dependents appears similar to caring for children in its effects on interference between work and home. Individuals with caregiving responsibilities for elderly parents or other relatives have also been found to report less satisfaction with work-life balance (Buffardi, Smith, O'Brien, & Erdwins, 1999), and more non-directional work-home interference (Scharlach & Boyd, 1989) and home interference with work (Gignac et al., 1996; Gottlieb, Kelloway, & Fraboni, 1994). As with caring for children, caring for elderly dependents requires the allocation of personal resources such as time and energy, which are then unavailable for use in the work domain.

Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) found that married employees were less likely to experience family role stress, which in turn led to lower levels of home interference with work. Apart from this finding, most research into the effects on work-home interference of having a spouse has demonstrated the importance of spousal employment status and the presence or absence of young children in the household. In a study by Higgins and Duxbury (1992), men with employed wives were significantly more likely to experience non-directional work-home interference than were men whose wives did not work outside the home. This was attributed by the authors to outdated organizational policies that operated on the expectation that men had no household responsibilities and could devote all their time and energy to their work,

and to a lack of social support for the male dual-career role that contradicts societal norms.

In contrast, Saltzstein et al. (2001) found that employees with employed spouses reported lower levels of work-home interference than did those whose partners were unemployed. Findings from Tausig and Fenwick (2001), meanwhile, indicated that an employed spouse contributed to lower levels of work-home interference only when there were no children living in the household and home-related responsibilities were therefore fewer. Spousal employment was associated with higher levels of interference when children were present, as was spousal unemployment. Although the authors did not discuss these findings, it can be surmised that individuals living in households with children are subject to greater home-related demands than are individuals without children living at home. In such a scenario, an employed spouse would have limited amounts of time and energy to spend on household demands, due to the competing demands of the workplace, and the overall level of home-related demands may not be sufficiently diminished by the spouse's presence to prevent high levels of home interference with work. In the case of an unemployed spouse, anxiety over his or her joblessness may counteract any benefits arising from his or her ability to take on greater responsibility for household tasks; or, time and energy spent searching for employment may negate his or her ability to assume greater household responsibilities. In either case, work-home interference would increase.

The educational and occupational levels achieved by an individual appear to impact the degree of work-home interference he or she experiences. For an American sample, Tausig and Fenwick (2001) found that the more education employees had completed beyond high school, the more interference between work and home they were likely to report. The results of Hill et al. (2001) demonstrated that the higher an employee's occupational level, the more work-home interference he or she experienced. Education is often correlated with occupational level, and employees in higher-level positions are apt to have more challenging jobs, the demands of which are liable to contribute to work-home interference (e.g., Greenhaus et al., 1989).

Household income has been associated with both increased and decreased levels of work-home interference, depending on an employee's personal circumstances. In a

large study of American public service employees, Saltzstein et al. (2001) found that for married men over 60 years of age, a higher income enabled their spouses to stay at home and take responsibility for household tasks, thus reducing levels of work-home interference for their husbands. For married women, however, a higher income was associated with a more demanding job, and resulted in higher levels of work-home interference.

Finally, links have been found between an individual's organizational tenure and his or her level of work-home interference. In 1989, Greenhaus et al. found a negative relationship between men's tenure and both time-based and strain-based work-home interference. In contrast, Parasuraman and Simmers (2001) found that the longer an employee's tenure with the organization, the higher his or her work-home interference was likely to be. It is possible that the 1989 result was due to an association between tenure and job security; employees who are more secure in their jobs tend to report lower levels of work-home interference (Burke & Greenglass, 2001). The 2001 result may be attributable to an association between tenure and occupational level; employees who have been with their organizations longer may be in higher-level, more demanding positions which lend themselves more readily to work-home interference.

The literature on demographic antecedents to work-home interference has focused primarily on the main effects of these characteristics, especially in terms of gender. While there is an abundance of research using gender as a control variable and establishing that it can directly predict levels of interference, few studies have investigated its potential role as a moderator of the link between other demographic and situational characteristics, and work-home interference. Research by Buffardi et al. (1999), Higgins and Duxbury (1992), and Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) suggests that men and women may be differentially affected by factors such as the presence of young children in the household, spousal employment, and hours of work. Some of these factors have been shown to produce work-home interference for men, but not women, and some for women, but not men. This thesis seeks to further our understanding of how the origins of work-home interference differ for men and women, by examining the moderating role of gender in the relationships between selected situational characteristics and both work interference with home and home

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interference with work. This investigation of gender as a moderator will be undertaken in Chapter 4.

2.3.2 Situational antecedents

Situational determinants of work-home interference originate from both the work and the home domains, and contribute to interference by generating time pressures and psychological strain in one domain which then spill over into the other. The more hours that employees spend each week in work activities, the more work interference with home they tend to report (Frone et al., 1997b; Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002). Similarly, the greater the number of hours spent weekly on household tasks, the more home interference with work is likely to accrue (Fu & Shaffer, 2001). The degree of control individuals perceive over these time demands is also influential in determining levels of work-home interference; employees with greater control over the hours they work and the location in which they perform their work have reported lower levels of non-directional interference between work and home (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Individuals with greater perceived control over their time in both work and home domains have also reported lower levels of work interference with home, and home interference with work (Adams & Jex, 1999).

A number of work-related stressors have been found to contribute to increased work interference with home, three of the most frequently investigated being work role conflict (Fu & Shaffer, 2001), work role ambiguity (Aryee, 1993), and work role overload (Burke & Greenglass, 2001; Wallace, 1999). Employees reporting lower levels of job autonomy also tend to experience higher levels of work interference with home (Maume & Houston, 2001), as do those who perceive that their supervisors and co-workers expect them to prioritize work over home and devote long hours to work activities (Major et al., 2002).

Changes in the work environment have also emerged as contributors to work-home interference. In a 1999 study of Canadian nurses, Burke and Greenglass found that turnover and reassignment of colleagues predicted higher levels of work interference with home for remaining employees; in a 2001 study by the same authors, the prospect of deteriorating work conditions as a result of organizational restructuring

was shown to predict increased work interference with home among affected employees. Other elements of the work environment that have demonstrated effects on work interference with home are the presence of organizational politics (Aryee, 1993), and being the only woman in an all-male workgroup (Maume & Houston, 2001).

Just as work stressors have been shown to contribute to work interference with home, a number of stressors originating in the home domain have been established as predictors of home interference with work. The workload and strain associated with parenting has been linked to higher levels of home interference with work (Matsui et al., 1995; Vinokur et al., 1999), as has parental role overload (Aryee et al., 1999b; Frone et al., 1997b) and tension in the marital relationship (Fox & Dwyer, 1999). As with time demands, perceived control over home-related stressors can lead to reduced levels of interference. Goff, Mount, and Jamison (1990) found that employees who were satisfied with their childcare arrangements reported less interference between work and home, and Thomas and Ganster (1995) showed that individuals with more choice over the scheduling, cost, and location of childcare arrangements experienced lower levels of non-directional work-home interference.

Aspects of a domain's climate, or culture, can influence the degree of work-home interference experienced by an individual. Perceptions of an organizational culture that is supportive of work-home concerns have consistently been linked with lower levels of both work interference with home, and home interference with work (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2002; Haar & Spell, 2002; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999). In Behson's (2002) study, this result held true only for parents; home interference with work for those without parental responsibilities was reduced by perceptions of an organizational culture supportive of more general concerns, such as voice and fair treatment in the workplace. Regardless of parental status, employees who perceive that there are negative career consequences of overt efforts to balance work and home demands have been found more likely to report increased levels of work interference with home (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). In the home domain, a family climate that supports making sacrifices at work for the sake of the family has been linked to increased levels of both work interference with home, and home interference with work (Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001).

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This review of demographic and situational antecedents to work-home interference demonstrates that the vast majority of researchers examine only the influence of work-related factors on work interference with home, and the effect of home-related factors on home interference with work. While these same-domain relationships make intuitive sense, there is also a case to be made for an alternative viewpoint. This viewpoint, that certain work-related characteristics may predict home interference with work, and/or that particular home-related characteristics may produce work interference with home, has been under-researched. Only a very few studies have examined and discovered direct relationships between home domain variables and work interference with home (e.g., Aryee, 1993; Carlson, 1999; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), and even fewer have investigated the role of work domain variables in predicting home interference with work (e.g., Fox & Dwyer, 1999). The significant findings of these few studies suggest that an examination of opposite-domain predictors might prove useful in expanding our understanding of the antecedents of work-home interference. One of the aims of this thesis is to explore the hitherto unexamined potential of characteristics from one domain (e.g., work) to predict interference originating from the other (e.g., home interference with work). The possibility of such opposite-domain antecedents of interference between work and home is investigated in Chapter 4.

2.3.3 Dispositional antecedents

A relatively small number of studies have examined the role of personality in predicting interference between work and home. Nevertheless, a variety of dispositional characteristics have been found to influence the amount of work-home interference experienced by an individual. The most frequently investigated trait is that of role involvement; employees who identify strongly with their work role have reported higher levels of work interference with home (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Williams & Alliger, 1994) and, in one study, specifically strain-based work interference with home (Wallace, 1999). Workaholics have also been found to report higher levels of work interference with home (Bonebright, Clay, & Ankenmann, 2000). Individuals with high levels of family involvement, meanwhile, have been shown to experience more home interference with work (Frone et al., 1992; Kirchmeyer, 1995).

Negative affectivity (NA) has also been investigated by a number of researchers as a potential antecedent to interference between work and home. Carlson (1999) found that individuals high in negative affectivity were likely to report elevated levels of time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based work interference with home, while Bruck and Allen (2003) showed that high-NA employees were prone to experiencing greater levels of work interference with home, home interference with work, and strain-based non-directional work-home interference. Individuals high in negative affectivity tend to focus on the negative aspects of the world in general, and are more likely to report distress, discomfort, and dissatisfaction over time and regardless of the situation (Carlson, 1999), rendering them particularly vulnerable to perceptions of interference between domains. The results of another recent study indicated that negative affectivity played an indirect role in raising levels of work-home interference; job stress mediated the link between negative affectivity and work interference with home, and family stress mediated the relationship between negative affectivity and home interference with work (Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2002). Negative affectivity also moderated the relationship between family stress and home interference with work, such that it was stronger for high-NA individuals.

In terms of the Big Five personality traits, individuals high in agreeableness have been found to report lower levels of work interference with home (Wayne et al., 2004) and time-based non-directional work-home interference (Bruck & Allen, 2003), presumably because people are more willing to render assistance to agreeable individuals than to disagreeable individuals when difficulties arise. Negative relationships have also been established between conscientiousness and both home interference with work (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Wayne et al., 2004) and work interference with home (Wayne et al., 2004). Bruck and Allen speculated that the planning and organizing skills associated with conscientious employees helps them prevent demands from one domain interfering with the other. Individuals scoring high on neuroticism, in contrast, have been shown to experience increased levels of both work interference with home, and home interference with work (Wayne et al., 2004).

Several other dispositional characteristics have also been found to predict work-home interference. Carlson (1999) showed that individuals characterized as Type A – who

are typically ambitious, persistent, impatient, and involved in their work – are less likely to experience behaviour-based work interference with home, possibly because strong Type A individuals are very adaptive and can compartmentalize well enough to avoid behaviour-based interference. Self-efficacy has also been linked to interference; Erdwins et al. (2001) found that both job-related and parental self-efficacy predicted non-directional work-home interference, such that higher levels of self-efficacy were related to lower levels of interference. Sumer and Knight (2001) showed that individuals with a preoccupied attachment pattern were prone to higher levels of home interference with work, and the findings of Bernas and Major (2000) suggested that employees high in hardiness experienced lower levels of job stress, which in turn contributed to lower levels of work interference with home.

Although there has been only a small amount of research into dispositional antecedents, results indicate that individual differences have an important part to play in determining the degree of work-home interference experienced by employees. Authors of existing studies of dispositional predictors of interference have called for additional research examining both dispositional and situational factors relating to work-home interference, so that a more complete understanding of the underpinnings of interference can emerge (Bruck & Allen, 2003). This thesis aims to address this gap in the literature, by investigating the effects on work-home interference of a combination of dispositional and situational characteristics. There are a number of unexplored personality characteristics with the potential to affect employees' perceptions of work-home interference. Self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, and tendencies toward perfectionism may all influence the degree to which individuals report interference between work and home. These will be investigated in Chapter 5, alongside established situational factors predicting work-home interference.

2.4 Outcomes of work-home interference

Consequences of work-home interference can be classified as attitudinal, behavioural, and health-related. The majority of studies exploring outcomes of interference between work and home have concentrated on either work-related attitudes, or general well-being. Relatively few studies have investigated the effects of interference on employee behaviour in the workplace, beyond absenteeism and turnover. After

reviewing the literature on established attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of work-home interference, this section will delineate the ways in which the present thesis will address gaps in the literature regarding our understanding of work-related behavioural consequences of interference. The proposed research relationships are presented in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: Hypothesized outcomes of work-home interference
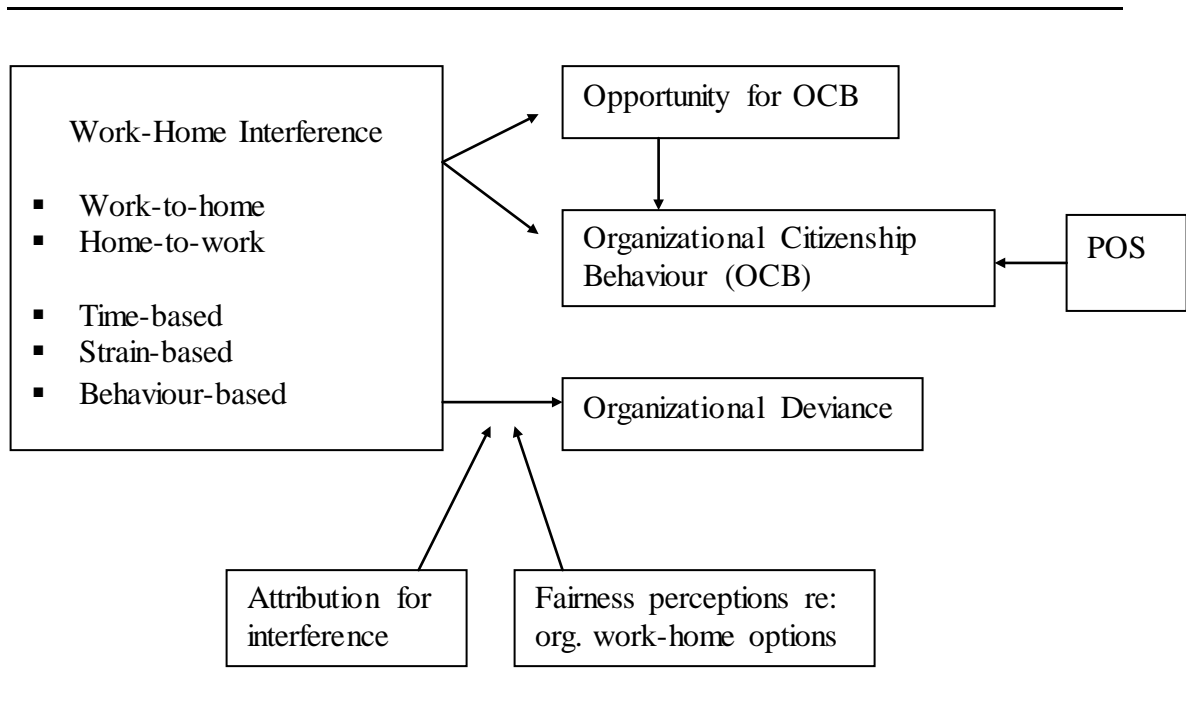
2.4.1 Attitudinal outcomes

The most commonly investigated outcome of work-home interference has been job satisfaction, with studies uniformly demonstrating that employees experiencing interference between work and home report less satisfaction with their jobs. This effect holds true for both work interference with home (Anderson et al., 2002; Boles, Howard, & Donofrio, 2001; Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992; Wayne et al., 2004) and home interference with work (Adams & Jex, 1999; Aryee et al., 1999b; Burke & Greenglass, 1999). Individuals reporting higher levels of non-directional work-home interference are also less likely to be satisfied with the progress of their careers (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001), and those with higher levels of work interference

with home perceive their careers as being less successful than do those with lower levels of interference (Peluchette, 1993).

Other frequently demonstrated outcomes of work interference with home are a reduced degree of organizational commitment among employees (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992; Wiley, 1987), and increased levels of burnout, or job-related exhaustion (Aryee, 1993; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998). Higher levels of burnout have also been reported by individuals experiencing a greater degree of non-directional interference between work and home (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991; Burke, 1988). In terms of home-related outcomes, individuals whose work demands consistently interfere with their personal lives are less likely to report satisfaction with their marital relationship (Aryee, 1992; Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987) and with their family life (Aryee et al., 1999a; Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983; Rice et al., 1992). Home interference with work has also been found to exert a negative effect on satisfaction with family life (Burke & Greenglass, 1999, 2001). An individual's level of work-home interference can also affect his or her partner's experience of interference; Hammer, Allen, and Grigsby (1997) found a positive relationship between non-directional interference between work and home, and the work-home interference of the respondent's spouse or partner.

2.4.2 Behavioural outcomes

With regard to employees' behaviour in the workplace, work-home interference has been found to exert primarily negative effects. Individuals with higher levels of home interference with work have reported putting forth less effort on the job (Wayne et al., 2004) and performing at a lower level than those unafflicted by similar levels of interference (Frone et al., 1997b). The intrusion of home responsibilities into the workplace has also been established as a key contributor to absenteeism, presumably because the fulfillment of such responsibilities cannot always be accomplished at work, e.g., caring for children who are at home sick from school (Anderson et al., 2002; Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Eagle, Icenogle, Maes, & Miles, 1998; Gignac et al., 1996; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999).

An extensive body of research has shown that employees whose work responsibilities routinely interfere with their personal or family lives are more likely to report intentions to leave their jobs (Anderson et al., 2002; Aryee, 1992; Burke, 1994; Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, & Parasuraman, 1997; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001; Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999). Non-directional interference between work and home has also been linked to actual turnover, such that employees with higher levels of interference have been found more likely to leave their jobs (Boles, Johnson, & Hair, 1997; Burke, 1988; Higgins et al., 1992; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose, 1992). Using a bi-directional measure of interference, Greenhaus et al. (1997) showed that turnover was a result of work interference with home, and Greenhaus et al. (2001) found that work interference with home resulted in turnover only for those employees with low levels of career involvement.

In addition to predicting withdrawal from work, interference between work and home has also been shown to affect levels of participation in the home domain. Frone et al. (1997b) found that individuals whose work demands interfered with their personal lives were less likely to report fulfilling their responsibilities at home, and MacEwen and Barling (1994) found that high levels of home interference with work resulted in withdrawal from family activities.

Beyond absenteeism and turnover, few workplace behaviours have been investigated as potential outcomes of interference between work and home. Research has thus far neglected to explore the ability of work-home interference to influence behaviours other than in-role, prescribed actions that comprise part of an employee's formal job description (e.g., attendance, task performance). If interference between work and home impinges upon employees' ability to carry out their contractual duties, it is likely that such interference also affects employees' performance of extra-role workplace behaviours. Employee involvement in functional extra-role behaviours (organizational citizenship behaviour) may be constrained by competing work and home demands, and participation in dysfunctional extra-role behaviours (workplace deviance) may be predicated upon frustration with work-home interference or a desire for revenge upon the entity held responsible for the interference. These potential consequences of work-home interference will be investigated in Chapters 6 and 7, respectively.

2.5 Coping with work-home interference

The literature on coping with work-home interference is not well developed. The majority of the research is devoted to analyses of organizational programs, primarily flexible working practices, designed to reduce interference. Very little research has been conducted to examine the extent and effects of individual coping techniques in alleviating interference between work and home. Of the existing studies on individual coping, most have focused on the role played by social support. This section will review the extant literature on organizational and individual coping, and outline the gaps in the literature that this thesis proposes to fill. The hypothesized relationships between coping strategies and work-home interference are illustrated in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: Hypothesized relationships between coping and work-home interference
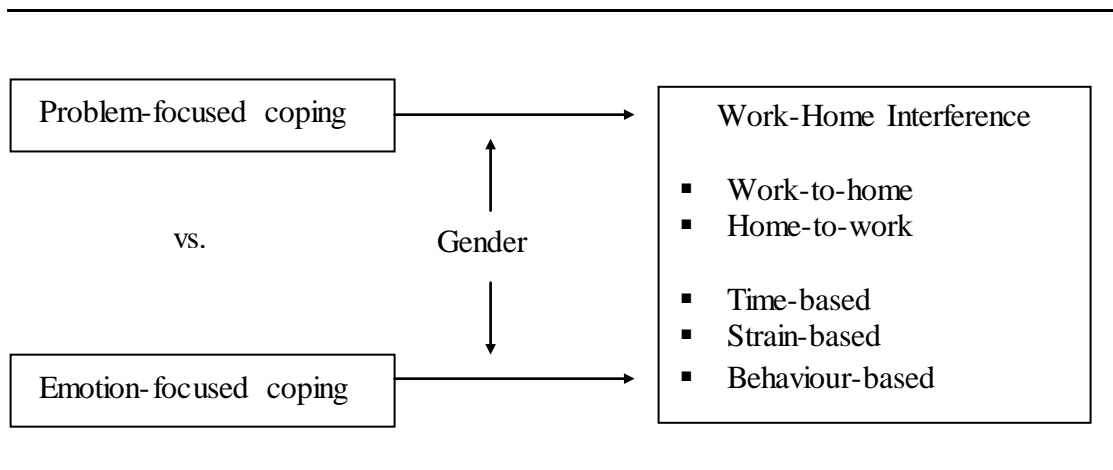
2.5.1 Organizational coping

While work schedule flexibility and the availability of "family-friendly" programs have yielded benefits for organizations in the form of increased employee commitment and job satisfaction, and reduced intentions to quit (Aryee, Luk, & Stone, 1998; Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Thompson et al., 1999), research has not demonstrated uniformly positive effects of such programs on employee levels of work-home interference. Using flexible work scheduling has been linked to lower levels of work interference with home (Anderson et al., 2002), and the use of family

responsibility leave has been associated with reduced amounts of non-directional interference between work and home (Lee & Duxbury, 1998), but a number of other programs have not proved themselves so benign. Teleworking, or working from home, has been shown to contribute towards a breakdown in psychological distinctions between work and home (Hill, Miller, Weiner, & Colihan, 1998; Sullivan & Lewis, 2001); perhaps because of this, it has been related to increased levels of work-home interference (Bailyn, 1988), especially for women with caregiving responsibilities and single parents (Olson & Primps, 1984; Rowe & Bentley, 1992; Saltzstein et al., 2001).

Compressed work weeks, in which the hours of a regular work week are worked in four days instead of five, have also been linked to increased interference between work and home for single parents (Saltzstein et al., 2001). Working part-time hours, meanwhile, has shown mixed effects on work-home interference. Higgins, Duxbury, and Johnson (2000) found that working part-time hours led to reduced work interference with home for women, and Saltzstein et al. (2001) found that part-time work contributed to reduced interference for women in dual-income households with children resident. However, Tausig and Fenwick (2001) found a positive relationship between part-time hours and non-directional interference between work and home, as did Saltzstein et al. (2001) for women under the age of 35 with no children. Part-time hours have also been associated with higher levels of home interference with work for career-oriented employees (Higgins et al., 2000). The link between part-time work and increased levels of work-home interference can be attributed to the fact that part-time work is associated with financial and career costs (Higgins et al., 2000; Raabe, 1996), which may themselves contribute to interference (Friedman & Johnson, 1997).

2.5.2 Individual coping

Of the few studies conducted to investigate individual strategies for coping with work-home interference, the majority have focused on the role played by social support. Support from family, friends, colleagues, and supervisors has been consistently associated with reduced levels of both work interference with home and home interference with work. Employees whose supervisors exhibit job-related support have reported less work interference with home (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998),

as have those whose supervisors offer support for work-home issues (Anderson et al., 2002). Understanding and support from work colleagues has been linked to lower levels of non-directional work-home interference (Friedman & Johnson, 1997), as has support from friends (Lee & Duxbury, 1998). Individuals receiving emotional support from spouses and other family members have been shown to experience less home interference with work (Adams et al., 1996; Bernas & Major, 2000; Burke & Greenglass, 1999), an effect which also holds true for instrumental support (Adams et al., 1996). In a study by Matsui et al. (1995), spousal support was found to moderate the relationship between parenting demands and home interference with work, such that demands led to interference only when spousal support was low.

Research into other coping techniques has been somewhat haphazard, with no accepted taxonomy of work-home coping strategies having been developed. A classification system often used is that of "problem-focused" vs. "emotion-focused" coping; the former is intended to change the situation causing work-home interference, and the latter's purpose is to change the emotional consequences of interference (see Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Matsui et al. (1995) found that for individuals who altered their activities at home in order to accommodate work-related demands (a form of problem-focused coping), home interference with work was less likely to result in general life strain. In a study by Aryee et al. (1999b), emotion-focused coping was operationalized as reframing one's thoughts so as to see the positive elements of work-home interference, or reassuring oneself that time would take care of the situation. The authors found that when individuals' use of emotion-focused coping was high, home interference with work did not lead to reduced satisfaction with their jobs. A 2002 study by Butler and Gasser found similar results, in that when either problem-focused or emotion-focused coping was used more frequently, the negative effect of work interference with home on job satisfaction was attenuated. None of these studies explored the relative merits of problem-focused vs. emotion-focused coping in predicting work-home interference, so it is not known whether one type is capable of explaining more variance in interference than the other.

Kirchmeyer and Cohen (1999) investigated the effects of a combination of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, termed "personal coping", which encompassed

time management techniques and the cognitive reframing of role demands. A negative relationship was found between this mixed bag of coping strategies and home interference with work. Johnson, Hammer, Neal, & McLeod (2000) developed three categories of coping strategies, and found two of them to have direct relationships with interference: withdrawing from social activities was positively related to both work interference with home and home interference with work, and prioritizing role demands was negatively related to both directions of interference. This latter finding is in contrast to that of Adams and Jex (1999), whose research showed that prioritization contributed to increased work interference with home for employees, possibly because work-related activities were given higher priority.

As can be seen from this review, there are a number of gaps in the work-home coping literature. Because so few studies have been carried out, only a small number of coping techniques have been investigated. All too often, the categories of coping used in existing studies are actually compilations of several different techniques, and so it is impossible to separate the effects of each individual technique. Furthermore, no research has yet been conducted to assess the effects of work-home coping on behaviour-based work-home interference. Altogether, the effectiveness of different coping strategies in alleviating work-home interference is not well understood. This thesis aims to address these shortfalls in the literature by investigating the effects on time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based interference of a wider range of individual coping strategies than those previously examined in the work-home research. It will also compare problem-focused coping to emotion-focused coping in its ability to predict and explain variance in all three forms of interference. Finally, it will examine the influence of gender on both the use and the effectiveness of coping mechanisms in alleviating work-home interference. Research on coping with job stress suggests that gender differences exist in choice and efficacy of coping strategy (Porter, Marco, Schwartz, & Neale, 2000). This thesis will investigate the existence of such gender differences in coping with work-home interference. All of these coping-related issues will be addressed in Chapter 8.

2.6 Aims of the thesis

The review of the literature conducted in this chapter has demonstrated how much remains to be learned about the way in which work-home interference operates. The first aim of this thesis is, therefore, to better understand the determinants of work-home interference by examining the roles of gender and of personality in contributing to interference, as well as the potential for characteristics associated with one domain (e.g., home) to influence the degree of interference generated by the opposing domain (e.g., work). To this end, Chapter 4 will simultaneously investigate both 1) the ability of gender to moderate the relationships between situational antecedents - work role expectations, family role expectations, and strain generated by parenting responsibilities – and work-home interference; and 2) the ability of opposite-domain factors (e.g., control over work hours, supervisor support) to predict interference (e.g., home interference with work). Chapter 5 will explore the role of selected personality characteristics – perfectionism, self-efficacy, and self-esteem – in predicting work-home interference, and establish the relative merits of dispositional vs. situational antecedents in explaining variance in interference.

The second aim of the thesis is to expand current knowledge of outcomes of work-home interference by investigating the link between interference and extra-role work behaviours. Chapter 6 will therefore explore the effects of work-home interference on both opportunity to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours, and actual performance of citizenship behaviours. In Chapter 7, the ability of work-home interference to predict deviant workplace behaviour will be explored. Potential moderators of the relationship between interference and deviance will also be investigated: employees' fairness perceptions regarding organizational work-home practices, and employees' attributions for who is to blame for their work-home interference (i.e., themselves, or their employing organization).

The third aim of this thesis is to extend existing knowledge of coping strategies for dealing with work-home interference. Chapter 8 will develop measures of coping based on key coping strategies identified in the literature, and determine which of these strategies are most and least effective in reducing work-home interference. Also, this chapter will investigate whether men and women use different coping strategies,

and whether some strategies are more effective in reducing interference for one gender than they are for the other.

Throughout the thesis, the analyses conducted will ascertain to what extent antecedents, outcomes, and coping strategies differ by type (dimension) of work-home interference. In studies where time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based interference have been distinguished from one another, results have indicated that they are often predicted by different factors (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Carlson, 1999; Fu & Shaffer, 2000). This thesis will seek to determine whether the different dimensions of interference will also result in different consequences, and whether effective coping techniques differ for each type of interference under investigation.

Having reviewed the literature on work-home interference and identified the gaps which the present thesis proposes to fill, the thesis will now turn to a discussion of the research methodology adopted. The following chapter will detail the research design, sample characteristics, and data collection procedures used to investigate the hypothesized relationships described earlier.

Chapter 3 - Research Methodology

3.1   Introduction

3.2   Research setting

     3.2.1   Rayleigh Borough Council
     3.2.2. Sunnydale Borough Council
     3.2.3   Durand College of Technology

3.3   Data collection

     3.3.1   Survey distribution and response rate
     3.3.2. Content of the survey instruments
          3.3.3.1 Measures of work-home interference
          3.3.3.2 The pilot study
          3.3.3.3 Content of Survey I
          3.3.3.4 Content of Survey II

3.4   Data analysis

3.5   Rationale for quantitative research design

3.6   Conclusion

3.1 Introduction

This study used a cross-sectional survey design to assess antecedents to, outcomes of, and coping strategies associated with work-home interference, as well as moderating and mediating influences upon those relationships. The present chapter is divided into five sections. The first section describes the context of the three organizations in which data for this study were collected. In the second, data collection procedures are outlined. As the main research method comprised self-administered questionnaires, an overview of the questionnaire content is also provided. Based on the data collected from the surveys, response rate and characteristics of the sample are then presented. A synopsis of data analysis procedures follows. Finally, the rationale for the research design is discussed.

3.2 Research setting

Three organizations participated in the research. Two were local authorities in the south of England, and one was a higher education college in the north of England. Initial attempts to enlist organizations as participants in the research soon revealed that private sector organizations were more likely to have conducted internal surveys of work-home interference and therefore to decline to participate in the current project. Public sector organizations expressed more interest in cooperating, citing as motivators both the importance of work-home interference as an issue and the absence of financial resources to study it themselves; the contact individual in one organization spoke of participation in the study and receipt of the results as "free consulting".

For reasons of confidentiality, pseudonyms will be used to identify all three participating organizations.

3.2.1 Rayleigh Borough Council

Rayleigh Council was located in the south-east of England, and served a population of 238,628 inhabitants. Its range of services included education, community care, leisure, highways, housing, and construction. Approximately 7,500 people were employed by

Rayleigh Council in a variety of occupations, examples of which include convenience cleaning attendant, software development officer, architect, social worker, and coach driver. At the time of data collection, Rayleigh Council offered no work-home options other than job sharing.

3.2.2 Sunnydale Borough Council

Sunnydale Borough Council was also located in the south-east of England, and served a population of 122,802 inhabitants. Its range of services included tourism, health promotion, housing, economic development, and waste collection. Approximately 450 people worked for Sunnydale Borough Council in a range of occupations, including highway inspector, environmental health officer, graphic designer, and chauffeur. At the time of data collection, Sunnydale Borough Council offered the following work-home options: flexible working hours, working from home, job sharing, voluntary reduced hours, maternity returnees policy, and compassionate leave.

3.3.3 Durand College of Technology

Durand College of Technology was located in the north of England, and offered post-graduate, degree, Higher National Diploma, and certificate programmes to a student population of 11,800 students, 10,000 of which were studying on a part-time basis. While the majority of the 600 employees were engaged in teaching or curriculum support positions, other occupations included administration, personnel management, catering services, maintenance, and childcare.

At the time of data collection, the College offered a limited number of work-home options. Flexible working hours were available to business support staff graded BS1 through BS4, of which there were 216, subject to the discretion of their line managers. Special leaves of absence were also available on a case-by-case basis. These could be taken as parental leave, bereavement leave, or study leave, and depending upon the individual circumstances surrounding the request could be paid, unpaid, or partially paid. Leave was not granted if it was deemed likely to disrupt the work of the College. Two on-site childcare centres were also in operation, with facilities to accommodate children aged 3 months to 6 years. After-school facilities were also available for

children aged up to 14 years whose parents were enrolled in evening classes. The waiting list for spaces in the childcare centres was approximately 9 months.

3.3. Data collection

3.3.1 Survey distribution

Survey I was conducted in Rayleigh Council in May 2001. Surveys were mailed out to 1,000 (of 3,000) employees composing a representative sample of job grade classifications in the organization. Teaching staff, who comprised a further 4,450 members of the organization, were excluded from the sample on the basis that their working hours and time off were subject to different regulations than that of other employees. This had the potential to affect their experience of work-home interference; for instance, teachers with offspring still at school would have their holidays at the same time as their children, and would therefore be exempt from the work-home interference generated by efforts to find holiday childcare suffered by other employees.

Survey II was conducted in Sunnydale Borough Council in October 2002, and in Durand College in December 2002. All 300 regular (i.e., not seasonal or temporary contract) employees in Sunnydale Borough Council were included in the sample for Survey II, as were all 500 regular (i.e., not casual) employees of the College. Seasonal, temporary, and casual workers were excluded from the study on the basis that their experience of their employing organizations was not sufficient to allow them to answer many of the questions posed in the survey. For example, an examination invigilator for Durand College who works 8 three-hour shifts a year, all in the month of June, would be unlikely to possess much knowledge regarding the attitude of senior management towards employees' family responsibilities. Similarly, it is doubtful that a teenaged lifeguard working at a community pool during the summer vacation would be familiar with Sunnydale Borough Council's provision of information regarding work-home options.

The questionnaires were distributed to respondents via the internal mail systems of each of the organizations participating in this study. The surveys were accompanied

by a covering letter assuring confidentiality to respondents, and indicating that the research was endorsed by the employing organization. The cover letters can be found in Appendix B. Participants completed the questionnaires on company time and returned them directly to the researcher using postage-paid envelopes included with the surveys. Reminder letters encouraging employees to participate were sent to Sunnydale Borough Council two weeks after the initial survey distribution, and to Durand College one month after the initial survey distribution (which took place shortly before the Christmas break). The reminder letters sent to each organization were identical save for references to the organization's name and to the length of time since the survey was distributed. A copy of the reminder letter can be found in Appendix B. No reminder letters were sent to employees of Rayleigh Council, as the immediate response rate was deemed more than adequate for research purposes. While surveys for Rayleigh Council and Sunnydale Borough Council were completely anonymous, those for Durand College included an identification number for the purpose of tracking individuals over time in anticipation of follow-up research at a later date. It was anticipated that this might contribute to a lower response rate from employees in this organization.

3.3.2 Response rate and sample characteristics

In Rayleigh Council, 654 of 1,000 surveys were returned, yielding a response rate of 65%. Due to missing responses on individual items, the effective sample size was 605. Of these, 244 respondents were parents of children under age 17. These 244 respondents formed the participant base for Chapter 4, as this sub-sample was uniquely affected by the variables under investigation in this chapter (e.g., control over childcare arrangements, parental strain). Thirty-six surveys were excluded from the final analyses for this chapter due to missing responses, yielding an effective sample size of 208.

The majority of respondents were women (56%). Participant ages ranged from 28 to 60, with an average age of just over 41 years. One hundred and seventy-seven (85%) of respondents reported living with a spouse or partner. The average age of the youngest child was 8.09 years. Thirty-five (14.3%) of respondents had caregiving responsibilities for elderly adult dependents in addition to those for their children. The

average number of adult dependents for these respondents was 0.22. Respondents reported working an average of 35.58 hours per week.

In Sunnydale Borough Council, 116 of 300 surveys were returned, yielding a response rate of 39%. Five surveys were excluded from the final analyses due to missing responses, yielding an effective sample size of 111. The majority of respondents were women (64.5%). Participant ages ranged from 18 to 68, with an average age of just over 39 years. Eighty-four respondents (76.4%) reported living with a spouse or partner, and of these, 90.5% were members of dual-earner households, where the spouse or partner was also employed. Sixty-two (56.4%) respondents reported having children, and the average age of the youngest child for these employees was 13.26 years. Seventeen (15.5%) respondents reported having caregiving responsibilities for adult dependents (other than children). The average number of adult dependents for these respondents was 0.20. Average tenure for the respondents in Sunnydale Borough Council was 7.76 years, and they reported working an average of 35.52 hours per week.

Sixty-one percent of Sunnydale respondents were currently using at least one work-home option offered by their employer. Table 3.1 shows how many respondents were currently using, had previously used, or reported no past or present use of each work-home option available in Sunnydale Borough Council.

Table 3.1: Usage figures by survey respondents for work-home options at Sunnydale Borough Council

Option	No. of respondents currently using option	No. of respondents who have used option in the past	No. of respondents reporting no past or present use of option
Flexitime	61 (52.6%)	18 (15.5%)	37 (31.9%)
Working from home	9 (7.8%)	20 (17.2%)	87 (75.0%)
Job sharing	6 (5.2%)	9 (7.8%)	101 (87.1%)
Reduced hours	6 (5.2%)	5 (4.3%)	105 (90.5%)
Maternity returnees policy	0 (0.0%)	11 (9.5%)	105 (90.5%)
Compassionate leave	4 (3.4%)	37 (31.9%)	75 (64.7%)

In Durand College, 115 of 500 surveys were returned, yielding a response rate of 23%. The majority of respondents were women (61.8%). Participant ages ranged from 17 to 61, with an average age of just over 43 years. Ninety-two respondents (83.6%) reported living with a spouse or partner, and of these, 75.5% were members of dual-earner households, where the spouse or partner was also employed. Seventy-eight (70.9%) respondents reported having children, and the average age of the youngest child for these employees was 15.28 years. Seven percent of Durand College respondents were using the College's on-site childcare facility. The average age of the youngest child for these employees was 4.81 years. Sixteen (14.5%) respondents reported having caregiving responsibilities for adult dependents (other than children). The average number of adult dependents for these respondents was 0.20. Average tenure for the respondents in Durand College was 8.33 years, and they reported working an average of 41.16 hours per week.

Due to the smaller sample sizes of the organizations participating in Survey II, respondents from Sunnydale Borough Council and Durand College were combined to form one sample. Table 3.4 shows a comparison of demographic characteristics of respondents from Sunnydale Borough Council and Durand College.

Table 3.2: Comparison of demographic characteristics for samples used in Survey II

	Sunnydale Council		Durand College		
		SD		SD	t(221)
Female	64.5%		61.8%		0.67
Living with partner/spouse	76.4%		83.6%		-1.27
Employed partner	90.5%		75.5%		2.59*
Children	56.4%		70.9%		-2.11*
Mean age	39.59	11.31	43.04	11.18	-2.26*
Mean age of youngest child	13.26	8.91	15.29	8.49	-1.41
Mean tenure	7.76	7.48	8.33	7.84	-0.38
Mean hours worked weekly	35.52	9.07	41.16	9.49	-5.10***
Mean income	£22,001 - £32,000	1.01	£20,000 - £29,999	0.98	-
Mean income of partner	£15,001 - £22,000	1.46	£10,000 - £19,999	1.75	-

3.3.3 Content of the survey instruments

3.3.3.1 Measures of work-home interference. Two separate survey instruments were developed and used for the purposes of this study. Survey I was distributed to employees of Rayleigh Council, while Survey II was conducted in Sunnydale Borough Council and Durand College of Technology. Wherever possible, previously validated scales were employed in order to ensure psychometric adequacy and stability, and to facilitate comparison between the results of these studies and those of other research in the field.

Until 2000, when Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams published their multidimensional measure of work-home interference, validated measures of work-home interference that distinguished both between directions of interference (work-to-home, and home-to-work) and among dimensions of interference (time-, strain-, and behaviour-based) were unavailable. For this reason, the first survey conducted to collect data for this thesis used single measures of work interference with home and home interference with work that assessed a combination of time- and strain-based interference, but did not differentiate between the two. Behaviour-based interference was not measured. The hypotheses and results discussed in Chapter 4, which are based on the data collected in the first survey, will therefore not address the three different dimensions of work-home interference. They will, however, address the two different directions of work-home interference, an act necessary for greater understanding of the predictors and consequences particular to each one.

The second survey conducted for the purposes of this thesis was developed after 2000, and used Carlson et al.'s (2000) multidimensional measure of work-home interference. Individual measures for time-, strain-, and behaviour-based work interference with home and home interference with work were incorporated in the survey. The hypotheses and results discussed in Chapters 5 through 8, which are based on data collected in the second survey, will therefore address all three dimensions of work-home interference.

3.3.3.2 The pilot study. Two small-scale pilot studies were conducted in November 2000 and February 2002 before the main data collection for each of the surveys

began. These studies were designed to pre-test the survey instruments that would be used for the main data collection. A random sample of fifteen employees of Rayleigh Council was selected to complete Survey I in advance of its general distribution. The main objectives of this pre-test were to ensure that the item wordings were understandable and appropriate for the range of occupations within the local authority context, to incorporate any useful feedback from the respondents, and to estimate the time required for completion of the questionnaire.

Survey II was tested on (i) a convenience sample of twenty-five individuals not employed by either of the two organizations participating in the research, and (ii) five members of the human resources department at Sunnydale Borough Council. Difficulties with gaining timely access to Durand College imposed time constraints on survey distribution, which did not permit piloting to take place amongst its workforce. The objectives of this pre-test were similar to that for Survey I, with the additional aim of assessing preliminary scale reliabilities and factor analyses.

3.3.3.3 Content of Survey I. Survey I contained measures designed to assess: (i) biographical information (e.g., sex, age, family status, income, hours worked weekly); (ii) work-home interference (e.g., work interference with home, and home interference with work); (iii) family domain variables (e.g., family role expectations, parental strain, household stressors, control over family); (iv) work domain variables (e.g., work role expectations, autonomy over work hours, work-home-related supervisor support); and (v) desire to use work-home options such as flexitime, extended parental leave, or childcare vouchers. A copy of the survey instrument is presented in Appendix A.

In the biographical section, respondents were asked to provide: (a) demographic information – i.e., gender, age, marital status, number and age of offspring, number of adult dependents (such as elderly parents or disabled relatives); and (b) details of their employment – i.e., job title, hours worked weekly, and annual income. Respondents who were married or living with a partner were also asked to provide an estimate of their partner's annual income, so that total family income could be calculated.

The main section of the survey assessed work-home interference, family domain variables, and work domain variables. All items were answered on a five-point Likert response scale. In the absence of a well-established scale addressing both directions of interference (work-to-home and home-to-work), items from existing scales were selected and combined to measure these constructs. Work interference with home was measured using six items, four from a scale developed by Kopelman et al., (1983), and two from a scale developed by Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981). Home interference with work was measured using five items, four of which were adapted from items developed by Burley (1989) (as cited in Gutek et al., 1991) and one of which was developed by Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981). Combinations of these scales have been used frequently by other work-home researchers (e.g., Adams et al., 1996; Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Frone et al., 1997b).

Family role expectations were measured using items developed by Cooke and Rousseau (1984), the only researchers to date to operationalize the expectations held by others with regard to a respondent's family roles. Parental strain was measured using items based on those developed by Pearlin and Schooler (1978). Control over childcare was measured using the "Control over family" scale developed by Thomas and Ganster (1995), which is the only one in the work-home literature thus far to measure the degree of choice available to parents or guardians regarding childcare options.

Work role expectations were measured using the scale developed by Cooke and Rousseau (1984), while control over work hours was measured using items developed by Thomas and Ganster (1995). Both scales were developed by their authors to be counterpoints to the scales for family role expectations and control over family, and were therefore well-suited for inclusion in the present study. Supervisor support was measured using items developed by Shinn, Wong, Simko, and Ortiz-Torres (1989) that have been used in similar work-home studies (e.g., Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

In order to assess respondents' desire to use certain work-home options, a list of eight such options was provided and respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they would be interested in using these options were they to be offered by their employing organization. Respondents indicated interest by checking a box next to each work-

home option listed. The list of options was generated jointly by myself and the Equalities Manager of Rayleigh Council, and was determined by the potential of each to be included in future work-home initiatives implemented in the organization.

These scales are described briefly in Table 3.1, and details of the psychometric properties of each are reported in Chapter 4 where the scales are used. The factoring method used for all scales was principal axis. Ford, MacCallum, and Tait (1986) recommend this common factoring method in place of the principal components method of analysis, which mixes common, specific, and random error variances. Varimax orthogonal rotation was used for all scales in accordance with Hinkin's (1998) recommendation, as the intent was to develop scales that were reasonably independent of one another. Items with factor loadings of greater than .40 were retained, provided they did not load highly on more than one factor.

Table 3.3: Scales used in Survey I

Scale name	Original items	Items retained	Coefficient alpha	Scale description
Work-home interference				
Work interference with home	6	6	.85	The extent to which respondents experience strain or lack of time in the home domain as a result of demands from work
Home interference with work	5	5	.82	The extent to which respondents experience strain or lack of time in the work domain as a result of demands from home
Family domain variables				
Family role expectations	4	2	.82	The extent to which respondents' friends and families expect them to prioritize family over work
Parental strain	2	2	.67	The extent to which the behaviour of respondents' children was a source of concern to respondents

Scale name	Original items	Items retained	Coefficient alpha	Scale description
Control over childcare	6	6	.90	The extent to which respondents had choice regarding their childcare arrangements
Work domain variables				
Work role expectations	4	4	.89	The extent to which respondents' colleagues and supervisors expect them to prioritize work over family
Control over work hours	8	6	.79	The extent to which respondents could control their work schedule
Supervisor support				
Instrumental	6	6	.86	The extent to which respondents' supervisors provide practical assistance with work-home issues
Emotional	3	3	.73	The extent to which respondents' supervisors express support of work-home issues

3.3.3.4 Content of Survey II. Survey II contained measures designed to assess: (i) biographical information (e.g., sex, age, tenure, family status, income); (ii) perceptions of work-home issues (e.g., interference between work and home, organizational work-home culture); (iii) work-related attitudes (e.g., opportunity for organizational citizenship behaviour, perceived organizational support, organizational justice, attribution for work-home interference); (iv) work-related behaviours (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviour, workplace deviance, task performance); (v) dispositional variables (e.g., perfectionism, self-esteem, self-efficacy); and (vi) individual coping strategies. A copy of the survey instrument can be found in Appendix A.

In the biographical section, respondents were asked to provide: (a) demographic information – i.e., gender, age, marital status, spouse or partner's employment status, age of youngest child, number of adult dependents (such as elderly parents or disabled relatives); and (b) details of their employment – i.e., job title, tenure, hours worked

weekly, and annual income. Respondents who were married or living with a partner who was also employed were asked to provide an estimate of their partner's annual income, so that total family income could be calculated.

The following section of the survey concerned respondents' perceptions of work-home issues. Work interference with home was measured using items from Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams's (2000) multidimensional measure of work-family conflict. This was the only scale developed to measure both directions of interference - work to home, and home to work - and the three types of interference - time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based. The statements were modified in order to be applicable to respondents both with and without family responsibilities. Organizational work-home culture was measured using Thompson et al.'s (1999) scale, which was chosen due to its superior predictive ability over Allen's (2001) Family-Supportive Organizational Support scale (see Behson, 2002). The only alternative measure, Jahn, Thompson and Kopelman's (2003) Perceived Organizational Family Support scale, was not available at the time of survey development or distribution.

Work-related attitudes were the second major component of investigation in Survey II. Three types of organizational justice – procedural, distributive, and interactional - were measured using validated scales developed by Colquitt (2001). In the version of the survey distributed to employees of Sunnydale Borough Council, the procedural, distributive, and interactional items were adapted to reflect impressions of fairness concerning allocation of, access to, and information about work-home options. Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch's (1997) Perceived Organizational Support scale was also included. Opportunity to perform OCB and attribution for interference between work and home have not previously been operationalized, and so measures were created especially for this study. Factor analysis data are presented for these variables in Chapters 6 and 7, where the scales are used.

Work-related behaviours were also assessed in the questionnaire. Four aspects of organizational citizenship behaviour were measured using established scales: compliance/obedience (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994); civic virtue (Morrison, 1994); interpersonal helping, and loyal boosterism (Moorman & Blakeley,

1995). Workplace deviance was measured using the scale created by Bennett and Robinson (2000). This was one of the few existing validated measures of workplace deviance; it assessed all four dimensions of deviance (property, production, political, and interpersonal aggression), and distinguished between deviance targeted at the organization and deviance directed at individuals. It was designed to be generalizable across many organizational settings. Task performance was measured using a two-item scale from Robinson (1996).

Dispositional characteristics were assessed using established scales. Slaney, Mobley, Trippi, Ashby, and Johnson's (1996) revised Almost Perfect Scale was selected to measure perfectionism, as it was one of the few validated scales to appraise both adaptive and maladaptive aspects of the construct. General self-efficacy was measured using Chen, Gully, and Eden's (2001) scale. Of measures designed to assess generalized rather than task-specific efficacy, this had the highest construct validity. Global self-esteem was measured using Rosenberg's (1965) scale, which was chosen due to its ubiquity in the research literature.

Individual coping strategies were the final elements to be addressed by the questionnaire. Because the measurement of work-home interference coping strategies is not highly developed, and there is no single preferred instrument (Koeske, Kirk, & Koeske, 1993), new scales were created to measure individual coping techniques. Factor analysis data are presented for these scales in Chapter 8, where the scales are used.

All items were answered on a seven-point Likert response scale in an effort to capture more variance than that obtained from a five-point scale. These scales are described briefly in Table 3.2, and details of the psychometric properties of each are reported in the relevant chapters. As with the scales in Survey I, principal axis factoring and varimax orthogonal rotation was used. Items with factor loadings of greater than .40 were retained, provided they did not load highly on more than one factor. Two of the coping subscales (Acceptance and Prioritization) were dropped due to low internal reliability; details are provided in Chapter 8.

Scale name	Original items	Items retained	Coefficient alpha	Scale description
Work-home interference				
Work interference with home: Time-&-strain-based	6	6	.92	The extent to which respondents experience strain or lack of time in the home domain as a result of demands from work
Home interference with work: Time-&-strain-based	6	6	.84	The extent to which respondents experience strain or lack of time in the work domain as a result of demands from home
Interference between work and home: Behaviour-based	6	5	.80	The extent to which respondents perceive that their behaviour at home is inappropriate at work, and vice versa
Workplace attitudes				
Attribution for work-home interference				
Attribution for work interference with home	2	2	.86	The extent to which respondents attribute their work interference with home to either themselves or their employing organization
Attribution for home interference with work	2	2	.90	The extent to which respondents attribute their home interference with work to either themselves or their employing organization
Opportunity to perform OCB (organizational citizenship behaviour)	6	4	.69	The extent to which respondents experience time or energy constraints on their ability to perform OCB
Perceived organizational support	7	7	.89	The extent to which respondents experience their organization as being supportive of them

Scale name	Original items	Items retained	Coefficient alpha	Scale description
Work-home culture				
Managerial support	7	7	.91	The extent to which respondents perceive that managers in their employing organization are understanding of work-home issues
Career consequences	4	2	.77	The extent to which respondents perceive that careers in their employing organization are negatively affected by having personal or family responsibilities
Organizational time demands	4	4	.94	The extent to which respondents perceive that job success in their employing organization is dependent upon sacrificing personal time for work
Organizational justice (Sunnydale Borough Council only)				
Procedural justice	7	7	.89	The extent to which respondents perceive work-home option allocation to be fair
Distributive justice	4	4	.91	The extent to which respondents perceive their access to work-home options to be fair
Interpersonal justice	4	4	.95	The extent to which respondents perceive that their manager treats them in an appropriate manner
Informational justice	5	5	.89	The extent to which respondents perceive work-home option-related organizational communications to be candid

Scale name	Original items	Items retained	Coefficient alpha	Scale description
Workplace behaviours				
Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB)				
Interpersonal helping	5	4	.71	The extent to which respondents engage in helping behaviours toward their co-workers
Loyal boosterism	5	3	.77	The extent to which respondents show support for their employing organization
Compliance/obedience	5	4	.76	The extent to which respondents comply with organizational norms concerning productivity
Civic virtue	5	2	.83	The extent to which respondents participate in voluntary work-related activities within their employing organization
Workplace deviance				
Interpersonal deviance	5	5	.75	The extent to which respondents engage in behaviour intended to harm their co-workers
Organizational deviance	8	7	.79	The extent to which respondents engage in behaviour intended to harm their employing organization
Task performance	2	2	.72	Respondents' self-assessment of their performance on the job
Dispositional characteristics				
Perfectionism				
Adaptive perfectionism	7	7	.87	The extent to which respondents perceive a low level of distress resulting from the discrepancy between their personal standards and their performance

Scale name	Original items	Items retained	Coefficient alpha	Scale description
Maladaptive perfectionism	7	7	.93	The extent to which respondents perceive a high level of distress resulting from the discrepancy between their personal standards and their performance
Generalized self-efficacy	8	5	.91	Respondents' expectation that they possess the ability to successfully perform tasks in a variety of achievement situations
Global self-esteem	10	5	.82	Respondents' overall evaluation of personal worth
Coping strategies				
Limiting role involvement at work	4	4	.77	The extent to which respondents limit their involvement in non-essential activities at work
Scheduling work to accommodate home	4	4	.86	The extent to which respondents schedule work activities to accommodate demands from home
Limiting role involvement at home	3	3	.81	The extent to which respondents limit their involvement in non-essential activities at home
Scheduling home to accommodate work	3	3	.91	The extent to which respondents schedule home activities to accommodate demands from work
Increased role behaviour	3	3	.73	The extent to which respondents invest more effort in meeting competing demands from work and home
Prioritization	3	0	-	The extent to which respondents redefine their priorities in dealing with competing demands from work and home

Scale name	Original items	Items retained	Coefficient alpha	Scale description
Social support	7	7	.89	The extent to which respondents seek social support to help them cope with competing demands from work and home
Cognitive reappraisal	3	3	.83	The extent to which respondents emphasize the positive aspects of dealing with competing demands from work and home
Acceptance	3	0	-	The extent to which respondents resign themselves to the existence of interference between work and home
Behavioural disengagement	3	2	.81	The extent to which respondents abandon attempts to reduce work-home interference
Tension reduction	3	3	.77	The extent to which respondents engage in activities designed to decrease tension or strain

3.4 Data analysis

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to test the hypothesized relationships between the variables in this study. This approach was deemed most appropriate given the large number of variables under investigation. Where the impact of gender was explored, two-tailed t-tests were employed to establish significant differences between mean responses. Moderation was tested using procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991), and mediation was tested using the procedure recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986). The analytic techniques used to test each of the hypotheses are discussed in detail in the chapters in which they are employed.

<u>3.5 Rationale for quantitative research design</u>

The majority of research on work-home interference has adopted a cross-sectional, quantitative approach. The present study continues in that tradition, and uses self-administered questionnaires with closed-ended items for the purposes of gathering data. A quantitative research design such as this offers a number of benefits, including a relatively high level of measurement precision and statistical power. Reliability may also be determined more objectively than is possible when using qualitative techniques (Jones, 1997). Despite these advantages, quantitative research is sometimes criticized for forcing individuals and human behaviour into rigid categories, in contrast to the rich detail of subjective experience that can be gleaned from qualitative studies (e.g., Miles & Huberman, 1994; Reichardt & Rallis, 1994). To date, there is but a small minority of work-home interference research that has used a qualitative approach to the subject. This has focused primarily upon participants' interpretations of how support from family, friends and employer (Lee & Duxbury, 1998), organizational culture (Bailyn, 1997), and work-home policies or programs (Brandth & Kvande, 2002; Brewer, 2000) affects their own satisfaction with the integration of their paid work with family life. While this work is undoubtedly valuable for the insight it yields into employee attitudes regarding the juxtaposition of work and home, a similar research design is inappropriate for the present study. The rationale for this is described below.

A qualitative approach does not permit empirical testing of theoretically constructed models, given its reliance upon participants' own interpretations of cause and effect. Assessing the 35 variables contained in Survey II in a standardized fashion would be difficult using a qualitative methodology; objectively investigating the theory-driven hypothesized relationships among these variables, including moderation and mediation, would be impossible. In contrast, a quantitative approach allows for the measurement of many participants' reactions to a specified of items. Because each item has a limited set of answers, the results can be compared and analyzed statistically; they also can be generalized to a larger population within known limits of error (Warwick and Lininger, 1975; Patton, 1986).

Another advantage to the use of quantitative methods in the present thesis is their ability to facilitate comparison not only among the participants of this study, but also between the findings of this and other studies. The relationships found in the present thesis can be compared to those established in previous or forthcoming research using the same or similar measurement instruments, improving our understanding of the variables investigated. Quantitative methodologies also facilitate replication, as measures and response categories can easily be reproduced (Kruger, 2003). The subjective nature of qualitative research prevents objective and systematic comparison among individuals and between studies.

To sum up, the proposed hypotheses in the thesis are theory-driven and involve a relatively large number of variables, and comparison of results within and across studies was desired. For these reasons, a quantitative approach was deemed most appropriate for the present research.

3.6 Conclusion

Further discussion of some of the issues described above will take place throughout the thesis, as well as in the concluding chapter. Having described the research setting and methodology, the thesis will now address the research aims outlined in Chapter 2. The following chapter will explore the effects of a number of work-related and home-related factors on employee levels of interference between work and home, and explore the role of gender in influencing the relationship between these situational factors and work-home interference.

Chapter 4 – Gender Differences and Opposite-Domain Predictors of Work-Home Interference

4.1   Introduction

4.2   Family domain variables

    4.2.1   Caregiving responsibilities
    4.2.2   Parental strain
    4.2.3   Family role expectations
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4.3   Work domain variables

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4.1 Introduction

As discussed in Chapter 2, the work-home literature has traditionally assumed that family domain variables (e.g., childcare, household work) predict home interference with work, and that work domain variables (e.g., hours worked weekly, job autonomy) predict work interference with home. When both types of interference are measured, these are the hypotheses that are usually tested (e.g., Williams & Alliger, 1994; Frone et al., 1992). Much of the existing research on both work and family domain variables, however, has used composite, non-directional measures of work-home interference. These non-directional measures have incorporated items measuring both work interference with home and home interference with work in one scale. Studies using these measures cannot determine, therefore, whether antecedent variables are predicting work interference with home, or home interference with work (e.g., Lee & Duxbury, 1998; Higgins et al., 1992; Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991).

Any influence of work domain variables on home interference with work has been assumed to occur through the mediating effects of work interference with home [Work domain variables → Work interference with home → Home interference with work]. If one's work-related problems begin to interfere with the completion of one's personal or family-related obligations, these unfulfilled home obligations will begin to interfere with one's day-to-day functioning at work, and vice versa (Frone et al., 1992). For example, working long hours one day may prevent an individual from running time-sensitive errands at the bank, post office, and dry-cleaners that afternoon. His or her attempts to complete these errands during his lunch hour the following day may be unsuccessful and he or she will thus return late to the office, missing several phone calls and falling behind on job tasks. Similarly, the effects of family domain variables on work interference with home are thought to take place via the mediating influence of home interference with work.

An alternative potential relationship is that work domain variables can contribute directly to home interference with work, and vice versa. This perspective has been under-researched. A small number of studies has found direct links between elements of the family domain and work interference with home, indicating that mediation via

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home interference with work is not the only way in which family variables contribute to employees' work interference with home. The presence of young children in the household has been associated with increased work interference with home (Carlson, 1999; Foley et al., 2003; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), while satisfaction with family and, for women, support and companionship from one's spouse has been related to lower levels of work interference with home (Aryee, 1993; Markel, 2000). Research by Fox and Dwyer (1999) has shown that two work domain variables, job involvement and time spent on work activities, can moderate the relationship between family domain variables and home interference with work. This suggests that work domain variables may play a greater role in contributing to home interference with work than has previously been supposed, and invites further research.

The primary aim of this chapter is to investigate the direct effects of opposite-domain variables on work-home interference. Do work domain variables contribute to the variance in home interference with work beyond that explained by family domain variables and work interference with home? As home interference with work can be a major problem for organizations (Daycare Trust, 2002), it is important to know if organizations are helping to create the problem themselves – if they are contributing directly to the extent to which their employees' personal lives are interfering with the performance of their jobs. This knowledge may also have implications for how employees experiencing home interference with work are perceived by others in the organization. Work-home options offered by organizations to assist those whose personal lives are interfering with their work are often construed by management as favours (Lewis, Kagan, & Heaton, 2000), granted to employees whose lifestyle choices impinge upon their productivity. As such, these options are widely viewed by both employers and employees as a cost to the organization (Lewis, 1997), and their use is often associated with job penalties such as lower performance appraisals and career limitations (Bailyn, 1997; Raabe, 1996). The knowledge that organizations are contributing directly to the extent to which their employees' personal lives interfere with the performance of their jobs could force a change in attitudes toward work-home options and those who use them; responsibility for causing a problem implies responsibility for solving it, and organizational work-home options may come to be seen as entitlements for employees whose home interference with work is at least partially attributable to their employers.

The corollary to the Work domain variables → Home interference with work relationship is that family domain variables contribute to the variance in work interference with home beyond that explained by work domain variables and home interference with work. While

this relationship yields fewer implications concerning the responsibility of organizations to assist employees experiencing interference (because family domain variables would presumably not be attributable to the organization), it is worth investigating nonetheless due to its greater empirical support in the existing work-home literature, as described earlier in this section (e.g., Carlson, 1999; Foley et al., 2003).

The second purpose of this chapter is to determine whether the antecedents under study similarly affect men's and women's experience of work-home interference, or whether there are gender differences. Previous empirical results suggest that there are a number of differences in the predictors of work-home interference for men and women. For example, Buffardi et al. (1999) found that the presence of young children in the household had a stronger relationship with work-family balance for women than for men. Research by Higgins and Duxbury (1992), meanwhile, revealed that having an employed spouse contributed to interference between work and family for men, but not for women. A 1998 study by Kinnunen and Mauno in which men and women were studied separately showed that levels of job insecurity and supervisor support were predictive of work interference with home for women, but not for men. Full-time employment has been associated with higher levels of work interference with home for women, but not men (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), while part-time work has been negatively related to work interference with home for women only (Higgins et al., 2000). In order to investigate gender differences more thoroughly, it has been recommended that men and women be studied separately (Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh, & Reilly, 1995; Parker and Hall, 1992), but most research to date neglects to differentiate between the sexes. The present chapter aims to rectify this oversight. Knowledge of gender differences in antecedents to work-home interference has obvious implications for individual and organizational efforts to prevent or reduce interference, and is therefore worth pursuing.

This chapter will now proceed to explore the effects of family domain variables on work interference with home, and of work domain variables on home interference with work. Potential gender differences in the effects of these variables on interference will then be investigated, and the overall results discussed. The proposed relationships among the study variables are outlined below in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Hypothesized model of relationships among family domain, work domain, and work-home interference variables
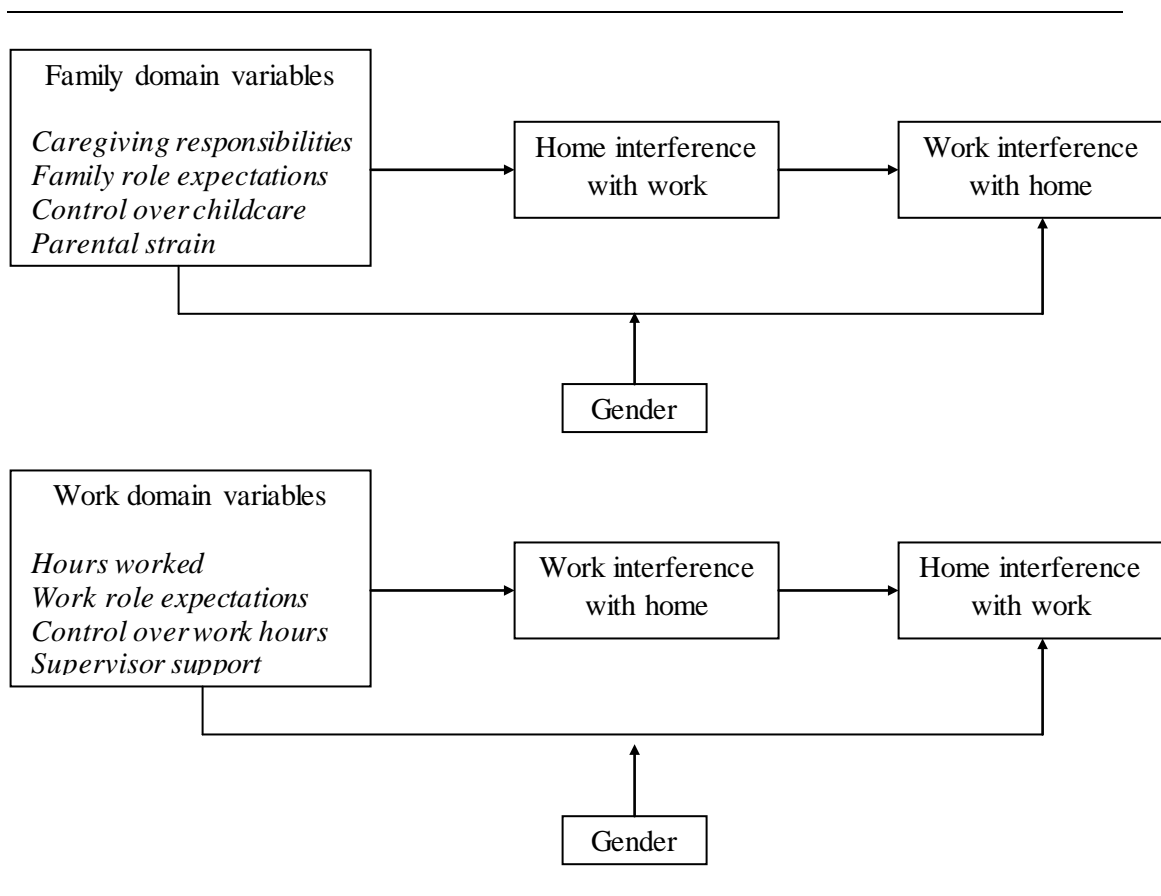
4.2 Family domain variables

Many characteristics of the family environment have been linked to home interference with work and non-directional measures of work-home interference. Four of these with the potential to affect work interference with home, as well as home interference with work, were chosen for inclusion in this study. These are caregiving responsibilities, strain arising from parental duties, family role expectations, and control over childcare.

4.2.1 Caregiving responsibilities

Various family structural characteristics have been associated with interference between work and family. Employees caring for elderly dependent relatives are more likely to experience interference, albeit of an unspecified direction (Scharlach & Boyd, 1989), and those with young children are more likely to experience both home interference with work and work interference with home (Aryee, 1993; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). By increasing the workload of employed caregivers, the presence of dependents provides increased opportunities for family responsibilities to spill over into the work domain, in terms of both time and strain. For example, an elderly parent's medical appointment may necessitate an employee taking the afternoon off work and missing an important meeting. Alternatively, an employee anxious about an elderly parent's poor health may underperform on the job due to reduced concentration.

While home interference with work may mediate the effects of caregiving responsibilities on work interference with home [Caregiving → Home interference with work → Work interference with home], caregiving responsibilities may also have a direct positive effect on work interference with home. Caregivers of young children or adult dependents are likely to require greater amounts of time and energy in their personal lives than do employees with fewer family responsibilities. Any intrusion of work into the home domain will therefore constitute more interference for caregivers than for non-caregivers. For example, an employee with grown children and no adult dependents may perceive that working long hours prevents him or her from attending early cinema screenings with his or her spouse, and allows him or her only four hours of leisure time per weekday evening. This could be classified as mild work interference with home. In contrast, an employee with young children in the household may perceive that working long hours prevents him or her from collecting the children from school or daycare, playing with or reading to them, feeding them supper, and putting them to bed, in addition to limiting his or her leisure time and activities with his or her spouse. This could be classified as strong work interference with home. For the latter employee, the work-induced reduction of time and energy available for the family domain has greater consequences. Employees with greater

caregiving responsibilities may therefore report higher levels of work interference with home than do employees with fewer caregiving responsibilities.

> Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive, direct relationship between the number of children under the age of 16 living in the household and work interference with home.

> Hypothesis 2: There will be a positive, direct relationship between the number of adult dependents and work interference with home.

4.2.2 Parental strain

Parental strain involves tension or anxiety which occurs as a result of stressors originating in the family domain, such as badly-behaved offspring, or the sheer amount of effort associated with raising children. It has been positively related to heightened levels of home interference with work (Higgins et al., 1992; Vinokur et al., 1999; Williams & Alliger, 1994), by providing increased opportunities for family demands to manifest themselves during working hours. A parent who reports concern over a child's behaviour may be distracted on the job by worries about the child and therefore suffer in terms of productivity or efficiency, or he or she may be called away from work by the child's school after an incident of misconduct.

Parental strain of this type might also contribute directly to work interference with home. Similar to those with greater caregiving responsibilities, individuals experiencing higher levels of parental strain may need to expend greater amounts of time and energy in their family lives than do individuals whose parenting responsibilities incur less anxiety. As a result, any intrusion of work into the home domain is likely to represent more interference for those experiencing greater amounts of parental strain. For instance, let us consider a scenario in which office workers are required to put in two hours of overtime each day in order to meet a deadline the following week. An employee with low levels of parental strain may resent the incursion of work into family time, but may not perceive as high an amount of interference as that of a colleague who is preoccupied by concerns regarding his or

her daughter's academic performance and who had intended to spend every evening that week tutoring the child in preparation for a mathematics test.

> Hypothesis 3: There will be a positive, direct relationship between parental strain and work interference with home.

4.2.3 Family role expectations

Expectations held by family members and friends for an individual to prioritize the family role over the work role, and take on additional family role responsibilities to the detriment of his or her job, have been linked to increased levels of non-directional work-home interference (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984). Family role expectations have the potential to influence both directions of work-home interference. A potential explanation for this relationship is that conforming to family role expectations may result in role overload, generating time pressures and strain which can spill over into the work domain, creating home interference with work [Family role expectations → Family role overload → Home interference with work].

Regardless of whether or not an individual complies with family role expectations, awareness of the pressure upon her to scale back her job responsibilities and focus more attention on family matters may render any occasions wherein elements of the work domain interrupt family life more prominent. For an individual who is not subject to high levels of family role expectations, being mentally preoccupied with a job assignment while at home may generate only a small amount of work interference with home. For an individual who is pressurized by friends or family to prioritize family over work, however, the experience of work interfering with family may be more intense. Guilt may arise from allowing work to interfere with what others expect to be the most important part of one's life; for those who have internalized the role expectations, and taken them for their own, this sense of culpability may be even stronger. Instances of work interfering with family may thus be more salient for these individuals, resulting in perceptions of greater interference. Support for this conjecture is found in research by Kossek et al. (2001), demonstrating that a family climate encouraging members to sacrifice their work performance for the sake of their family duties is associated with higher levels of work interference with home.

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Hypothesis 4: Family role expectations will be positively and directly related to work interference with home.

4.2.4 Control over childcare arrangements

Childcare is an important issue for working parents. Unavailability of suitable childcare has been linked with higher levels of home interference with work (Fox & Dwyer, 1999), and the degree of choice available regarding the form, quality, and cost of childcare provision has been negatively associated with non-directional work-home interference (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). It is clear to see how increased control over childcare arrangements might impact an employee's home interference with work; the ability to choose high-quality, affordable, and reliable care for one's children imparts peace of mind for employees on the job. It also renders less likely scenarios in which a childcare provider calls in sick or changes drop-off or pick-up times without advance notice, forcing employed parents to stay home to care for their children or spend time at work trying to make last-minute alternative childcare arrangements.

It is also conceivable that control over childcare may have a direct influence on work interference with home. For example, given a situation where an employee is required to work late or travel with little advance notice, the ability to easily procure flexible childcare could make the difference between low and high levels of work interference with home. For an employee enjoying a high degree of control over childcare arrangements, a quick phone call may be all that is necessary to ensure that her children are cared for in a safe environment while she is away. In this case, the amount to which work has interfered with the home domain is minimal. In contrast, an employee without similar access to high-quality, affordable, and reliable childcare may be forced to scramble for adequate last-minute childcare cover, paying above the odds and worrying about the quality of care. This would induce stress and time demands, and increase perceptions that work is exacting a heavy toll on family life. In this instance, the degree to which work has interfered with the home domain is considerably greater than it was for the first employee.

Hypothesis 5: Control over childcare will be negatively and directly related to work interference with home.

4.3 Work domain variables

Many features of the work environment have been positively linked to non-directional measures of work-home interference. Four of these with the potential to predict home interference with work, as well as work interference with home, were chosen for investigation in this study. These are hours worked, work role expectations, control over work hours, and supervisor support regarding work-family issues.

4.3.1 Hours worked

The number of hours spent weekly in work activities has been shown to have a positive relationship not only with non-directional measures of work-home interference (Keith & Schafer, 1980), but also with specific measures of work interference with home (Fu & Shaffer, 2001; O'Driscoll et al., 1992). It is plain to see that escalations in time spent in the work domain inevitably result in less time available at home, rendering more difficult the completion of responsibilities associated with the family role. An employee who works 35 hours a week has time available in the evenings and on weekends to help his or her children with their homework, ferry them to and from music or sports lessons, tend to the garden, and help with meal preparation. An employee working 60 hours a week has limited time available for the home domain and is unlikely to fulfil the same degree of family or household responsibilities.

However, increased time spent at work also has the potential for increased home interference with work. The more time an individual spends in the work domain, the more opportunities are created for family responsibilities to intrude. Family demands can manifest at any time of day or night. As an example, consider a child who needs help with a school project. The employee who works 35 hours a week and therefore spends more time in the family domain is likely to be able to render assistance with the project after work and on weekends. No home interference with work would thus be generated. The employee working 60 hours per week spends less time in the family

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domain and is therefore less likely to be able to render assistance while at home. The child may therefore phone the parent at work and request that the parent spend work time and resources collecting information for the project, diverting the parent's attention from work activities. Home interference with work would be generated as a result.

Hypothesis 6: Hours worked weekly will be positively and directly related to home interference with work.

4.3.2 Work role expectations

Expectations held by superiors and co-workers for an employee to prioritize the work role by assuming increased job-related responsibilities and extending performance of the work role beyond normal working hours have been linked to increased non-directional measures of work-home interference (Cooke and Rousseau, 1984; Higgins et al., 1992), and have also been shown to contribute to work interference with home (Major et al., 2002). This contribution is thought to occur in two ways: 1) through evoking work pressures that dominate the time of the employee and interfere with fulfillment of the expectations associated with performance of the family role (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984), and 2) through the generation of work role overload (Wiley, 1991), which has been shown to contribute to increased levels of work interference with home (Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Burke, 1988).

The presence of heightened work role expectations may, however, also play a direct role in contributing to home interference with work. Pressure from one's colleagues and superiors to assign primacy to the work role may render any intrusions from the home domain more salient and potentially more disruptive; the more an employee perceives that his or her manager expects him or her to give precedence to his or her job, the more aware he or she might be of and the more significance he or she may ascribe to any family-related interference with work, such as preoccupation with the academic performance of a child, or the task of arranging emergency eldercare provision for a parent. Furthermore, expectations of an employee to extend the hours spent in the work domain provides increased opportunities for family responsibilities

to encroach upon working time, as discussed earlier. For the reasons outlined above, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 7: Work role expectations will be positively and directly related to home interference with work.

4.3.3 Control over work hours

Control over the scheduling of one's work hours has been linked to lower perceptions of non-directional work-home interference (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001; Thomas and Ganster, 1995). It is safe to assume that autonomy over work hours can contribute directly to perceptions of work interference with home; an employee who can reschedule a late afternoon meeting in order to attend a child's music recital, or who is able to take two hours off work one afternoon to drive an elderly relative to a dental appointment, is bound to perceive less interference from work with his or her family responsibilities than would an employee with a fixed work schedule.

Adams and Jex (2002) have found that perceived control over time predicts lower levels of home interference with work. This suggests that autonomy over work hours may also directly affect an employee's perceptions of home interference with work, by enabling an individual to schedule his or her tasks in such a way as to accommodate personal or family obligations without work-related repercussions. For example, an employee who can choose to take a few hours off work and make them up later in the day or week would not experience the same degree of interference from family to work as would an employee not similarly empowered should they both be called upon to accompany an elderly parent to a medical appointment during working hours. The first employee could return to work, stay late, and accomplish work tasks as usual, while the second might be forced to take holiday or sick leave, fall behind on his or her duties, and possibly acquire a reputation for unreliability amongst his or her coworkers. The following hypothesis is derived from this argument:

Hypothesis 8: Control over work hours will be negatively and directly related to home interference with work.

4.3.4 Supervisor support

The presence of supervisors who are supportive of an employee's work-family issues has been associated with lower levels of both non-directional measures of work-home interference (Erdwins et al., 2001) and specific appraisals of work interference with home (Anderson et al., 2002). Supervisor support can be both emotional, involving the provision of sympathy and reassurance, and instrumental, involving practical assistance such as changing work or leave schedules to accommodate an employee's family demands. Such support undoubtedly has the potential to reduce work interference with home; an employee whose supervisor sympathizes with his or her desire to attend an out-of-town family wedding and who rearranges his or her leave schedule as a result would perceive less work interference with home than an employee whose supervisor demonstrated no interest in his or her life outside the workplace and made no effort to accommodate his or her efforts to balance work and family demands.

Supportive supervision may also help to lessen employees' experience of home interference with work. In their definition of supervisor support, Thomas and Ganster (1995: 7) state that "this support might include…allowing one to bring a child to work on a snow day, or even offering a kind word when the babysitter quits". These types of supportive behaviours and attitudes may directly influence employees' perceptions of family life interfering with work. An employee whose child's school has closed unexpectedly due to inclement weather, and who cannot find emergency childcare, would be forced to stay home with that child and miss a day of work in the absence of a supportive supervisor permitting him or her to bring the child to the workplace, or to work from home that day. Another potential explanation for the relationship is that offering sympathy or encouragement to employees with family responsibilities may lessen emotional strain and thereby diminish the experience of home interference with work.

> Hypothesis 9: Supervisor support will be negatively related to home interference with work.

4.4 Gender interactions

The role of gender in work-home interference is not well-established, despite a number of studies incorporating gender as either a direct or a moderating influence on the experience of conflict between work and family. The rational model of work-home interference predicts that men should experience more work interference with home than women, because men tend to spend more time in work activities than women (Jacobs & Gerson, 2000; Pleck, 1985). By the same token, women are likely to experience more home interference with work than men, because women take primary responsibility for the family and thus spend more time in family activities (Bond et al., 1997; Scott, 2001).

Empirical findings have not been altogether supportive of this model. In the majority of studies examining gender, women have been found to experience higher levels of non-directional interference between work and family (Buffardi et al., 1999; Greenglass, Pantony, & Burke, 1988; Hill et al., 2001; Tausig & Fenwick, 2001; Wiersma, 1990). In studies employing specific, directional measures of conflict, women have been shown to experience higher levels of both work interference with home (Gutek et al., 1991) and home interference with work (Duxbury et al., 1994). This may be due to the fact that women have been found to spend more total hours engaged in work and family activities than do men (Duxbury et al., 1994), creating more opportunities for work and family activities to overlap.

A handful of studies have shown gender to moderate the links between various work and family variables and non-directional measures of work-home interference. Duxbury and Higgins (1991) found that work involvement and family conflict were stronger predictors of work-home interference for women than for men, and that family involvement and work expectations were stronger predictors of work-home interference for men than for women. Having responsibility for childcare (Buffardi et al., 1999) and eldercare (Neal, Ingersoll-Dayton, & Starrels, 1997) were also found to predict work-home interference more strongly for women than for men. Because these studies used non-directional measures of work-home interference, however,

knowledge of how gender affects specifically work interference with home or home interference with work is constrained.

As will be described over the next few pages, traditional gender role expectations and patterns of household labour allocation have resulted in the association of parental strain, family role expectations, and work-home interference with women, and the association of work role expectations with men. These gender associations suggest that the predictive power of each antecedent for work-home interference may vary between the sexes.

Gender x Parental strain. Women tend to report higher levels of general psychological distress than do men (Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1989), and research on parents of chronically ill children has shown that women are likely to experience greater parental strain than men (Frank et al., 1991; Hauenstein, 1990). There are two primary theoretical approaches to parental strain. The social role approach suggests that parental strain is not dependent on the parent's sex, but on each parent's participation in child care. As socialized sex roles change and the distribution of childcare becomes more egalitarian, men and women would be expected to have similar levels of parental strain (Barnett & Baruch, 1987). In contrast, the sex role hypothesis predicts that regardless of social or family circumstances, mothers will experience greater parental strain due to their biological role as primary caregiver (Barnett & Baruch, 1987).

Both approaches predict that women will experience greater parental strain than will men. Despite evidence that men's participation may be growing in some areas of domestic work (Bond et al., 1998), the great majority of childcare is still performed by women (Baxter, 1997; Scott, 2001). Given that women assume greater responsibility for caring for their children, their parental strain is likely to be greater than that of men, and that this strain may have a stronger effect on women's home interference with work or work interference with home than it would on men's experience of interference.

Hypothesis 10: Gender will moderate the relationship between parental strain and home interference with work in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for women than for men, and gender will moderate the relationship between parental strain and work interference with home in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

Gender x Family role expectations. The way in which individuals are perceived and evaluated is strongly affected by expectations about the roles they assume in various contexts (Deaux & LaFrance, 1998). According to social role theory, the gender-based division of labour in society promotes an expectation that men will be primarily responsible for supporting the family financially by engaging in paid employment, while women will be primarily responsible for household tasks and caring for children (Eagly, 1987).

Due to the normative nature of gender roles, an individual whose behaviour is inconsistent with others' gender role expectations is often subject to negative judgments from others (Mueller & Yoder, 1997). Interference between work and family is held to be strongest when there are penalties, such as negative judgments, for non-compliance with role expectations in either domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Despite their increasing participation in the labour force, women remain primarily responsible for the home domain, continuing to perform the majority of household and caregiving tasks (Ferree, 1991; Hundley, 2001). Because of these responsibilities, and due to conventional gender roles holding women accountable for the home domain, women have traditionally been subject to stronger social sanctions than men for non-compliance with family demands (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The impact of family role expectations upon home interference with work and work interference with home may therefore be greater for women.

Hypothesis 11: Gender will moderate the relationship between family role expectations and home interference with work in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for women than for men, and gender will moderate the relationship between family role expectations and work

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interference with home in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

Gender x Work role expectations. Because men are subject to social expectations that they take on a "breadwinner" role that involves paid employment but little participation in family life, they have traditionally experienced stronger penalties than women for their efforts to accommodate family responsibilities, and for their failure to comply with work-role demands.

Men are often reluctant to use organization-sponsored work-family programs because they are "afraid of retribution from their employers if they deviate from the traditional male norm" (Powell, 1997: 172). Research by Allen and Russell (1999) found that men who took a parental leave of absence were less likely to be recommended for organizational rewards than were men who did not take a leave. In a laboratory experiment conducted by Butler and Skattebo in 2000, men who reported missing work to care for a sick child were given lower performance ratings and lower recommendations for quarterly bonuses than were women reporting the same degree of home interference with work. Work role expectations may therefore wield greater influence over home interference with work and work interference with home for men than for women.

> Hypothesis 12: Gender will moderate the relationship between work role expectations and home interference with work in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for men than for women, and gender will moderate the relationship between work role expectations and work interference with home in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for men than for women.

Thus far, this chapter has discussed work interference with home and home interference with work primarily as dependent variables – outcomes of work and family domain predictors. As discussed in Chapter 2, however, each direction of interference also predicts the other; work interference with home is considered a key antecedent of home interference with work, and home interference with work is known to predict work interference with home. As with parental strain, family role

expectations, and work role expectations, gender may moderate the effect of one direction of interference (e.g., home interference with work) on the other (e.g., work interference with home).

Gender x Work-home interference. In the majority of studies reporting gender differences in levels of work-home interference, women have been found to have higher levels of interference (Buffardi et al., 1999; Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). As such, it is feasible that work interference with home may play a greater role in predicting home interference with work for women than for men. If a woman's work demands interfere with her responsibilities at home to a greater degree than is the case for a man, it stands to reason that her unfulfilled home responsibilities will be more numerous. These unfulfilled home responsibilities are therefore likely to spill over into the work domain and interfere with the completion of her job-related tasks to a greater extent than would be the case for her male counterpart. Equally, home interference with work may also have a greater impact on work interference with home for women than for men, for similar reasons.

> Hypothesis 13: Gender will moderate the relationship between home interference with work and work interference with home in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

> Hypothesis 14: Gender will moderate the relationship between work interference with home and home interference with work in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

4.5 Method

4.5.1 Measures

Dependent variables

Home interference with work. Home interference with work was measured using five items, four of which were developed by Burley (1989, cited in Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991) and one of which was developed by Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981). At

the time of survey development, no comprehensive, bi-directional scales of work-home interference were available. Items from two separate scales were therefore combined in order to adequately capture both time-based interference and strain-based interference. Items assessed the extent to which respondents experienced both time- and strain-based interference from the family to the work domain (e.g., "My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work"; "I'm often tired at work because of the things I have to do at home"). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with such statements on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 5 for each question.

Work interference with home. Work interference with home was measured using six items, four from a scale developed by Kopelman et al. (1983), and two from a scale developed by Bohen and Viveros-Long (1981). Again, items from separate scales were combined in order to capture both time-based and strain-based interference. Items assessed the extent to which respondents experienced both time- and strain-based interference from the work to the family domain (e.g., "My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends"; "After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do"). The same five-point response scale was used.

Independent variables

Gender. Gender was assessed by means of a dummy variable, coded 0 for male and 1 for female.

Family role expectations. Family role expectations were measured using a four-item scale developed by Cooke and Rousseau (1984). Items assessed the degree to which respondents agreed that their friends and families expected them to prioritize family over work (e.g., "My family and/or friends expect that any person with family responsibilities such as mine should take on all family-related duties and responsibilities, even though these activities may interfere with their job."). A five-point response scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 5 was used.

Parental strain was measured using two items developed by Pearlin and Schooler (1978). Items assessed the degree to which children's behaviour was a source of concern to respondents (e.g., "Aspects of my child(ren)'s behaviour are a frequent source of concern to me."). The same five-point Likert response scale described above was used.

Control over childcare was measured using a six-item scale developed by Thomas and Ganster (1995), assessing the degree of choice respondents had in relation to the quality, cost and scheduling of childcare arrangements (e.g., "How much choice do you have over the amount you pay for dependent care, in terms of sliding fee scales or availability of more than one affordable daycare option?"). Participants were asked to indicate the amount of choice available to them in relation to each item using a five-point scale ranging from "hardly any" = 1 to "a lot" = 5.

Work role expectations were measured using a four-item scale developed by Cooke and Rousseau (1984). Items assessed the degree to which respondents agreed that their colleagues and supervisors expected them to prioritize work over family (e.g., "My co-workers and/or superiors expect that any person doing a job such as mine should finish job-related tasks by staying overtime or bringing work home, even if they are not paid extra to do so."). Respondents answered each item using a five-point response scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 5.

Control over work hours was measured using an eight-item scale developed by Thomas and Ganster (1995), assessing the degree of choice respondents had in relation to the scheduling of work activities (e.g., "How much control do you have over when you can take a few hours off work for home or family purposes?"). Participants were asked to indicate the amount of choice available to them in relation to each item using a five-point scale ranging from "hardly any" = 1 to "a lot" = 5.

Supervisor support was measured using a nine-item scale developed by Shinn et al. (1989). The scale items assess the degree to which respondents' supervisors had displayed emotional and practical expressions of support (e.g., "My supervisor generally listens to my problems"). Respondents answered each item using a five-point response scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 5.

4.5.2 Analysis

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the impact of family domain variables, home interference with work, and gender in predicting work interference with home. To test Hypotheses 1 to 5, work domain variables were entered in step 1 of the equation, followed by home domain variables in step 2. Entering the home domain variables in this subsequent step enabled examination of the incremental effects of the home domain predictors beyond the effects of the work domain predictors on variance in work interference with home. In the third step, home interference with work was entered.

The same process was used to test the impact of work domain variables and work interference with home in predicting home interference with work. To test Hypotheses 6 to 9, family domain variables were entered in step 1 of the equation, followed by work domain variables in step 2. This allowed the incremental effects of the work domain predictors – beyond the effects of the family domain predictors of variance in home interference with work – to be examined. In the third step, work interference with home was entered.

To test Hypotheses 10 to 14, the interaction terms were entered in the final fourth step, permitting the significance of the interactions to be determined after controlling for the main effects of the independent variables. The predictor variables were centred before forming interaction terms, in order to reduce the multicollinearity often associated with regression equations containing interaction terms (Aiken and West, 1991). Changes in R^2 were used to evaluate the ability of the interaction terms to explain variance beyond that accounted for by the main effects in the equation.

Significant interactions were probed using procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991). The regression equation was restructured to represent the regression of work-home interference on the independent variables for the two different genders. Two separate regression equations were calculated, one for men and one for women. T-tests were then performed on simple slopes of the equations to determine if they differed from zero.

One of the aims of this chapter was to investigate whether opposite-domain predictors have a direct effect on work-home interference, or whether the effect is mediated through the same-domain form of interference (work interference with home for work domain variables; home interference with work for family domain variables). To test for mediation, the procedure recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used. In this procedure, three regression models are investigated. First, the mediator (home interference with work/work interference with home) is regressed on the independent variables (family domain/work domain variables); second, the dependent variable (work interference with home/home interference with work) is regressed on the independent variables (family domain/work domain variables); and third, the dependent variable (work interference with home/home interference with work) is regressed simultaneously on the independent (family domain/work domain variables) and mediator (home interference with work/work interference with home) variables.

Mediation is present if the following conditions hold true: the independent variable affects the mediator in the first equation; the independent variable affects the dependent variable in the second equation; and the mediator affects the dependent variable in the third equation. The effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second. Full mediation occurs if the independent variable has no significant effect when the mediator is in the equation, and partial mediation occurs if the effect of the independent variable is smaller but significant when the mediator is in the equation.

4.6 Results

4.6.1 Factor analysis

Principal axis analysis with varimax rotation revealed that the items for the two work-home interference scales loaded on separate factors, supporting the conceptualization of work-home interference as bi-directional. All items had factor loadings above .40 and were therefore retained. Factor loadings for the work-home interference scales are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Complete factor loading matrix for Work-home interference scales

Item	Factor	
	1	2
On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.	**.80**	.06
I feel emotionally drained when I come home from work.	**.75**	.20
My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family and/or friends.	**.71**	.10
My family and/or friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.	**.70**	.05
After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	**.64**	.19
My time off from work does not match my family members' schedules well.	**.53**	.18
I feel that my personal demands are so great that they interfere with my work.	.18	**.78**
By the time I get to the office, I feel emotionally drained.	.23	**.75**
My superiors and/or peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.	.05	**.66**
I'm often tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.	.20	**.62**
My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.	.03	**.62**
Eigenvalue	4.27	2.21
Percent of variance explained	38.79	20.05
Total percent variance explained	58.84%	

Factor loading matrices for the other scales used in this chapter are contained in Appendix C.

Two items were dropped from the Family role expectations scale following factor analysis. One ("My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should view family as the most important part of their life") loaded highly on more than one factor, and the other ("My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should take on all family-related duties and responsibilities, even though these activities may interfere with their job") loaded onto the same factor as the parental strain items.

Principal axis analysis revealed that two items from the Control over work hours scale loaded on different factors from the remainder of the items. These two items ("To what extent are you expected to limit the number of times you make or receive

personal phone calls while you work?" and "If you work full-time, how much choice do you think you would have in arranging part-time employment?") were therefore dropped.

Principal axis analysis also demonstrated that items from the Supervisor support scale dealing predominantly with work-home related emotional support (e.g., "My supervisor has shown resentment of my needs as a working parent") loaded onto a separate factor from items concerning instrumental demonstrations of support (e.g., "My supervisor has shared ideas or advice with me"; "My supervisor has juggled tasks or duties to accommodate my responsibilities at home"). The three attitudinally-based items were therefore combined to create an "Emotional support" subscale, while the remaining six items formed the "Instrumental support" subscale.

4.6.2 Descriptive statistics

The means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliability alphas for each of the study variables are shown in Tables 4.2 and 4.3. Table 4.2 shows that there are gender differences in family and work domain variables; specifically, men reported working an average of nearly 41 hours per week, while women worked just over 31 hours ($t = 8.56$, $p < .001$), and men experienced significantly higher levels of work role expectations than did women ($t = 3.09$, $p < .01$). Surprisingly, men also reported significantly higher levels of family role expectations than did the women in this study ($t = 2.56$, $p < .05$). There was no significant difference between men and women's average levels of home interference with work or work interference with home.

Table 4.2: Means, Standard Deviations, and T-tests

Scale	Men (n=91)		Women (n=117)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t(206)
Home interference with work	2.22	0.66	2.32	0.68	-1.13
Work interference with home	3.31	0.83	3.10	0.98	1.61
Number of young children	2.13	1.02	1.69	0.71	3.65***
Number of adult dependents	0.23	0.58	0.20	0.53	0.44
Hours worked weekly	41.02	6.92	31.05	9.85	8.56***
Family role expectations	3.13	0.81	2.81	0.95	2.56*
Control over childcare	2.97	1.10	2.68	1.11	1.65
Parental strain	3.09	1.06	2.90	1.11	1.26
Work role expectations	2.96	0.92	2.55	0.97	3.09**
Control over work hours	3.45	0.96	3.42	0.97	0.24
Supervisor support – emotional	4.12	0.66	4.03	0.92	0.82
Supervisor support – instrumental	3.19	0.83	3.32	0.89	-1.12

Note. $N = 208$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 4.3: Intercorrelations among work-home interference, family domain and work domain variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Home interference with work	(.82)												
2. Work interference with home	.34***	(.85)											
3. Gender	.08	-.12	-										
4. No. of young children	-.02	.02	-.20**	-									
5. No. of adult dependents	.06	.07	-.02	-.06	-								
6. Hours worked weekly	-.13*	.39***	-.50***	.09	.07	-							
7. Family role expectations	.29***	.28***	-.19**	.05	.01	.02	(.82)						
8. Control over childcare	-.23**	-.36***	-.13	.16*	-.09	.03	-.13	(.90)					
9. Parental strain	.34***	.34***	-.09	-.01	.07	.15*	.32***	-.20**	(.67)				
10. Work role expectations	.19**	.49***	-.25***	.03	.02	.26***	.32***	-.20**	.22***	(.89)			
11. Control over work hours	-.24***	-.39***	-.01	.08	-.05	-.06	-.25***	.42***	-.17*	-.34***	(.79)		
12. Supervisor support (emotional)	-.19**	-.30***	.01	-.04	.03	-.01	-.23***	.16*	-.18**	-.42***	.45***	(.73)	
13. Supervisor support (instrumental)	.09	-.14*	.11	-.04	-.05	-.10	-.05	.14	-.02	-.20**	.38***	.35***	(.86)

Note. $N = 208$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. The main diagonal contains Cronbach's internal consistency reliability estimates.

4.6.3 Main effects

The results of the hierarchical regression analyses are presented in Table 4.4. Hypotheses 1 through 5 were not supported. Work interference with home was not directly predicted by the number of young children living in the household, the number of adult dependents, parental strain, family role expectations, or control over childcare.

Hypotheses 6 through 9 received limited support, with work domain variables directly predicting home interference with work only at the $p < .10$ level. For Hypothesis 6, hours worked weekly predicted home interference with work at the $p < .10$ level ($\beta = -.16$), but in the opposite direction of that predicted, with increased hours predicting decreased home interference with work. Neither work role expectations nor control over work hours were significant predictors of home interference with work, disconfirming Hypotheses 7 and 8. Hypothesis 9 was largely unsupported; emotional and instrumental supervisor support predicted home interference with work only at the $p < .10$ level ($\beta = -.17$ for emotional support, and $\beta = .14$ for instrumental support). The relationship between instrumental supervisor support and home interference with work was in the opposite direction from that predicted, with increased support predicting increased interference.

4.6.4 Moderating effects

Of the eight hypotheses predicting significant interactions between gender and work and family domain variables, only two were supported by the results of the regression analyses. Simple slopes and t-tests for significant interactions are featured in Table 4.5.

Hypothesis 10 was partially supported. While gender had no impact on the relationship between parental strain and work interference with home, a significant interaction was found between gender and parental strain in predicting home interference with work ($\beta = -.19, p < .05$). The relationship was, however, in the opposite direction to that predicted, being stronger for men than for women.

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Table 4.4: Hierarchical regression results predicting Work-home interference

Dependent variable: Home interference with work   Dependent variable: Work interference with home

Independent variable	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Independent variable	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Gender	.11	.03	.00	.02	Gender	$.14^{\dagger}$	$.16^{\dagger}$	$.15^{\dagger}$	$.15^{\dagger}$
Number of young children	-.02	-.03	-.04	-.02	Hours worked weekly	**.32*****	**.32*****	**.33*****	**.33*****
Number of adult dependents	.13	$.14^{\dagger}$	.13	**.16***	Work role expectations (WRE)	**.33*****	**.27*****	**.26****	**.26****
Family role expectations (FRE)	**.18***	$.15^{\dagger}$	.13	.10	Control over work hours	**-.32*****	**-.24****	**-.23****	**-.24****
Control over childcare	-.13	-.11	-.08	-.12	Supervisor support (emotional)	-.0	-.02	.01	.01
Parental strain (PS)	**.28*****	**.23****	**.21***	**.24****	Supervisor support (instrumental)	.10	.09	.06	.07
Hours worked weekly		-.13	**-.19***	$-.16^{\dagger}$					
Work role expectations (WRE)		.10	.04	.02	Number of young children		.06	.06	.07
Control over work hours		-.01	.02	.04	Number of adult dependents		.09	.07	.06
Supervisor support (emotional)		-.14	-.14	$-.17^{\dagger}$	Family role expectations (FRE)		.06	.04	.05
Supervisor support (instrumental)		**.18***	**.16***	$.14^{\dagger}$	Control over childcare		**-.15***	$-.13^{\dagger}$	-.13
					Parental strain (PS)		.10	.06	.06
Work interference with home (WIH)			**.19***	**.18***	Home interference with work (HIW)			**.16***	**.16***
Gender x PS				**-.19***	Gender x PS				.02
Gender x FRE				.10	Gender x FRE				-.05
Gender x WRE				**-.18***	Gender x WRE				-.01
Gender x WIH				.12	Gender x HIW				.04
F	6.65***	4.88***	4.94***	4.46***	**F**	13.72***	8.94***	8.76***	6.45***
$\triangle$**F**	6.65***	4.42*	2.36*	$2.40^{\dagger}$	$\triangle$**F**	13.72***	2.39*	4.27*	0.17
$\triangle$**R^2**	.22***	.06*	.02*	$.05^{\dagger}$	$\triangle$**R^2**	.37***	.05*	.02*	.00
Adjusted R^2	.19***	.23***	.26***	.28***	**Adjusted R^2**	.35***	.38***	.39***	.38***

Note. $N = 208$. $^{\dagger} p < .10$. $* p < .05$. $** p < .01$. $*** p < .001$.

Table 4.5: Tests of Simple Slopes of Regression for Interactions between Gender and Family and Work Domain Variables

Gender × Parental strain in Predicting Home interference with work

Gender	Simple Slope	SE	t(205)
Male	.42	.08	4.60***
Female	.29	.08	3.23**

Gender × Work role expectations in Predicting Home interference with work

Gender	Simple Slope	SE	t(205)
Male	.26	.10	2.73**
Female	.21	.09	2.47*

Gender did not moderate the relationship between family role expectations and either home interference with work or work interference with home, disconfirming Hypothesis 11. While gender also had no impact on the relationship between work role expectations and work interference with home, the interaction between gender and work role expectations was a significant predictor of home interference with work ($\beta = -.18, p < .05$), providing partial support for Hypothesis 12. Contrary to Hypothesis 13, no significant interaction was found between gender and work interference with home in predicting home interference with work. Gender did not interact with home interference with work to predict work interference with home, providing no support for Hypothesis 14.

As shown in Table 4.4, when work domain variables were entered in a subsequent step to the family domain variables and work interference with home, the incremental variance explained in home interference with work was significantly increased ($\triangle R^2 = .06, p < .05$). This suggests that work domain variables (primarily hours worked weekly and supervisor support) are capable of predicting home interference with work directly, rather than only indirectly via work interference with home. In contrast, when family domain variables were entered in a subsequent step to the work domain variables and home interference with work, the increase in incremental variance explained in work interference with home was insignificant ($\triangle R^2 = .03$). According

to these results, family domain variables do not have independent predictive power over work interference with home.

4.6.5 Mediating effects

The results of the mediation analyses are presented in Table 4.4. The first condition of Baron and Kenny's (1986) test for mediation was met; work domain variables were significantly related to work interference with home ($\beta = .30, p < .001$ for hours worked weekly, $\beta = .33, p < .001$ for work role expectations, and $\beta = -.29, p < .001$ for control over work hours), and family domain variables were significantly related to home interference with work ($\beta = .18, p < .05$ for family role expectations, and $\beta = .28, p < .001$ for parental strain).

The second condition requires that family domain variables be significantly related to work interference with home, and that work domain variables be significantly related to home interference with work. As Table 4.4 shows, one family domain variable – control over childcare – was significantly related to work interference with home ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$), and one work domain variable – instrumental supervisor support – was significantly related to home interference with work ($\beta = .18, p < .05$).

The third condition stipulates that home interference with work must affect work interference with home, and that when home interference with work and family domain variables are entered together in the equation, the effect of the family domain variables must be less when home interference with work is in the equation than when it is not. Similarly, work interference with home must affect home interference with work, and when work interference with home and work domain variables are entered together in the equation, the effect of the work domain variables must be less when work interference with home is in the equation than when it is not.

The results suggest that home interference with work mediates the effect of control over childcare on work interference with home. The beta coefficient of control over childcare became non-significant when home interference with work was entered into the equation ($\beta = -.14, p < .10$). No mediation effects were in evidence for the relationship between work domain variables and home interference with work.

4.7 Discussion

The purpose of this chapter was twofold. The first objective was to investigate the effects of opposite-domain variables on home interference with work and work interference with home. The second goal was to examine hitherto unexplored differences between men and women in the predictors of home interference with work and work interference with home.

4.7.1 Home interference with work

Same-domain predictors, i.e., variables originating in the family domain, explained the preponderance of variance in home interference with work. The number of adult dependents for which respondents had caregiving responsibilities, as well as the degree of parental strain they experienced, emerged as significant predictors of home interference with work. Dependent care responsibilities have long been established as contributors to home interference with work (Higgins et al., 1992; Williams & Alliger, 1994), providing as they do increased opportunities for family responsibilities to spill over from home to work. Augmenting those responsibilities, through an increase in the number of adult dependents requiring care, or through the misbehaviour of children demanding extra attention and involvement, serves to intensify the amount to which family is perceived to interfere with work.

Nevertheless, the findings do indicate that opposite-domain predictors play an important part in contributing to home interference with work. Work domain variables explained significant additional variance in home interference with work beyond the effects of family domain variables, and were not mediated by work interference with home as is generally assumed in the literature. These results suggest that work demands made by organizations may have more influence over the degree to which their employees' personal or family lives interfere with their work than has previously been assumed. In combination with the fact that work-home research consistently finds employees reporting more work interference with home than home interference with work (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Gutek et al., 1991; Matsui et al., 1995), these results indicate that the majority of work-home interference - and the stress, lost

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productivity, and other negative repercussions of such interference - is attributable to organizational factors. In particular, expectations for employees to work long hours and a lack of compassion and understanding from supervisors appears to increase the extent to which employees find their family lives interfering with the performance of their job. This raises implications for organizations with regard to their responsibility in providing assistance with work-home interference, which will be discussed in Chapter 9.

Of the work domain variables under investigation, hours worked weekly and supervisor support emerged as the strongest contributors to home interference with work. As predicted, sympathy and encouragement offered by supervisors was related to lower levels of home interference with work, presumably by diminishing emotional strain. The relationship between instrumental support and home interference with work, however, was in the opposite direction from that predicted. The more instrumental work-home support provided by respondents' supervisors, the more home interference with work those respondents reported. While this finding seems counter-intuitive, the rationale behind it is likely rooted in direction of causality. Employees experiencing high levels of home interference with work may simply elicit more supportive behaviours from their supervisors than do employees without discernible concerns regarding the interference with work of family or personal responsibilities.

The more hours respondents spent in work activities, the less home interference with work they reported. This finding runs counter to the argument that more time in the work domain necessarily results in less time spent in the home domain, thus creating increased opportunities for family responsibilities to intrude upon the workplace. A possible explanation may lie in traditional gender role expectations. As can be seen in Table 4.3, there is a strong association between hours worked weekly and gender. The men participating in this study reported an average working week of nearly ten hours longer than that of the female respondents. If men's primary domain is traditionally seen to be that of work, and if their traditional role as "breadwinner" is seen as providing for the upkeep of the family unit, then those working the longest hours may also have partners fulfilling traditional gender roles by assuming primary responsibility for the home and ensuring family demands do not intrude upon the

"breadwinner"'s work responsibilities. Post hoc analyses revealed a significant inverse correlation between respondents' work hours and their partners' incomes, suggesting that the partners of long-hours respondents either do not work outside the home, or are employed in low-level or reduced-hours jobs.

4.7.2 Work interference with home

Opposite-domain predictors did not play a key role in predicting levels of work interference with home. Control over childcare, the only family domain variable to show predictive ability for work interference with home, was fully mediated by home interference with work. Antecedents of this direction of conflict appear to be consistent with the standard conceptualization of work interference with home as resulting largely from work-related, as opposed to home-related, factors.

Consistent with previous research, key work-related predictors of work interference with home were shown to be the number of hours respondents worked weekly, the expectations held of respondents by others with regard to their role as an employee, and the amount of autonomy wielded by respondents over their work schedules. The number of hours spent in work activities contributes to employees' work interference with home by reducing the amount of time available to them for fulfilling responsibilities associated with the home domain. Correspondingly, expectations from colleagues and superiors to prioritize the work role and take on additional job-related responsibilities create time pressures for employees that hinder their efforts to meet home-related demands. Previous research has demonstrated this effect for non-directional measures of work-home interference (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Higgins et al., 1992), but the current findings indicate that work role expectations have a direct effect on work interference with home rather than home interference with work.

Similarly, existing research has associated autonomy over work hours with generalized work-home interference (Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Tausig & Fenwick, 2001), but the present study suggests that respondents who enjoyed a relatively high degree of control over their work hours are less likely to experience high levels of work interference with home, while levels of home interference with work are unaffected. Having the freedom to adjust one's work schedule in order to

accommodate demands from the home domain does not appear to lend itself to decreased perceptions of one's personal or family life interfering with work, by reducing or eliminating the work-related consequences of dealing with family demands during working time. Rather, this capability to revise one's schedule as the occasion demands appears to enable respondents to ensure that work activities do not interrupt or prevent the completion of personal or family activities.

4.7.3 Gender differences

The findings of this chapter indicate that there are some gender-based differences in how both family domain and work domain variables affect home interference with work. Both parental strain and work role expectations interacted with gender to predict levels of home interference with work; the relationships between these two variables and home interference with work were stronger for men than for women. This finding for work role expectations falls in line with Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) reasoning that interference between work and home domains is highest when negative sanctions exist for failure to comply with role expectations. Having traditionally experienced stronger sanctions than women for non-compliance with work role demands, the relationship between work role expectations and interference would be expected to be stronger for men. Duxbury and Higgins (1991) obtained a similar result using a non-directional measure of work-home interference, but it has now become evident that work role expectations have a direct influence on home interference with work. Interruptions from the home domain may assume more salience for the individual who perceives expectations from his co-workers and supervisors to prioritize the work role above all others. In this study, men experienced significantly higher levels of work role expectations than did women, which may also have played a part in strengthening the relationship between expectations and interference; according to Duxbury and Higgins (1991), men may have difficulty balancing work and family demands due to greater organizational expectations that men will subordinate their family needs to the job.

The discovery that parental strain was a stronger predictor of home interference with work for men than for women is a particularly interesting finding. Given women's greater role in caregiving (Kluwer, Heesink, & Van de Vliert, 1996), the opposite

result could have been expected. Mean levels of parental strain were higher for men than for women, but not to a statistically significant degree. One explanation could lie in the changing patterns of men's family involvement. While women generally remain the primary caregivers for children, men are increasingly taking responsibility for care and becoming more involved (Levine & Pittinsky, 1997), especially as their wives or partners enter the workforce in ever-greater numbers. Being unaccustomed to this increased level of participation in family, perhaps men are apt to perceive parental strain as more salient than do women, who have borne the responsibility longer.

Gender did not play an important role in determining the effects of work and family domain variables on work interference with home. Family-related factors were not significant predictors of work interference with home for either men or women, and work-related factors appeared to affect both genders equally in the creation of work interference with home. Although the effect did not reach statistical significance, being female did appear to contribute towards higher levels of work interference with home. This is consistent with much of the existing research on gender differences in work-home interference, which has found women to be subject to greater amounts of interference between work and family. The higher levels of interference are, in all likelihood, attributable to the fact that women spend more total hours in work and family activities than do men (Duxbury et al., 1994).

The results of this chapter lend further support to the conceptualization of work interference with home and home interference with work as distinct constructs, with different antecedents. This has obvious implications for the identification of risk factors for work-home interference, as well as for efforts to prevent or resolve interference. For instance, the provision of information regarding local eldercare services may help to reduce the extent to which employees' family responsibilities interfere with the performance of their job tasks, but is unlikely to affect the degree to which employees report that their work interferes with their personal lives. Work role expectations appear to present the greatest risk for work-home interference, as the findings of this chapter indicate that, at least for men, they contribute to both directions of interference. The practical implications of these findings will be discussed further in Chapter 9.

4.8 Limitations

This chapter bears some limitations. Most noticeably, the cross-sectional design of the study does not allow for firm conclusions regarding causality. When investigating the effects of variables such as the presence and number of adult dependants, determining direction of causality is not problematic, but longitudinal research is necessary to address issues of directionality with regard to other variables such as parental strain or work role expectations.

In addition, more variance was explained in work interference with home than in home interference with work. Clearly, home interference with work is affected not only by the family and work domain variables taken into consideration in this study, but also by factors not yet fully understood. The importance of social support is well-documented in the stress and coping literature (e.g., Schnittinger & Bird, 1990). While measures of emotional and instrumental supervisor support were incorporated into this study, measures of available and wished-for support from friends, family, and workplace colleagues may have illuminated more of the variance in respondents' home interference with work.

4.9 Conclusion

The results of this chapter indicate that any relationship between family domain variables and work interference with home is as it has been traditionally assumed to be – indirect, taking place through the mediating process of home interference with work. However, work domain variables (primarily hours worked weekly and supervisor support) demonstrated a significant effect on home interference with work above and beyond the effects of family domain variables, and independent of work interference with home. This indicates that organizational work demands may have more influence over the degree to which employees' family lives interfere with their work than has previously been assumed, especially for men. The relationship between work role expectations and home interference with work was found to be significantly stronger for men than for women. Current norms still appear to require men to leave their family obligations at home (Wiley, 1991) and assign priority to the work domain, rendering more salient any family interruptions with work.

While organizational norms may still view men in the role of "breadwinner", the results of this chapter suggest that men's role at home is in a state of flux. The finding that parental strain plays a stronger part in contributing to men's home interference with work than women's suggests that men's growing participation in the home domain (Levine & Pittinsky, 1997) may be increasing their sensitivity to family-based antecedents of interference.

Consistent with the preponderance of work-home research, this chapter has explored the role of situational characteristics in predicting interference between work and home. Recent research, however, has begun to explore the relationship between personality and work-home interference, suggesting that certain dispositional characteristics such as Type A and negative affectivity may contribute to elevated experiences of interference (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Carlson, 1999). In the following chapter, various dispositional variables will be considered as potential antecedents to interference between the domains of work and home, and their ability to explain variance in interference beyond that accounted for by situational variables will be explored.

Chapter 5 – Dispositional and Situational Antecedents of Work-Home Interference

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5.3   Situational antecedents

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      5.5.3   Dispositional predictors of work-home interference
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5.6   Discussion

      5.6.1   Dispositional antecedents
      5.6.2   Situational antecedents

5.7   Limitations

5.8   Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, various situational determinants of work-home interference were explored. This chapter proposes to build on those findings by examining the effect of dispositional characteristics on the experience of interference between work and home.

Researchers have argued in favour of dispositional explanations for a number of work-related attitudes and behaviour, including job satisfaction (Arvey, Carter, & Buerkley, 1991; Chiu & Kosinski, 1999; Judge, Heller, and Mount, 2002), work motivation (Judge & Ilies, 2002), and organizational citizenship behaviour (Borman, Penner, Allen & Motowidlo, 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Self-esteem and generalized self-efficacy have been found to predict employee perceptions of intrinsic job attributes (i.e., autonomy, task identity, skill variety, task significance, and task feedback) (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998), and personality has also been shown to predict work stress (Chiu & Kosinski, 1999) and absenteeism (Furnham & Miller, 1997).

Meta-analysis by Barrick, Mount, and Judge (2001) has revealed positive effects of conscientiousness and emotional stability on job performance, and individuals high in extraversion and openness to experience have been rated as more effective leaders (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). A 1999 study by Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, and Barrick demonstrated that higher levels of conscientiousness, emotional stability, and extraversion among employees were linked to higher income and occupational status, while agreeableness was negatively related to income and occupational status. Negative affectivity has been associated with lower levels of organizational commitment and higher turnover intentions, while positive affectivity has been linked with higher organizational commitment and lower turnover intentions (Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993).

Despite evidence that personality has a significant impact on employee outcomes, research into dispositional antecedents of work-home interference is still in its infancy. However, early results are encouraging. As outlined in Chapter 2, individuals

high in job-related self-efficacy have been found to report lower levels of non-directional interference (Erdwins et al., 2001), while those high in both enthusiastic and non-enthusiastic workaholism report higher levels of work-home interference (Bonebright et al., 2000). Positive relationships have been found between negative affectivity and both work interference with home, and home interference with work (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Carlson, 1999; Stoeva et al., 2002).

Of the "Big Five" personality variables, agreeableness has been associated with lower levels of time-based, non-directional work-home interference (Bruck & Allen, 2003) and work interference with home (Wayne et al., 2004). Individuals scoring high on conscientiousness have been found to report less work interference with home and home interference with work (Bruck & Allen, 2003; Wayne et al., 2004), while those high in neuroticism have been shown to experience more of both directions of interference (Wayne et al., 2004).

Because the majority of work-home research examines situational antecedents to interference exclusively, there is an assumption amongst researchers that situational characteristics are more important than dispositional ones in explaining variance in interference. In addition, because a number of the studies investigating dispositional antecedents to work-home interference have not included situational variables (e.g., Bonebright et al., 2000; Bruck & Allen, 2003; Wayne et al., 2004), the relative merits of situational vs. dispositional variables in explaining variance in interference are unknown. This chapter seeks to address these issues and, in so doing, further our knowledge of how employee personality influences work-home interference. Dispositional and situational characteristics – perfectionism, self-efficacy, self-esteem, and work-home culture - will be described, and the potential relationship of each to work-home interference explained. Following empirical testing of these hypotheses, the impact on work-home interference of dispositional characteristics will be compared with that of situational variables and the implications discussed. An illustration of the proposed relationships among the study variables is presented in Figure 5.1.

As discussed in Chapter 3, the measure of work-home interference used in the present chapter and in the remainder of the thesis assesses not only the two different directions of interference, work interference with home and home interference with work, but also the three separate dimensions of interference: time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based. In contrast to the previous chapter, therefore, hypotheses for the present chapter will address all three dimensions of work-home interference, as well as its two directions.

Figure 5.1: Hypothesized model of relationships among dispositional, situational, and work-home interference variables
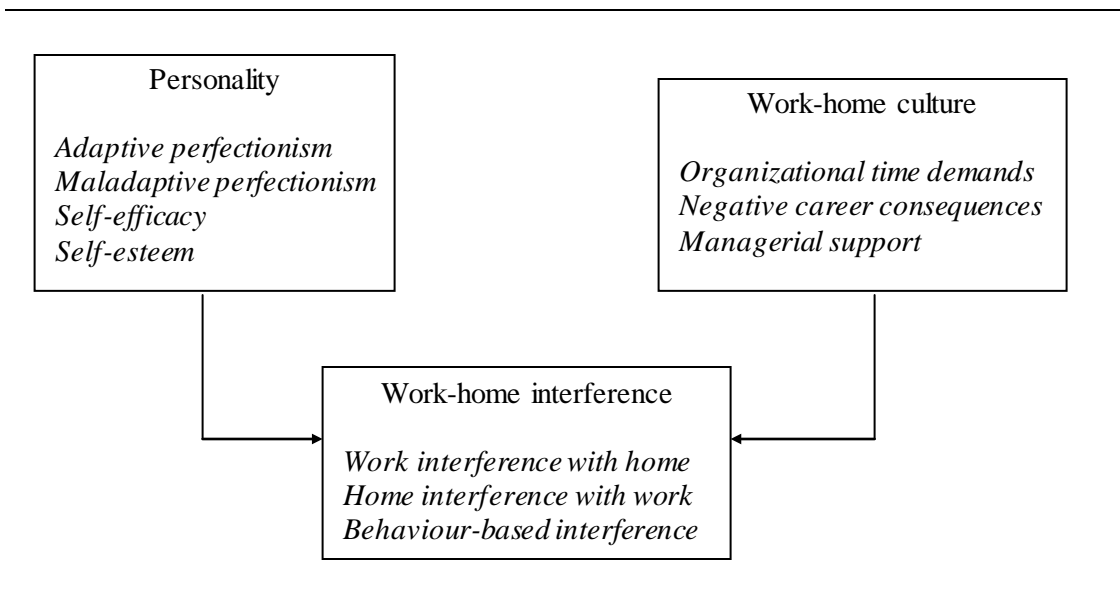
5.2 Dispositional antecedents

5.2.1 Perfectionism

Perfectionism has been defined as "an extreme or excessive striving for perfection, as in one's work" (Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary, 1988, p. 873). The term carries a negative connotation; it is generally assumed that having excessively high personal standards for performance or behaviour is problematic at best, and pathological at worst.

While perfectionism is usually described in the literature as a multifaceted construct, there has been disagreement as to the characterization of its various components. An assortment of subscales has been generated, such as Other-Oriented Perfectionism, Socially Prescribed Perfectionism (Hewitt & Flett, 1991), Parental Expectations, Parental Criticism, Concern Over Mistakes, Doubts About Actions (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990), Anxiety, Procrastination, and Relationship Difficulties (Slaney & Johnson, 1992). Recently, Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, and Ashby (2001) have pointed out that rather than measuring aspects of perfectionism, these subscales assess variables that cause, correlate with, or result from perfectionism. Qualitative research by Slaney and Ashby (1996), hierarchical structural analysis by Stumpf and Parker (2000), and scale development by Slaney et al. (2001) and Terry-Short, Owens, Slade and Dewey (1995) appear to indicate that on a global level, perfectionism is best construed as two largely independent dimensions distinguishing between positive and negative aspects of the construct. These have been termed healthy/unhealthy, functional/dysfunctional, and adaptive/maladaptive by various researchers.

Both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism are characterized by the setting of high personal standards for one's work or behaviour. The difference between the two lies in their response to a failure to achieve those standards. *Adaptive perfectionists* perceive a low level of distress resulting from the discrepancy between their personal standards and their performance. *Maladaptive perfectionists* perceive a high level of distress resulting from the discrepancy between their personal standards and their performance. Adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism do not appear to be opposite poles on a single continuum, but separate and largely independent factors (Slaney et al., 2001; Stumpf & Parker, 2000).

Adaptive perfectionism. There is solid support for the concept of adaptive perfectionism in the theoretical as well as the empirical literature. Hamachek (1978) described what he called "normal perfectionism" as the satisfaction of doing a difficult task well. Adler's (1956, cited in Stumpf & Parker, 2000) view was that striving for perfection can be healthy when it includes a social concern for others and a maximizing of one's potential. Spence and Helmreich (1983) subscribed to the same view, and emphasized the need to draw a distinction between individuals attempting

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to maximize their potential, and those concentrating on their standing relative to other people.

Adaptive perfectionists have been found to indicate significantly greater willingness to initiate behaviour, greater willingness to expend effort in completing the behaviour, more persistence in the face of adversity, and stronger belief in their ability to deal with others effectively (LoCicero & Ashby, 2000). High standards may therefore help to enhance performance in both work and non-work roles, and to assist the effective management of competing demands from work and home. Individuals high in adaptive perfectionism are apt to have high personal standards for achieving a low degree of interference among multiple roles. They would be more likely to instigate behaviours designed to facilitate this low degree of interference, to expend effort in their pursuit of low interference, and to demonstrate persistence when confronted with obstacles to achieving their aim. Equally, and significantly, individuals high in adaptive perfectionism are less likely to be deterred by disparities between their personal standards for work-home interference and their actual success in balancing multiple roles. Put simply, employees high in adaptive perfectionism seem more likely both to achieve low levels of interference between work and home (through their willingness for action, effort, and persistence), and to remain undiscouraged by occasions in which interference occurs. Both of these qualities are likely to contribute to lower levels of perceived time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based interference from work to home and from home to work.

High personal standards for performance of work and home roles, and for achievement of low levels of interference between the two, may contribute to employees' effective management of the time available to them. Time management may, in turn, explain the ability of adaptive perfectionism to contribute to time-based interference. An individual high in adaptive perfectionism, who expends effort to successfully fulfill both work and home responsibilities, may, for example, be less likely to permit the routine redistribution of time earmarked for spending with friends and family to the work domain. Similarly, he or she may also be less likely to tolerate continued instances of household responsibilities taking up time needed for the completion of job tasks, without taking steps to modify either the time required or the

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time available for such responsibilities. In this way, low levels of both time-based work interference with home and time-based home interference with work may be achieved.

Certain sources of role strain are unrelated to personal standards for performance. For example, an employee may become irritable because of an incompetent manager at work, or an individual may become anxious about the damage wrought by a flooded basement at home. In either case, strain will have arisen from external circumstances, and not from any disparity between desired and actual standards of personal performance. Other sources of role strain, however, may stem from the failure to achieve a desired standard of performance, e.g., missing a work deadline, or putting on weight during a diet. These sources of strain, which might otherwise spill over into another domain and thus create interference, may be reduced or eliminated by the ability of adaptive perfectionists to experience low levels of distress upon falling short of their personal standards for performance. Individuals who experience little distress over their failure to live up to their standards for performance may therefore be less likely to experience strain-based interference in either direction than individuals low in adaptive perfectionism, simply because there will be less strain present in any given domain to interfere with the other.

Because adaptive perfectionists are more likely to initiate behaviour to facilitate high-quality performance of work and home roles, they may be more likely to transfer successful problem-solving techniques from one domain to the other in an effort to maximize such performance. Individuals with high standards for achieving low levels of work-home interference may also apply more effort toward integrating work-oriented behaviours and home-oriented behaviours, to an extent where incompatibility between the two is not perceived to a significant degree. Lower perceptions of behaviour-based work interference with home and home interference with work may therefore be reported by adaptive perfectionists than by those individuals low in adaptive perfectionism, who do not have similarly high expectations of themselves.

Hypothesis 1: Adaptive perfectionism will be negatively related to time-, strain-, and behaviour-based work interference with home, and time-, strain-, and behaviour-based home interference with work.

Maladaptive perfectionism. In contrast to adaptive perfectionists, individuals high in maladaptive perfectionism are characterized by tendencies for overly critical evaluations of their own behaviour (Frost et al., 1990). They also frequently experience a vague sense of doubt about the quality of their performance, a sense that a job has not been satisfactorily completed (Burns, 1980). Numerous studies have linked this type of perfectionism to anxiety (e.g., Blatt, 1995; Flett, Hewitt, Endler, & Tassone, 1995; Frost, Heimberg, Holt, Mattia, & Neubauer, 1993), and it has been identified as a significant predictor of both subsequent depression and psychosomatic symptoms (Sumi & Kanda, 2002). Mitchelson and Burns (1998) found maladaptive perfectionism to be related to exhaustion at work, parental distress at home, and a decreased sense of overall satisfaction with life and satisfaction with self; they concluded that people scoring highly on maladaptive perfectionism are more negatively affected by life stressors than non-maladaptive perfectionists.

If maladaptive perfectionists set high personal standards for balancing work and home, and then evaluate themselves critically, they are more likely to perceive conflict between the two when such high standards are not always met. Experiencing doubt about the quality of their performance might also lend itself to negative evaluation of their ability to balance competing work and home demands, and to successfully integrate behaviours used at home and at work.

For a maladaptive perfectionist, the sense that a task has not been completed to his satisfaction may lend itself to the perception that he has insufficient time with which to perform his tasks properly. This could occur in either the work or the home domain, and in each case would lead to, respectively, time-based work interference with home or time-based home interference with work. Furthermore, a variable often associated with or considered to be an element of perfectionism is procrastination (Brownlow & Reasinger, 2000; Flett, Blankstein, Hewitt, & Koledin, 1992; Onwuegbuzie, 2000; Saddler & Sacks, 1993). Research has shown procrastination to be characteristic only

of perfectionist individuals whose perfectionism is of a maladaptive nature (Johnson & Slaney, 1996). It is therefore conceivable that procrastination may explain the relationship between maladaptive perfectionism and time-based interference; individuals high in maladaptive perfectionism may delay completing tasks to the point where there is little or insufficient time to do so, contributing to perceptions either of time-based work interference with home or time-based home interference with work, or possibly both.

According to the research, maladaptive perfectionists are more negatively affected by stressors than individuals scoring low on this construct. As a result of experiencing more strain than the rest of the population, maladaptive perfectionists are more likely to experience the spillover of that strain from the domain of origin to another area of life. If a maladaptive perfectionist experiences more than the standard amount of exhaustion at work, as demonstrated by the empirical results of Mitchelson and Burns (1998), it stands to reason that this individual will carry that exhaustion home with him or her at the end of the day and therefore suffer increased levels of strain-based work interference with home. Likewise, if individuals high in maladaptive perfectionism experience more parental distress, they are correspondingly more likely to be distracted, fatigued, or otherwise negatively affected by that distress while on the job. This would render them more susceptible to high levels of strain-based home interference with work.

Individuals who are hypersensitive to stressors and prone to critical self-evaluation may also experience higher levels of behaviour-based interference between work and home. For example, consider a scenario in which an employee habitually deals with work-based problems by assigning them to subordinates for resolution. Depending on the age and attitude of the employee's household members, this behaviour may meet with limited success when implemented at home. An employee high in maladaptive perfectionism is likely to evaluate harshly his inability to achieve personal standards for family problem-solving. He may conclude that the behaviours appropriate at work are ineffective at home, and do not help him to be a better parent or partner.

In contrast, an employee who does not set high personal standards and then experience great distress over failing to meet them may be less inclined to assess the

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situation in such a critical fashion. This employee would be less negatively affected by stressors in the environment, and would experience less distress over the abortive attempt to transfer problem-solving behaviours from one domain to another. He may evaluate the situation more positively, concluding that the experiment yielded valuable family discussion about problem resolution and was therefore partially successful, and not condemn all work-oriented behaviours as being inappropriate at home. This employee would therefore be less likely to report behaviour-based work interference with home than would his maladaptive perfectionist counterpart. A comparable scenario involving the transfer of home-oriented behaviours to the workplace would be likely to effect similar results for maladaptive perfectionists' experience of behaviour-based home interference with work.

> *Hypothesis 2*: Maladaptive perfectionism will be positively related to time-, strain-, and behaviour-based work interference with home, and time-, strain-, and behaviour-based home interference with work.

5.2.2 Self-efficacy

Research in self-efficacy has traditionally conceptualized it as a task-specific or state-like construct, concerning a narrowly focused area such as job performance or parenting skills (e.g., Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Johnston & Mash, 1989; Lee & Bobko, 1994). Wood and Bandura (1989) define self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (p. 408). In more recent years, however, researchers have become interested in "the more trait-like generality dimension of self-efficacy" (Chen et al., 2001, p. 63), also called general self-efficacy. General self-efficacy is described as a stable cognition that people hold and carry with them, reflecting the expectation that they possess the ability to successfully perform tasks in a variety of achievement situations (Riggs et al., 1994, cited in Gardner & Pierce, 1998), rather than a task-specific circumstance. It captures differences among individuals in their tendency to view themselves as capable of meeting task demands in a variety of contexts (Chen et al., 2001).

Bandura (1986) posited that an individual's level of self-efficacy can work to directly reduce perceptions of and reactions to strain. This proposition is supported by research from Matsui & Onglatco (1992), who found a significant negative relationship between self-efficacy and vocational strain, and Bandura (1997, pp. 262-279), who described correlational and experimental studies demonstrating that high self-efficacy mitigates psychological states such as stress by directly impacting sensitivity to stressors. Further support is provided by Judge et al. (1998), who found that core self-evaluations, primarily self-efficacy and self-esteem, influenced individuals' perceptions of work attributes such as autonomy and task significance. Individuals with positive self-concepts perceived more variety, challenge, control, and intrinsic worth in their work. Those with low core self-evaluations were more inclined to rate their job attributes negatively, and to report less job and life satisfaction as a result. This has obvious implications for the occurrence of strain-based interference between work and home, indicating that individuals with low self-efficacy are more sensitive to stressors and thus have an increased potential for both experiencing strain and perceiving its diffusion across domains, whether from work to home or vice versa.

Self-efficacy beliefs influence which stimuli people choose to pay attention to, whether people appraise the situations in which they find themselves as positive or negative, and whether they remember past situations as having been positive, neutral, or negative (Bandura, 1997). All of these have the potential to influence employee experiences of interference between work and home. For instance, placed in a context where full-time hours at work must be combined with caregiving responsibilities for children or elderly parents at home, two individuals with different levels of self-efficacy may perceive the situation in two different ways. An employee with high self-efficacy beliefs may focus on praise from co-workers or friends for his or her efforts to "have it all", i.e., enjoy a fulfilling family life as well as forging ahead in his or her career. This employee may perceive the balancing of work and home as an opportunity to derive satisfaction and personal development in both areas of life; he or she may welcome the opportunity to transfer effective problem-solving behaviours from one domain (e.g., work) to the other (e.g., home); and he or she may recall previous attempts to combine work and family tasks as having demonstrated his or her

capability to deal successfully with demands from both domains on his or her time and energy.

In contrast, an employee with low self-efficacy beliefs may also focus on co-worker praise, but interpret remarks from colleagues on attempts to "have it all" as veiled condemnation of his or her inability to give full commitment to the job. This employee may perceive the balancing of work and family as a continual and exhausting struggle to allocate limited time and energy to competing demands from work and home; he or she may construe behaviour in one domain (e.g., home) to be wholly inappropriate and ineffective in the other (e.g., work); and he or she may recall previous attempts to combine work and home tasks as having been stressful, unpleasant experiences that served to highlight the impossibility of maintaining involvement in dual roles. This employee would be more likely than his or her self-efficacious counterpart to report elevated levels of time-, strain-, and behaviour-based work interference with home and home interference with work.

It follows from this that the more capable an individual feels of being able to successfully handle the demands of work and home, the less interference between work and home he or she will experience. Support for this proposition was found by Erdwins et al. (2001), whose research demonstrated that high levels of task-specific self-efficacy pertaining to job skills predicted lower levels of conflict between work and family.

> *Hypothesis 3*: Self-efficacy will be negatively related to time-, strain-, and
> behaviour-based work interference with home, and time-, strain-, and
> behaviour-based home interference with work.

5.2.3 Self-esteem

Self-esteem has been described as "the overall affective evaluation of one's own worth, value, or importance" (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991, p. 115). It is widely assumed that self-esteem is trait-like, and that levels of self-esteem are therefore stable over time within individuals (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1990). Research has

linked low self-esteem with depression (Shaver & Brennan, 1990; Tennen & Herzberger, 1987), and high self-esteem with greater task effort and persistence (Felson, 1984; McFarlin, Baumeister, & Blascovich, 1984). High self-esteem has also been found to correlate with increased satisfaction with career, marriage, children, leisure, and friendships, as well as with a sense of being resolved (i.e., non-conflicted) about the competing demands of career and family (Kinnier, Katz, & Berry, 1991). This tendency towards making positive evaluations of one's contractual and social relationships suggests that individuals with high self-esteem will be less likely to report negative outcomes, such as increased levels of work-home interference.

Self-esteem theory suggests that an individual's sense of worth plays a key role in how individuals both perceive and react to environmental stressors. Firstly, self-esteem is considered to be a resource that buffers the individual against stress (Rosenberg, 1979). Individuals with high self-esteem may have a "reserve" of self-worth and confidence upon which they can draw in problematic situations. Those with high self-esteem may therefore express less concern about the lost time and energy that arises from the performance of multiple roles, because they know they can cope with such an experience (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). If self-esteem is a resource that buffers the individual against stress, it stands to reason that an individual with high self-esteem would experience less strain-based interference from one domain to another simply because he or she would experience less strain overall than would a colleague low in self-esteem.

Secondly, Brockner's (1983) plasticity hypothesis posits that individuals with low self-esteem are more influenced by the environment than those with high self-esteem. Because role stressors occur in the organizational and home environment, it is reasonable to assume on the basis of the plasticity hypothesis that individuals with low self-esteem would be more affected by these stressors than those with high self-esteem. Even when exposed to the same number of interruptions, a similar degree of conflicting schedules, or a comparable level of objective stressors, low self-esteem individuals might therefore report both more time-based and strain-based interference between work and home

While there is no obvious reason to expect self-esteem to affect levels of behaviour-based work-home interference, it is still worth investigating just because behaviour-based interference is so infrequently studied and therefore little understood. It is possible that people with a generalized sense of self-worth may hold similar attitudes and engage in similar behaviours across the work and home domains, because attitudes and behaviours in each domain are likely to be held of equivalent worth. An individual who is confident of his or her value in general, across multiple roles, may attach more value to his or her entire repertoire of behaviours and be less likely to doubt the effectiveness in one domain of behaviours deemed worthwhile in another. In contrast, a person with low generalized self-esteem, who doubts his or her worth in all areas of life, may perceive all his or her behaviours to be inadequate and therefore non-transferable across domains.

> *Hypothesis 4*: Self-esteem will be negatively related to time-, strain-, and behaviour-based work interference with home, and time-, strain-, and behaviour-based home interference with work.

5.3 Situational antecedents

5.3.1 Work-home culture

Work-home culture is defined as the shared assumptions, beliefs and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and personal lives (Thompson et al., 1999). This definition is consistent with existing conceptualizations of organizational culture as "the deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in values, beliefs, and assumptions held by organizational members" (Denison, 1996, p. 624).

Three distinct components of work-home culture can be identified in the literature: organizational time demands, or expectations that employees prioritize work over family or personal responsibilities; negative career consequences associated with devoting time to family or personal responsibilities; and managerial support and sensitivity to employees' family or personal responsibilities.

Organizational time demands. As discussed in Chapter 4, expectations on the part of the employing organization regarding time spent at work, and the prioritization of work over family or personal responsibilities, can influence both time- and strain-based work interference with home and home interference with work. In terms of work interference with home, organizational time demands can evoke pressures that dominate the time of the employee and interfere with the fulfillment of responsibilities at home (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984), creating time-based interference. Time demands can also generate role overload which, in turn, contributes to increased levels of work interference with home (Fu & Shaffer, 2001) based on the strain generated by having too much to do in the time available with which to do it. Even for employees who do not conform to organizational time demands, awareness of non-compliance with tacit organizational standards might act as a stressor contributing to strain-based work interference with home.

Regarding home interference with work, spending longer hours at work necessarily results in spending less time at home, and may also result in fewer opportunities to fulfil home-related responsibilities. These responsibilities may then build up and begin to "spill over" into the work domain, creating both time-based home interference with work and the potential for strain-based interference as a result of distress over unfulfilled responsibilities.

Longer hours spent in the work domain and less time spent in the home domain also entail engaging in more work-oriented behaviours than home-oriented behaviours. This discrepancy may render more challenging the exchange of work-appropriate behaviours for home-appropriate behaviours upon leaving the workplace, and thus increase perceptions of behaviour-based work interference with home. It is also conceivable that the demand for prioritizing work over home, and thus for prioritizing work-oriented behaviours over home-oriented ones, carries with it an implicit message that home-oriented behaviours are not valued by the organization. Employees may therefore perceive that the behaviours they use at home are not appropriate in the workplace, and report increased behaviour-based home interference with work.

Hypothesis 5: Organizational time demands will be positively related to time-, strain-, and behaviour-based work interference with home, and time-, strain-, and behaviour-based home interference with work.

Negative career consequences and Co-worker resentment. Because the amount of time spent at the workplace is often used as an indicator of an employee's contributions and commitment to the organization, devoting time to family or personal responsibilities in a way that renders employees less visible - such as working reduced hours, taking work home, or taking leaves of absence - can lead to lower performance evaluations, smaller wage increases, or fewer promotions (Bailyn, 1997; Judiesch & Lyness, 1999; Perlow, 1995). Another negative consequence of reducing one's visibility at the workplace for personal or family reasons is that of incurring resentment from co-workers. Employees whose colleagues have taken time away from the workplace may suffer an increased workload as a result of being required to cover their colleagues' duties, and have been found to report feeling pressure to remain at work themselves and fulfill the workgroup's responsibilities in the absence of their colleagues (Kodz, Harper, & Dench, 2002).

Perceiving that any overt efforts to balance work and home responsibilities often result in diminished prospects for career progression, and increased antipathy from colleagues, may serve as a source of job stress contributing to an employee's strain-based work interference with home. These perceptions may also induce employees to take less time away from work so as to avoid negative sanctions, and thus contribute to increased time-based work interference with home.

In addition, an employee's attempts to balance work and home responsibilities in a manner that does not involve any reduction in "face time" at the workplace may result in home responsibilities building up to a level where they engender higher levels of both time- and strain-based home interference with work, as work time dominates and flexibility is reduced. For example, an employee who does not wish to leave the workplace during the day in order to accompany an elderly parent to a medical appointment may spend an increased amount of time at work researching physicians

who offer after-hours appointments, or enlisting the aid of other family members or local community support services to escort the parent to and from the doctor's office and sit in on the appointment. While at work, the employee may also be preoccupied by the problem and worried about methods of resolving it, and his or her concentration on job tasks may suffer as a result.

A workplace culture that imposes career penalties on employees engaged in overt time-juggling efforts to manage competing work and home responsibilities, and that elicits co-worker condemnation of these efforts, in effect promotes the compartmentalization of work and home activities and the preference that one does not impinge upon the other. It may also encourage a clear partition of work and home behaviours. Employees balancing work and home demands who perceive resentment from other organizational members in response to their efforts may consequently also perceive that the behaviours they perform in one domain (e.g., being available for family members when needed, at home) are unwelcome and inappropriate in the other (e.g., making oneself available for family members when needed, at work). This may enhance their experience of behaviour-based home interference with work. Employees who seek to avoid negative sanctions by spending less time away from the workplace may also report increased behaviour-based work interference with home, as their work-oriented behaviours take precedence and are positively reinforced by the organization, possibly rendering them more difficult to set aside when at home.

> *Hypothesis 6*: Negative career consequences and Co-worker resentment will be positively related to time-, strain-, and behaviour-based work interference with home, and time-, strain-, and behaviour-based home interference with work.

Managerial support. Stress research has consistently identified social support as a significant resource assisting individuals to manage various life stressors (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986). Social support from an employee's immediate supervisor may lessen the employee's time-based work interference with home, by providing increased flexibility or control over the employee's work schedule and tasks, as well as his or her strain-based work interference with home, by providing compassion or

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instrumental aid with sources of stress. Attitudes of upper management that convey sympathy and understanding of work-life issues may also contribute to reduced time- and strain-based work interference with home, through the creation of an organizational climate in which line managers are encouraged to be considerate of employees' work-life concerns and helpful in resolving them. As discussed in Chapter 4, these types of supportive behaviours and attitudes may also directly influence employees' perceptions of time- and strain-based home interference with work. A manager who permits an employee to work from home, rather than taking a day's annual leave when s/he has a child home sick from school, may reduce time-based home interference with work by reducing the time pressures inherent in falling behind on one's work tasks. Similarly, a manager who offers a sympathetic word when the sale of an employee's home falls through may contribute to the reduction of strain-based home interference with work by lessening levels of emotional strain.

Managerial support of work-life issues might also lead to less behaviour-based work-home interference, by engendering a more adaptable workplace atmosphere that accommodates a wider range of behaviours. A non-supportive manager, for example, might promote competitive behaviour among employees and encourage them to focus solely on the task at hand, to maintain a businesslike demeanour at all times, and to be aggressive in terms of getting quick results. An employee who behaves this way at work, and who is then under obligation from friends or family members to transform himself into a patient, reassuring, sensitive, and emotionally expressive individual immediately upon walking through the door of his home, may perceive some conflict between the two disparate sets of behaviours he is required to perform. He may report increased behaviour-based work interference with home as a result.

Managers who, instead, support employees' efforts to balance work and home may be more inclined to condone or encourage a less rigid definition of acceptable workplace behaviours, such as making personal phone calls to check on children or elderly relatives, taking work home on days when repairs are scheduled and service technicians need to be let in, or even just venting to colleagues about frustrations in their personal lives. Supportive management that accommodates these types of behaviours may therefore contribute to lower levels of both behaviour-based home interference with work and work interference with home for employees.

Research indicates that the aspects of an organization's culture described above can contribute to the experience of interference between work and home. Employees who perceive that their superiors and colleagues expect them to prioritize their work over their family have been shown to experience more generalized work-home interference (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Higgins et al., 1992. An organizational climate favouring the prioritization of work over family and the sacrificing of family to work has been shown to increase levels of both work interference with home and home interference with work among employees (Kossek et al., 2001). Increased levels of work interference with home have also been reported by employees who perceive a link between spending time on home responsibilities and suffering negative career repercussions (Anderson et al., 2002; Thompson et al., 1999).

In contrast, the presence of supervisors who express support for employees attempting to balance work and home has consistently demonstrated a negative effect on employee levels of work-home interference (Erdwins et al., 2001; Friedman & Johnson, 1997; Lee & Duxbury, 1998; Thomas and Ganster, 1995). Employees who perceive their organization's culture to be supportive of them have reported lower levels of generalized work-home interference (Allen, 2001; Friedman & Johnson, 1997; Maume & Houston, 2001; Saltzstein et al., 2001), work interference with home (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999; Thompson et al., 1999), and home interference with work (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

> *Hypothesis 7*: Managerial support will be negatively related to time-, strain-, and behaviour-based work interference with home, and time-, strain-, and behaviour-based home interference with work.

<u>5.4 Method</u>

5.4.1 Measures

For all items in each of the scales used in this chapter, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with statements on a seven-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 7.

Dependent variables

Work-home interference. Work-home interference was measured with the 18 items from Carlson et al.'s (2000) multidimensional measure of work-family conflict. As discussed in Chapter 2, few studies have incorporated behaviour-based conflict in their analyses of the determinants and outcomes of work-life conflict. The scale developed by Carlson et al. (2000) is the only one to date that differentiates not only between the two directions of conflict - work to home, and home to work – but also amongst the three types of conflict - time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based – identified by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985). All items measuring work-home interference were modified in order to be applicable to respondents both with and without family responsibilities. For example, "The behaviours I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse" was modified to read, "The behaviours I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better partner, friend, or parent".

Independent variables

Perfectionism. Adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism were assessed using Slaney et al.'s (1996) revised Almost Perfect Scale, which was deemed the most appropriate measure available due to its inclusion of both adaptive and maladaptive aspects of perfectionism, and to its established validity and reliability. Fourteen items assessed the extent to which respondents perceived either a high or a low level of distress resulting from the discrepancy between their personal standards and their performance

(e.g., "I expect the best from myself"; "I hardly ever feel that what I've done is good enough").

Self-efficacy. General self-efficacy was measured with Chen et al.'s (2001) scale, which boasted the highest construct validity of available measures calculated to appraise generalized rather than task-specific efficacy. Eight items assessed the extent to which respondents perceived that they were able to successfully perform tasks in a variety of achievement situations (e.g., "In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me").

Self-esteem. Global self-esteem was measured using Rosenberg's (1965) scale, selected due to its omnipresence in the research literature. Ten items assessed respondents' perception of their overall worth (e.g., "I feel that I have a number of good qualities").

Work-home culture. Organizational work-home culture was measured using 15 items from Thompson et al.'s (1999) scale. This was the only existing operationalization of the construct to identify separate dimensions, i.e., managerial support, negative career consequences, and organizational time demands. Fifteen items assessed the extent to which respondents perceived that managers in their organization were understanding of work-life issues, that career progression in their organization was negatively affected by having personal or family responsibilities, and that job success in their organization was dependent upon sacrificing personal time for work (e.g., "In general, managers in this organization are quite accommodating of personal or family-related needs"; "Many employees are resentful when men in this organization take leave to care for newborn or adopted children"; "Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their personal lives or families").

5.4.2 Analysis

The hypotheses concerning the proposed relationships between both personality and work-home culture characteristics and work-home interference were tested using hierarchical multiple regression. Specifically, each type of work-home interference

was individually regressed on the measures of self-esteem, self-efficacy, need for order, adaptive perfectionism, maladaptive perfectionism, managerial support, co-worker resentment, and organizational time demands.

In each of the hierarchical regression equations, several background variables were included in the analyses for control purposes. The control variables included were hours worked weekly, presence of children aged 16 and under in the respondent's household (absent = 0/present = 1, dummy-coded), organization (Sunnydale Borough Council = 0/Durand College of Technology = 1, dummy-coded), and gender (male = 0/female = 1, dummy-coded).

In previous research, these demographic variables have been established as important explanatory variables in their own right in terms of work-home interference. As discussed in Chapter 4, more hours worked, the presence of children in the household, and being female have all been shown to predict increased interference (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Major et al., 2002; Saltzstein et al., 2001). The type of organization has also been linked to work-home interference; Tausig and Fenwick (2001) found that government employees were less likely to experience interference than were those in the private sector. In order to focus on the main research questions that this chapter was designed to assess, however, these variables were used and treated simply as control variables in the regression equations.

A usefulness analysis (Darlington, 1968) was conducted to reveal the unique contribution of the dispositional variables to predicting the variance in work-home interference. Usefulness analysis provides the incremental change in explained variance that is attributable to the set of independent variables that goes beyond the contribution to explained variance of all the other variables in the equation. This analysis compares the change in R^2 associated with a set of independent variables while controlling for the effect of the other variables in the equation. For each equation, the control variables were entered in step 1. Each set of independent variables (dispositional and situational) was then entered into the equation in steps 2 and 3, in each possible ordering to examine the unique variance explained by each set of independent variables in the dependent variable (work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference).

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5.5 Results

5.5.1 Factor analysis

Factor loadings for items in the work-home interference scale are presented in Table 5.1. Factor analysis revealed that the three items from the time-based work interference with home subscale and the three items from the strain-based work interference with home subscale loaded on just one factor. The two subscales were therefore combined to form one scale, henceforth called "Work interference with home". In addition, the three items from the time-based home interference with work subscale and the three items from the strain-based home interference with work subscale loaded onto one factor; they were merged to produce one scale – "Home interference with work" - for the current study. In the literature, time-based interference and strain-based interference often tend to be highly correlated with one another, because strain often comes as a result of time demands (Thompson & Beauvais, 2000). It is therefore unsurprising that respondents of the present study did not differentiate between items assessing time-based and strain-based interference.

Factor analysis also revealed that the three items measuring behaviour-based work interference with home loaded on the same factor as the three items assessing behaviour-based home interference with work. One scale was therefore produced, entitled "Behaviour-based work-home interference". Respondents of this survey evidently did not discriminate between the two possible directions of interference, indicating that when work behaviours are perceived as being ineffective or inappropriate in the home domain, home behaviours are also deemed unsuitable for the work domain, and vice versa. Therefore, the hypotheses were tested on the basis of the results of the factor analysis.

Table 5.1: Complete factor loading matrix for Work-home interference scale

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family or social activities/responsibilities.	**.85**	.12	.18
Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.	**.84**	.13	.23
I have to miss family or social activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.	**.84**	.02	.10
The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.	**.84**	.02	.10
I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family or friends.	**.82**	.14	.15
My work keeps me from my personal or family activities more than I would like.	**.78**	.05	.01
The behaviours I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better partner, friend, or parent. *	**.55**	-.07	.53
Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with personal or family matters at work.	.10	**.85**	.11
Because I am often stressed from personal or family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.	.10	**.85**	.07
I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on personal or family responsibilities.	.05	**.77**	.09
Tension and anxiety from my personal or family life often weakens my ability to do my job.	.03	**.71**	.20
The time I spend with my family or friends often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.	-.01	**.66**	.13
The time I spend on personal or family responsibilities often interferes with my work responsibilities.	.11	**.54**	.26
The behaviours that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.	.02	.29	**.79**
The problem-solving behaviours that work for me at home do not seem to be as useful at work.	-.03	.25	**.74**
Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.	.13	.31	**.70**
Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.	.37	.07	**.65**
The problem-solving behaviours I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.	.30	.06	**.60**
Eigenvalue	6.22	3.36	1.69
Percent of variance explained	34.55	18.68	9.36
Total percent variance explained	62.59		

* Item dropped as loaded highly on more than one factor.

Factor matrices for the independent variable measures are contained in Appendix C. In order to establish the conceptual distinctiveness of the scales measuring dispositional characteristics, items measuring perfectionism, self-efficacy, and self-esteem were included in the principal axis analysis. Five factors were obtained: Factor 1 contained the seven maladaptive perfectionism items, Factor 2 contained the seven adaptive perfectionism items, Factor 3 contained five of the self-efficacy items, Factor 4 contained five of the self-esteem items, and Factor 5 contained three items measuring self-efficacy, and three items measuring self-esteem. The two remaining self-esteem items loaded equally on Factors 2, 3, and 5. Factor 1 was retained to represent maladaptive perfectionism, Factor 2 was retained to represent adaptive perfectionism, Factor 3 was retained to represent self-efficacy, and Factor 4 was retained to represent self-esteem. Factor 5 was dropped as it did not represent an independent construct.

Principal axis analysis of the work-home culture scale produced three factors. Factor 1 contained the seven managerial support items, Factor 2 contained the four organizational time demands items and one item assessing negative career consequences/co-worker resentment, and Factor 3 contained the remaining three items measuring negative career consequences/co-worker resentment. All three factors were retained. One item ("To turn down a promotion for personal or family-related reasons will seriously hurt one's career progress in this organization") was dropped from Factor 2, as it was designed to measure negative career consequences rather than organizational time demands. Another item assessing negative career consequences ("In this organization, employees who work part-time are viewed as less serious about their career than those who work full-time") was dropped from Factor 3, as it loaded highly on more than one factor. The remaining two items in Factor 3 assessed the degree of co-worker resentment incurred by employees taking family leaves, and so the subscale was renamed "Co-worker resentment" to better capture the focus of the items contained therein.

5.5.2 Descriptive statistics

The means and standard deviations of the study variables are reported in Table 5.2. A great deal more work interference with home was reported than home interference

with work, bringing the results of the present study in line with those of previous research (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Gutek et al., 1991; Matsui et al., 1995), while the amount of behaviour-based work-home interference experienced by the respondents of this study fell somewhere in between the two. Mean scores for adaptive perfectionism, self-efficacy, and self-esteem all fell within the upper end of the range, and were considerably higher than that of maladaptive perfectionism. This may be because the first three personality characteristics are seen as socially desirable, while the latter is not.

Table 5.2: Means and standard deviations

Scale	Mean	SD
Work interference with home	4.01	1.62
Home interference with work	2.21	1.00
Behaviour-based work-home interference	3.48	1.16
Adaptive perfectionism	5.75	0.86
Maladaptive perfectionism	3.46	1.31
Self-efficacy	5.57	0.84
Self-esteem	5.45	1.21
Organizational time demands	3.96	1.78
Co-worker resentment	3.39	1.09
Managerial support	4.50	1.18

Reliabilities and intercorrelations among the variables are presented in Table 5.3. The intercorrelations among the perfectionism subscales are of particular interest; the minuscule and insignificant relationship between adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism supports the conceptualization of the two as being separate and independent factors, rather than opposite poles on a single continuum. Especially strong negative links were found between maladaptive perfectionism and self-esteem ($r = -.50$), and between organizational time demands and managerial support ($r = -.63$).

5.5.3 Dispositional predictors of work-home interference

The results from the hierarchical multiple regression analyses are presented in Table 5.4. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported; adaptive perfectionism had a significant negative relationship with home interference with work ($\beta = -.26, p < .001$). Hypothesis 2 was strongly supported. Maladaptive perfectionism was positively and significantly related to work interference with home ($\beta = .13, p < .05$), home interference with work ($\beta = .19, p < .05$), and behaviour-based work-home interference ($\beta = .28, p < .001$).

Self-efficacy was not significantly related to any of the dimensions of work-home interference, providing no support for Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 4 received partial support; while self-esteem was not significantly related to either work interference with home or behaviour-based interference, it had a negative relationship with home interference with work ($\beta = -.20, p < .05$).

5.5.4 Situational predictors of work-home interference

Hypothesis 5 was partially supported. Organizational time demands were positively related to work interference with home ($\beta = .50, p < .001$), and to behaviour-based interference ($\beta = .25, p < .01$). Co-worker resentment was negatively related to behaviour-based interference only at the $p < .10$ level ($\beta = -.11$), providing no support for Hypothesis 6. Partial support was found for Hypothesis 7; managerial support was negatively and significantly related to work interference with home ($\beta = -.15, p < .05$).

Table 5.3: Intercorrelations among work-home interference, dispositional and situational variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Work interference with home	(.92)									
2. Home interference with work	.19**	(.84)								
3. Behaviour-based work-home interference	.38***	.44***	(.80)							
4. Adaptive perfectionism	.14*	-.24***	-.11	(.87)						
5. Maladaptive perfectionism	.30***	.24***	.29***	.08	(.93)					
6. Self-efficacy	-.08	-.12	-.19**	.33***	-.30***	(.91)				
7. Self-esteem	-.18**	-.31***	-.21**	.15*	-.50***	.39***	(.82)			
8. Organizational time demands	.65***	.05	.23***	.12	.22***	-.09	-.05	(.94)		
9. Co-worker resentment	.22***	.07	-.03	.02	.03	-.09	-.16*	.21***	(.77)	
10. Managerial support	-.49***	-.03	-.21**	.09	-.09	.16*	.06	-.63***	-.18**	(.91)

Note. $N = 223$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. The main diagonal contains Cronbach's internal consistency reliability estimates.

Table 5.4: Hierarchical regression results predicting Work-home interference

Independent variable	Work interference with home			Home interference with work			Behaviour-based interference		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Sex	.00	.03	-.01	-.01	.01	-.04	-.10	-.10	**-.16***
Presence of young children	**.13***	**.10***	**.11***	**.14***	**.14***	**.16***	.12†	.09	.11†
Hours worked weekly	**.41*****	**.23*****	**.22*****	-.06	-.10	-.08	.03	-.08	-.08
Organization	.09	**-.16****	**-.17****	-.04	-.10	-.06	.00	**-.16***	**-.16***
Organizational time demands		**.57*****	**.50*****		.18†	.16†		**.32*****	**.25****
Co-worker resentment		.07	.04		.10	.06		-.09	-.11†
Managerial support		**-.12***	**-.15***		.05	.10		-.09	-.08
Adaptive perfectionism			.08			**-.26*****			-.09
Maladaptive perfectionism			**.13***			**.19***			**.28*****
Self-efficacy			-.01			.08			-.06
Self-esteem			-.08			**-.20***			-.03
F	14.22***	36.61***	23.46***	1.46	1.81†	4.89***	1.46	4.16***	5.37***
$\triangle$F	14.22***	45.22***	4.07**	1.46	2.24†	9.74***	1.46	7.58***	6.69***
$\triangle$R^2	.21***	.31***	.04**	.03	.03†	.15***	.03	.10***	.10***
Adjusted R^2	.20***	.51***	.54***	.01	.03†	.17***	.01	.09***	.18***
$\triangle$R^2 when steps 2 and 3 reversed	-	7.33***	38.26***	-	10.49***	1.51	-	8.66***	5.10***
$\triangle$F when steps 2 and 3 reversed	-	.10***	.25***	-	.16***	.02	-	.14***	.06***

Note. $N = 223$. $^\dagger p < .10$. $* p < .05$. $** p < .01$. $*** p < .001$.

The results of the usefulness analysis are displayed in Table 5.4. As shown, when the dispositional variables were entered in a subsequent step to the situational variables, the incremental variance they explained in work interference with home was substantially reduced (from $\triangle R^2 = .10, p < .001$ to $\triangle R^2 = .04, p < .01$), while that explained by situational variables was higher in both cases ($\triangle R^2 = .31, p < .001$ when situational variables were entered first, and $\triangle R^2 = .25, p < .001$ when they were entered subsequent to dispositional variables). For home interference with work, however, dispositional variables explained significant additional variance ($\triangle R^2 = .15, p < .001$) beyond that explained by control and situational variables. Regardless of which set of variables was entered first in the equation, dispositional variables explained considerably more incremental variance in home interference with work than did situational variables.

These results suggest that for work interference with home, situational variables account for additional variance beyond that explained by control and dispositional variables, and are better predictors of work interference with home than are dispositional characteristics. For home interference with work, the reverse is true: dispositional variables account for additional variance beyond that explained by control and situational variables, and are better predictors of home interference with work than are situational characteristics. With regard to behaviour-based interference, dispositional variables appear to be marginally better at explaining variance; the incremental variance explained by situational variables was equal to or lower than that explained by dispositional variables regardless of which set of variables was entered first.

5.6 Discussion

The aim of this chapter was to set out and test the hypothesized relationships between dispositional and situational variables and work-home interference. The chapter sought first to examine the direct effects of dispositional and situational characteristics on three types of work-home interference, and ascertain if these variables contributed to any variance in the dependent variable beyond that explained by demographic

control variables. Its second objective was to determine whether dispositional variables explained more variance in work-home interference than did situational variables, or vice versa.

Three of the dispositional characteristics (self-esteem and adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism) and two of the situational variables (managerial support and organizational time demands) were found to have direct, significant effects on work-home interference, and to account for variance above and beyond that explained by demographic control variables. With regard to the chapter's second objective, situational variables explained more variance in work interference with home than did dispositional characteristics. In contrast, dispositional variables explained the majority of the variance in home interference with work, and slightly more variance in behaviour-based interference than did situational characteristics.

5.6.1 Dispositional antecedents

The results of this study lend further support to the work of Bonebright et al. (2000), Carlson (1999), and Erdwins et al. (2001) in establishing that personality characteristics play a role in determining whether or not an individual experiences interference between work and home.

Maladaptive perfectionism predicted increased interference from work to home, home to work, and between work-oriented and home-oriented behaviours. It appears that individuals who set high personal standards, and then experience a great deal of distress upon failing to meet those standards, are particularly susceptible to the perception that fulfilling the demands of one life role precludes fulfilling the demands of another. The general tendency of maladaptive perfectionists to critically evaluate their performance renders them prone to making negative evaluations of their efforts to achieve inter-role balance, leading to increased reports of interference. Also responsible for increased levels of interference may be the tendency of maladaptive perfectionists to be more negatively affected by life stressors than individuals low in maladaptive perfectionism. While not measured in this study, the propensity for procrastination often displayed by maladaptive perfectionists could also play a role in

explaining their elevated levels of interference, by contributing to time pressures and consequent strain. Further research of this proposition is warranted.

Adaptive perfectionism, on the other hand, predicted decreased home interference with work only. As personality characteristics are commonly held to be stable across situations, it is surprising that similar results were not found for the other two types of interference. According to Morf (1989), individual dispositions would lead an individual to respond similarly to work and to home; the expectation is that the behaviour resulting from these dispositions would be similar in both domains. Evidently, there is something unique to the home domain that renders adaptive perfectionism significant in its predictive ability. Dispositional characteristics are believed to have the greatest effect on behaviour when the situation is relevant to the personality trait's expression, and is weak enough to allow an individual to choose how to behave in that situation (Stewart & Barrick, 2004). In terms of the rigidity of the boundary between work and home, home is generally considered the more permeable ("weak") of the two domains. That is, when seeking to manage demands from both work and home, accommodations can more often be made in the home domain (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Wethington, 1989; Eagle et al., 1997). Leisure time can be reallocated to completion of outstanding household tasks, a session at the gym can be more easily rescheduled than a board meeting, and friends and family will often endure more frequent neglect than will a supervisor or work team. As adaptive perfectionists are more likely to initiate efforts to achieve their high standards for low interference between work and home, these efforts may be more successful in an environment where there is more scope to adjust one's behaviour. Adaptive perfectionism may be less effective in the less malleable environment of the workplace, leading to a non-significant impact on work interference with home. The additional absence of any significant effects of adaptive perfectionism on behaviour-based interference suggests that this type of perfectionism may not, as hypothesized, be substantially related to the integration of behaviours across the work and home domains.

Self-esteem was a significant predictor of home interference with work, but, like adaptive perfectionism, failed to predict work interference with home. This is a curious finding. Perhaps stressors originating in the home domain are more effectively

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countered by feelings of value and self-worth than stressors originating at work. Workplace stressors may have other, more practical, resolutions or buffers that can be used to ward off any interference from work role responsibilities to other domains; faulty equipment can be replaced during repairs, temporary workers can be brought in to cover the work of an absent colleague, and formal dispute resolution processes are available to sort out grievances.

Another possibility is that stressors in the workplace may be primarily related to the position occupied by an organizational member, as opposed to the person occupying it. An individual may be overloaded with work due to a staff shortage, or may be locked in a struggle for resources with a representative from another branch of the organization, or be forced to deal with rude and demanding clientele at a customer service counter. While each situation may provoke stress, this stress would be largely unconnected to an individual's character or personality, and innate feelings of self-worth may be less useful in preventing work demands from interfering with responsibilities at home. Stressors originating in the home domain may be perceived as being more closely connected to the person playing the role of mother, daughter, partner, or friend; many stressors may be of an interpersonal nature, and thus more effectively buffered by the sense that one is a worthwhile human being. It is beyond the scope of this study to do more than speculate upon the explanation for self-esteem's relevance to only one direction of work-home interference, but further research in this area would be welcomed.

5.6.2 Situational antecedents

Consistent with previous research, elements of work-home culture were found to have significant direct effects upon work interference with home. High levels of work interference with home were reported by employees experiencing strong organizational time demands and little managerial support. Feeling pressure to work long hours and assign priority to one's job rather than one's home life contributed significantly to the spillover of work demands into the home domain, by increasing time pressures for those complying with organizational time demands, and generating stress among those failing to fulfill them. The increased interference experienced by employees receiving little support from immediate or upper management can in all

likelihood be attributed to the failure of those managers to provide either instrumental support in the form of flexibility within employees' work schedules, and/or emotional support with regard to work-home concerns. Organizational time demands and managerial support had similar effects on behaviour-based work-home interference, although significance levels fell just short of the standard cut-off. Work-home culture had no significant effects upon home interference with work, providing support for the prevailing conceptualization of home interference with work as being caused by demographic characteristics and stressors originating in the home domain.

The findings of this chapter provide additional support for the notion of separate antecedents to work interference with home and home interference with work. Characteristics of the work environment accounted for the majority of variance in work interference with home, while personality traits were responsible for explaining the most variance in home interference with work. As suggested earlier in relation to the effects of self-esteem on interference, these results raise the possibility that home interference with work may be more strongly tied to the individual occupying home-related roles than to the roles themselves. The opposite may be true of work interference with home; interference from work to the home domain may arise predominantly due to factors associated with the work role, rather than the worker. This would help to explain the dissimilar influence of dispositional variables on the two directions of work-home interference.

5.7 Limitations

As before, the cross-sectional design of the study does not allow for firm conclusions regarding causality. It is conceivable that an employee experiencing high levels of work-home interference may evaluate himself or herself more negatively as a result, reporting lower levels of self-efficacy and self-esteem. Future research employing a longitudinal design would be better placed to assess issues of directionality.

More total variance was explained for work interference with home than for either home interference with work or behaviour-based interference. This may be due to the focus of this study on work-oriented variables; other than demographic characteristics,

no factors originating in the home domain were taken into account which might have further explained home interference with work, or competed more effectively with dispositional characteristics in accounting for variance. In terms of behaviour-based work-home interference, it could be that more detailed information about the nature of the behaviours demanded in one's job, and the nature of behaviours demanded in one's home environment, is necessary to explain interference.

5.8 Conclusion

The results of this chapter indicate that personality does play a role in determining the amount of work-home interference experienced by employees. Maladaptive perfectionism emerged as a significant contributor to all three types of interference included in this study, and self-esteem and adaptive perfectionism were important predictors of home interference with work. It can be concluded that models of work-home interference containing only situation or person-based predictors risk underspecification; including both situation and person-based explanations therefore results in a more complete prediction model of work-home interference.

Dispositional variables appear to have more predictive power for home interference with work, rather than work interference with home. This may be due to the interpersonal nature of much home interference with work, the perception of which may be more influenced by an individual's personality characteristics.

In the present chapter and its immediate predecessor, dispositional, situational, and gender-moderated antecedents to work-home interference have been investigated. Now that a clearer idea of what produces interference has been established, the focus of this thesis will shift toward the consequences of interference. In the next chapter, behavioural outcomes of work-home interference will be explored. Specifically, the potential effects of work-home interference on opportunity to perform organizational citizenship behaviours, actual performance of organizational citizenship behaviours, and in-role job performance will be considered and tested.

Chapter 6 – Performance Outcomes of Work-Home Interference

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   6.3.1   Opportunity to perform organizational citizenship behaviour

6.4   Work-home culture and task performance/organizational citizenship behaviour

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   6.7.1   Work-home interference
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6.9   Conclusion

The previous chapters of this thesis have explored various situational and dispositional antecedents to work-home interference. This chapter will proceed to investigate some of the work-related consequences arising from interference between employees' work and home lives. It will focus on the potential for work-home interference to affect employee performance, both task and contextual, each of which is vital to overall organizational effectiveness. As was demonstrated in the previous two chapters, organizational factors are largely responsible for predicting work interference with home, and play a significant role in contributing to home interference with work and behaviour-based interference. A link between work-home interference and employee performance would suggest that organizations are inadvertently sabotaging their own effectiveness.

Individual performance is defined as behaviour that is relevant to the goals of the organization and can be measured in terms of the level of the individual's contribution to those goals (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993). Borman and Motowidlo (1993) proposed a model of performance with two components at the highest level: task performance and contextual performance. Task performance refers to the fulfillment of the general responsibilities associated with a particular job or role (e.g., Williams & Anderson, 1991). Contextual performance, which is more often referred to as organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), was originally described as discretionary behaviour that helps other organization members perform their jobs or shows support for and conscientiousness toward the organization (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Recognizing that what is discretionary varies across individuals and situations, Organ (1997) redefined organizational citizenship behaviour as behaviour that contributes "to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997, p. 91).

Organizational citizenship behaviour/contextual performance is similar in meaning to concepts such as prosocial organizational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), and organizational spontaneity (George & Jones, 1997). All these related concepts are often equated with

one another, and included under the general label of citizenship performance (Borman & Penner, 2001; Coleman & Borman, 2000).

It is self-evident that establishing potential determinants of task performance is beneficial to organizations and their managers. Pinpointing contributing factors to organizational citizenship, however, is also of great importance; both theory and research indicate that organizational citizenship behaviours yield significant advantages to organizational performance. For example, engaging in interpersonal helping and civic virtue behaviours are thought to enhance co-worker and managerial productivity through the provision of training and feedback, and improve resource allocation by reducing the need for supervision and managerial assistance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Organizational citizenship behaviours are also believed to serve as an effective means of coordinating activities between individuals and groups, to enhance the stability of organizational performance, and to improve an organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Research has generally supported the hypothesized relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour and organizational performance. Interpersonal helping has been found to explain significant variance in production quantity, production quality, revenue, operating efficiency, customer satisfaction, and performance quality (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Walz & Niehoff, 1996). Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) also found civic virtue behaviours to be a significant predictor of sales performance. These findings illustrate the importance to organizations of establishing which factors prompt or enable employees to engage in citizenship behaviours, and which factors dissuade or prevent them from doing so.

The prevailing theoretical framework used to explain employee participation in organizational citizenship is based on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964): when treated favourably by others, individuals will feel obliged to respond in kind, through positive attitudes or behaviours toward the source of the treatment. The majority of recent research on OCB has examined, as indicators of favourable treatment, employee perceptions of organizational fairness and perceived organizational support – a "general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values [employees'] general contributions and cares for their

well-being" (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990, p. 51). Empirical results support a strong link between both perceived fairness and perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behaviour (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, 1991; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

The majority of the OCB literature addresses employee *willingness* to engage in citizenship behaviours, as a direct function of favourable treatment. From a social exchange standpoint, work-home interference can be seen as a restriction upon employee behaviour regardless of how favourable organizational treatment is perceived to be. While work-home interference has been shown to affect a number of work-related outcomes, such as burnout (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), organizational commitment (Lyness & Thompson, 1997), and satisfaction with work, co-workers, and career progression (Boles et al., 2001), there has been very little research into the effect of work-home interference on employee performance, both task and contextual. No attempt has yet been made to link organizational citizenship behaviour with interference between work and home. Determining whether or not an employee's ability to manage competing demands from work and home affects his or her ability to contribute to organizational effectiveness has important ramifications for organizations and their human resource policies regarding work-home interference.

The aim of this chapter is to investigate the mechanism by which work-home interference may affect employee task performance and citizenship behaviour. There is precedent for both in-role and extra-role performance being influenced by perceived organizational support (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2000). This chapter will expand on previous findings by investigating whether a more narrowly focused type of organizational support – work-home support – also has the potential to affect task and contextual performance.

The hypothesized relationships among the study variables are outlined in Figure 6.1.

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Figure 6.1: Hypothesized model of relationships among work-home interference, organizational citizenship behaviour, opportunity for OCB, task performance, and work-home culture variables
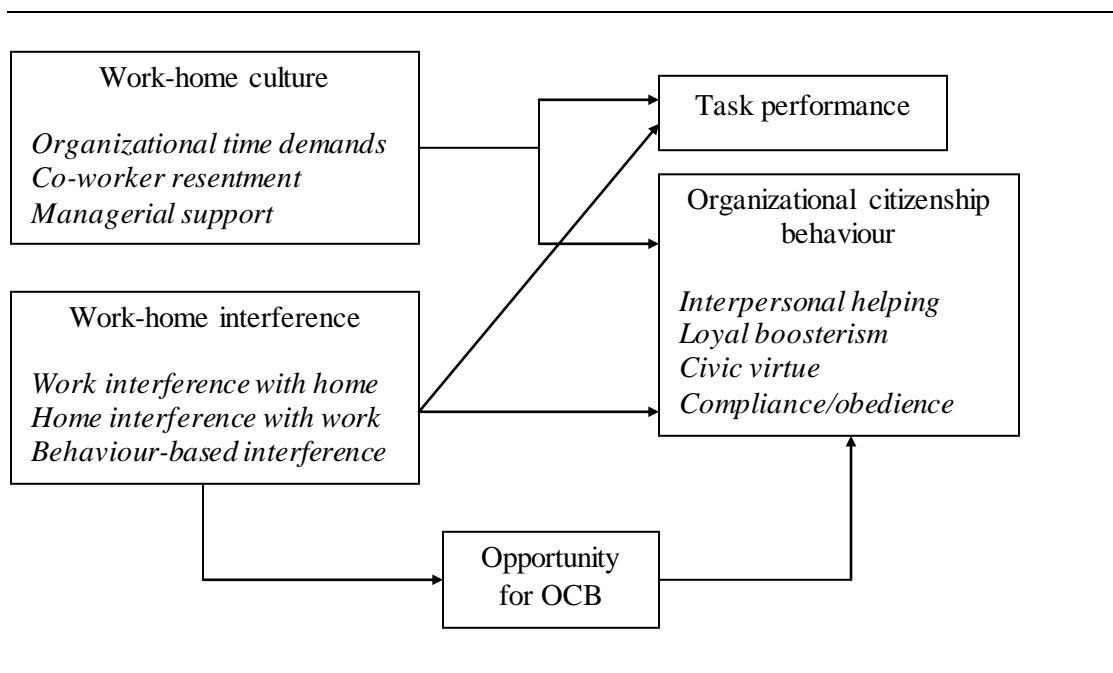
6.2 Work-home interference and task performance

Previous research on work-home interference has determined that both work interference with home and home interference with work are capable of influencing a number of performance-related employee behaviours. Employees reporting higher levels of work interference with home are more likely to miss work meetings or training sessions, to decline to take on extra projects (Gignac et al., 1996), and to leave their jobs entirely (Greenhaus et al., 1997). This pattern of withdrawal from work responsibilities can be explained by Greenhaus et al.'s (1997) proposition that individuals who experience work interference with home may attempt to reduce the interference by leaving the environment in which the interference originated. Employees whose work interferes with their responsibilities at home may reduce their effort on the job and their overall levels of performance in order to conserve time and energy for completion of personal or family responsibilities.

When responsibilities at home consume time and energy that is needed for completion of job duties, employees' task performance may be compromised. For example, an individual who has been up all night attending to a sick child may be too tired to concentrate on her work the next day, may spend time on the phone arranging emergency childcare and doctor's appointments, and may be mentally preoccupied by her child's illness rather than by the job at hand. Her task performance may suffer as a result. Support for this proposition is provided by empirical results indicating that home interference with work exerts a direct, negative effect on employee task performance and work effort (Frone et al., 1997b; MacEwen & Barling, 1994; Wayne et al., 2004), and is positively associated with absenteeism (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002). While Aryee (1992) found a negative relationship between job-to-parent conflict and work quality, he speculated that it may be attributable to the effect of family intrusions with work, which were not measured in the study.

As was discussed in Chapter 2, research into behaviour-based work-home interference is scarce, and there is little in the way of theory or empirical results to inform hypotheses concerning behaviour-based interference. Because factor analysis of the work-home interference measure in the present study clearly indicates that behaviour-based interference is a distinct construct, it is treated as such. The hypotheses in this chapter regarding behaviour-based interference are, however, largely exploratory in nature.

There has been no research as yet investigating a potential link between behaviour-based work-home interference and task performance, but it is possible that a negative relationship exists between the two. If behaviours performed at home are deemed inappropriate at work, employees who do not strictly compartmentalize their behaviours into work-related and home-related categories may find this detrimental to effective task performance. For example, an individual whose authoritarian parenting style creates resentment among subordinates and poor interpersonal relations when transferred to the workplace may find his effectiveness as a manager diminished, and evaluations of his overall task performance reduced.

Alternatively, if employees are concerned by a perceived incompatibility between their work and home behaviours, mental resources necessary for effective task

performance, such as concentration, may be diverted and task performance may suffer as a result. Employees suffering behaviour-based interference may also devote time and effort to reconciling work-oriented and home-oriented behaviours, or to making certain that behaviours used in one domain are not performed in the other. For example, an employee whose warm, nurturing behaviour at home is incompatible with her brisk, no-nonsense demeanour at work may feel troubled by the inconsistency between her two selves, and spend time and energy attempting to transform her workplace into an environment more accepting of interpersonal warmth. Allocating time and energy to undertakings that are unrelated to job duties may detract from completion of assigned job tasks, and thereby reduce overall task performance.

> Hypothesis 1: Work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based work-home interference will be negatively related to task performance.

6.3 Work-home interference and organizational citizenship behaviour

In addition to negatively affecting task performance, it is conceivable that work-home interference can exert a negative effect on organizational citizenship behaviours as well. Employees faced with intrusive demands from home may choose to allocate their limited time and energy to task performance rather than citizenship behaviours. For example, an individual arranging home care for an elderly parent may need to spend time researching available options and apply concentration to deciding upon a suitable course of action. As a result, he or she would have less time and fewer mental or emotional resources overall to devote to contextual work performance. He or she may therefore spend less time and energy assisting colleagues with their work, promoting the organization's services to others, maintaining an up-to-date knowledge of organization-relevant information, and going out of his or her way to conform with organizational rules and procedures, choosing instead to sacrifice the performance of such citizenship behaviours in favour of completing his or her contracted job duties.

Employees reporting high levels of work interference with home may also report lower levels of organizational citizenship behaviours. Individuals who work long hours, or who

perceive that strain arising from work is spilling over into their personal or family life, may wish to scale back on workplace activities in order to achieve a better balance between work and home. They may be more likely to withdraw from "expendable" behaviours, such as those associated with organizational citizenship, rather than endanger their job or create further time or strain pressures by reducing their involvement in contracted task performance. Gignac et al.'s (1996) finding that employees experiencing work interference with home were more likely to miss job-related social events held outside of regular work hours provides some support for this proposition.

As was speculated earlier, employees troubled by a perceived incongruity between behaviours performed at work and those performed at home may have fewer mental and emotional resources to devote to their task performance. This may also hold true for contextual performance. An employee whose work-related behaviours are incompatible with his or her home-related behaviours may exert a great deal of effort in monitoring his or her actions at work to ensure they are appropriate for that domain. Or, he or she may try to alter the receptiveness of the workplace to traditionally inappropriate behaviours such as joking with managers and sharing personal concerns with colleagues. In either case, these efforts may leave him or her tired and disinclined to expend more energy on non-compulsory citizenship activities such as attending voluntary meetings or encouraging others to make use of organizational products or services. Employees experiencing higher levels of behaviour-based interference may therefore report lower participation in organizational citizenship behaviours requiring effort above and beyond that of their "regular" task performance.

> Hypothesis 2: Work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based work-home interference will be negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviours.

6.3.1 Mediating role of opportunity for organizational citizenship behaviour

Thus far, the argument for work-home interference affecting OCB has been predicated upon a direct relationship between the two. However, the possibility exists that the effects of interference on OCB are mediated by a third variable. Recent

research has suggested that situational constraints may indirectly influence an employee's performance of OCB. Gellatly and Irving (2001) found that employee levels of extraversion and agreeableness predicted performance of citizenship behaviours only when autonomy was high, and Farh, Zhong, and Organ (2002) discovered that employees reporting a high-quality exchange relationship between themselves and their supervisors were more likely to engage in OCB when they enjoyed high job autonomy. These findings indicate that variability in behaviour is more likely to be found in situations where employees have greater discretion in determining their actions. Regardless of an employee's inclination to perform citizenship behaviours, situational constraints may prevent him or her from actually doing so. A potential source of these situational constraints may be lack of opportunity due to interference between home and work.

Work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference all have the potential to reduce an employee's perceived opportunity to engage in OCB. For example, an employee may arrive at work in the morning exhausted from staying up most of the night with a sick child. Because of the constraints on his or her energy imposed by this home interference with work, the employee may perceive little opportunity to expend further energy in assisting colleagues with their work or maintaining a consistent level of high productivity. Should this employee need to leave work early in order to care for the child, he or she may perceive little opportunity to attend voluntary after-work meetings due to the time constraints imposed by home interference with work. In either case, the employee would be likely to perform fewer organizational citizenship behaviours due to the lack of perceived opportunity to do so arising from home interference with work.

Equally, employees who find that the hours or pressure incurred by their jobs spill over into their personal lives may perceive little opportunity to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour due to time and energy constraints. An individual who works long hours and is often tired at home because of work responsibilities may perceive that existing demands on his or her time and energy are such that they preclude any opportunity to engage in extra-role work activities. This perceived lack

of opportunity to perform citizenship behaviours arising from work interference with home may therefore lead to low levels of participation in OCB.

As was hypothesized earlier, individuals who consider their work-oriented behaviours to be incompatible with their behaviour at home may spend time and energy attempting to reconcile the two sets of behaviours, or to ensuring that behaviours used in one domain are not misguidedly performed in the other. This allocation of time and effort may result in fewer mental and emotional resources being available to devote to contextual performance. Employees may consequently perceive less opportunity to engage in OCB, and report lower levels of contextual performance. In the example provided earlier, an employee who believes his or her behaviour at home is incompatible with what is expected of him or her at work may devote time and effort to monitoring his or her behaviour in the workplace in order to ensure it is appropriate. This effort may leave the employee tired and apt to perceive that he or she does not have the opportunity to engage in extra-role behaviours due to a lack of energy. He or she may therefore report lower levels of participation in organizational citizenship behaviours, due to the lack of perceived opportunity to do so arising from behaviour-based interference.

> Hypothesis 3: The relationship between work-home interference (work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based work-home interference) and organizational citizenship behaviour will be mediated by perceived opportunity to perform organizational citizenship behaviour.

6.4 Work-home culture and task performance/organizational citizenship behaviour

According to Randall, Cropanzano, Borman, and Birjulin (1999), an employee's decision to work entails, like any investment, certain risks: an unsupportive organization can be the source of unpleasant experiences, such as public embarrassment or social sanctions. In a supportive organizational setting, however, an employee's investment in time and effort on the job is more likely to result in positive outcomes, such as esteem, dignity, and personal power (Cropanzano & Schminke, 2000). For this reason, it can be expected that when perceived support is high,

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individuals will raise their investments in the form of higher task performance and more helpful citizenship behaviours (Randall et al., 1999).

Support for this proposition and the "norm of reciprocity" proposed by Gouldner (1960) has been found by a number of researchers; employees appear motivated to reciprocate positive actions directed at them by their employers. Eisenberger et al. (1990) established a positive relationship between perceived organizational support (POS) and ratings of task performance, and Wayne et al. (1997) found that POS was significantly correlated with both in-role performance and interpersonal helping. Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff (1998) found that POS predicted several components of OCB: helping, individual initiative, personal industry, and loyal boosterism. Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor (2000) found that POS predicted organization-oriented OCB.

Perceived organizational support is general in nature, assessing an employee's impression of the overall support provided by his or her organization. If this appraisal of general support contributes to an employee's task performance and propensity to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours, perceptions of targeted support, such as that for work-life issues, may also play a role. Some support for this hypothesis has been found by Lambert (2000), who demonstrated that employee perceptions of the usefulness of work-life benefits offered by their organization predicted three types of OCB: submission of suggestions for improvement, attendance at quality meetings, and interpersonal helping. She also found that personal and family-related supervisor support predicted two of the three forms of OCB. These results were attributed to social exchange theory, which holds that given certain conditions, individuals feel obligated to reciprocate when they benefit from someone or something's actions (see Blau, 1964). Put more simply, "workers may feel obligated to exert "extra" effort in return for "extra" benefits" (Lambert, 2000, p. 801).

Work-home culture assesses how supportive an organization's culture is of work-life issues, and is conceptually similar to the construct of organizational support in that it can be viewed as a type of organizational support (Jahn et al., 2003). As defined by Thompson et al. (1999, p. 392), work-home culture consists of the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization values and supports

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the integration of employees' work and family lives. The degree of perceived organizational support for work-life issues has been related to a number of work-related outcomes. Organizational environments supportive of employees' work-life balance have been shown to predict increased organizational commitment (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Lyness, Thompson, Francesco, & Judiesch, 1999), greater job satisfaction (Allen, 2001; Sahibzada, Hammer, Neal, & Kuang, 2003), and reduced intention to turnover (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999).

While there has been no research as yet to determine any influence of work-home culture on task performance, studies support a positive link between perceived organizational support and task performance (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1990). Two studies exist whose findings indicate a potential link between work-home culture and organizational citizenship behaviour. Roehling, Roehling, and Moen (2001) found that perceived flexibility and tolerance of the work environment with regard to family interference with work predicted employee loyalty. Also in 2001, Clark demonstrated that supervisor support with regard to work-family issues predicted increased interpersonal helping.

It follows from these results, and from the theoretical and empirical links between organizational support and task and contextual performance described earlier (Randall et al., 1999; Wayne et al., 1997), that perceptions of an organizational culture supportive of work-home issues will be related to higher levels of task performance and organizational citizenship behaviours.

As described in the previous chapter, work-home culture comprises three distinct components: organizational time demands, or expectations that employees prioritize work over family or personal responsibilities; co-worker resentment associated with devoting time to one's family or personal responsibilities; and managerial support and sensitivity to employees' family or personal responsibilities.

Organizational time demands. Expectations on the part of one's organization regarding time spent at work, and the prioritization of work over family or personal responsibilities, may influence the degree to which employees choose to engage in extra-role behaviours in the workplace. An individual who perceives that career

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advancement in his or her organization is contingent upon giving clear precedence to work rather than home may opt to participate in citizenship behaviours in order to be viewed favourably by those in power and enhance his or her opportunities for promotion.

> Hypothesis 4: Organizational time demands will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviours.

While organizational time demands are potentially related to greater participation in extra-role behaviours, they may serve to reduce employee task performance. Pressure from organizational management to work long hours, and to prioritize work over family or personal life, may generate worry and tension that obstruct employees' concentration on their job duties and impede effective completion of their tasks.

> Hypothesis 5: Organizational time demands will be negatively related to task performance.

Co-worker resentment. An organizational culture that elicits condemnation from co-workers when employees devote time to personal or family responsibilities may also affect its employees' predilection for engaging in extra-role activities. Individuals who perceive that their efforts to manage competing work and home demands are met with resentment from their colleagues may find themselves less inclined to assist those colleagues by engaging in interpersonal helping behaviours. Similarly, these individuals may be less disposed to go out of their way to support an organization whose culture engenders so little co-worker support for them. They may therefore makes less of an effort to promote their organization's services to others, to attend non-compulsory meetings and keep abreast of current organization-relevant information, and to comply painstakingly with organizational rules and procedures.

> Hypothesis 6: Co-worker resentment will be negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviours.

Co-worker resentment may also affect employee task performance. Individuals who wish to avoid censure from their colleagues, and who are therefore reluctant to reduce

their visibility in the workplace in order to attend to family or personal responsibilities, may find themselves preoccupied by these responsibilities whilst at work. This may result in decreased concentration on task duties and generate a lower level of task performance.

> Hypothesis 7: Co-worker resentment will be negatively related to task performance.

Managerial support. Employees reporting managerial support for employee work-home issues may be more likely to perform better on the job, and to go out of their way to help others, promote the organization, keep up-to-date with organization-relevant information, and comply scrupulously with rules and procedures. This may be due either to social exchange obligations, compelling individuals to reciprocate when they benefit from another's actions, or to Randall et al.'s (1999) supposition that employees will increase their task and contextual performance in a supportive environment in order to obtain desired outcomes such as power or esteem. Alternatively, managerial support of work-home issues may enable employees to perform at a higher level by helping to remove barriers to performance, such as strain or time pressures, arising from competing work and home demands.

> Hypothesis 8: Managerial support will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviours.

> Hypothesis 9: Managerial support will be positively related to task performance.

6.5 Method

6.5.1 Dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour

In a review of the organizational citizenship behaviour literature, Podsakoff et al. (2000) identified seven citizenship behaviours: interpersonal helping, loyal boosterism, compliance, civic virtue, individual initiative, sportsmanship, and self-development. Four of these seven were included for investigation in the present study,

as their presence in the literature is more established and they have received more empirical support than the remaining three.

Interpersonal helping behaviour focuses on helping co-workers in their jobs when such help is needed (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). This construct is derived from Smith et al.'s (1983) concept of "altruism", which involves behaviour that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to-face situations, e.g., orienting new people, or assisting someone with a heavy workload.

Loyal boosterism refers to the promotion of the organizational image by organizational members to outsiders (Moorman & Blakely, 1995). Behaviours representative of organizational loyalty include defending the organization against threats, contributing to its good reputation, and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole (Graham, 1991).

As defined by Organ (1988), civic virtue is responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization. Representative behaviours include attending non-compulsory meetings, reading organizational announcements, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization (Graham, 1991; Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1988).

Organ (1988) described compliance as a form of conscientiousness that, while not providing immediate assistance to any specific individual, is indirectly helpful to others involved in the organization. Podsakoff et al. (2000) liken compliance with obedience, described by Graham (1991) as a recognition and acceptance of the necessity and desirability of rational rules and regulations governing organizational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies. Compliance/obedience can be demonstrated by respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and self-discipline regarding work effort, quantity, and quality (Graham, 1991; Van Dyne et al., 1994).

The present study did not include sportsmanship and self-development, identified by Podsakoff et al. (2000) as the two dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour studied least often. Instead, a choice was made to focus on those dimensions

appearing more often in the literature so as to enable contrasts and comparisons to be drawn across the results of this and other studies. This decision was also informed by Podsakoff et al.'s (2000, p. 525) observation that the dimension of self-development "has not received any empirical confirmation in the citizenship literature".

Individual initiative, the second most popular dimension of organizational citizenship behaviour found in the literature, was also excluded from this study. According to Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 524), individual initiative is extra-role "only in the sense that it involves engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor". Organ (1988) noted that this form of behaviour is among the most difficult to distinguish from in-role behaviour, a proposition supported by Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997) and Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996), who found it difficult to distinguish empirically from task performance. Given that the present study incorporated measures of task as well as contextual performance, it was decided not to include potentially overlapping dimensions of performance.

A number of researchers have found that predictors of organizational citizenship behaviour differ across different dimensions of citizenship. For example, Moorman and Blakely (1995) found that values regarding preference for working in an individualistic versus a collectivist environment predicted levels of interpersonal helping, but not those of individual initiative, personal industry, or loyal boosterism. The findings of Moorman et al. (1998) indicated that perceived organizational support predicted interpersonal helping, personal industry, and loyal boosterism, but not individual initiative.

Despite these findings, LePine, Erez, and Johnson's (2002) meta-analysis of organizational citizenship behaviour dimensions suggested that most of the dimensions identified are strongly related to one another. No evident differences were found in the relationships between these dimensions and the most frequently researched antecedents to organizational citizenship behaviour: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational justice, leader support, and conscientiousness. The authors suggested that future research may want to consider using an aggregate measure of organizational citizenship behaviour, rather than

continuing to measure and analyze each dimension as a separate construct. The antecedents to organizational citizenship behaviour proposed in this study have never before been investigated as such. In order to determine whether these antecedents have differential predictive effects across OCB dimensions, or whether they conform to the pattern identified by LePine et al. (2002), the decision was made to examine the same set of predictors across each dimension of OCB studied.

6.5.2 Measures

For all items in each of the scales used in this chapter, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with statements on a seven-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 7.

Dependent variables

Organizational citizenship behaviour. The four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour under investigation were measured with existing scales.

Interpersonal helping. Interpersonal helping was measured using the six items from the self-report scale developed by Moorman and Blakely (1995). This scale was chosen above the many alternative measures of interpersonal helping available due to its suitability for the present study. Other established measures of interpersonal helping were rejected on the grounds that they were developed specifically for the research site, such as university students living in shared accommodation (Hui, Organ, & Crooker, 1994).

Some alternative scales included items not applicable to the research context of the present study, such as "helping patients and visitors" (Morrison, 1994); not all employees participating in the current study would have direct contact with clients or visitors. Other scales included items worded in a manner deemed vague enough to potentially confuse survey respondents, e.g., "volunteering to do things" (Morrison, 1994); "helps make others productive" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Still other scales incorporated items that appeared to better reflect the concept of civic virtue, e.g., "volunteers for things that are not required" (Smith et al., 1983);

"I attend functions that are not required but that help the [organization]" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

Loyal boosterism. Loyal boosterism was measured with the five items from Moorman and Blakely's (1995) scale. Items were adapted to be applicable to the context of the organizations participating in the study; for the item "encourages friends and family to utilize organization products", the word "services" was substituted for "products", as local councils and educational facilities do not offer products as such. Similarly, for the item "actively promotes the organization's products and services to potential users", the word "products" was removed.

This measure was selected for its suitability relative to other available scales. For example, Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) measure included items such as "would accept job at competing organizations for more money", and "would not urge coworkers to invest money in organization". These items are not appropriate for use with the organizations participating in the current study; there are no organizations in direct competition with the local council with regard to many of the positions it staffs (e.g., waste disposal, social work), and public sector organizations such as local councils or educational institutions do not offer opportunities for direct investment.

Civic virtue. Civic virtue was measured with five items developed by Morrison (1994). As the original items were created for supervisors to rate their subordinates' performance of civic virtue behaviours, the items were adapted for use in the self-report questionnaire used in the present study. One of the original six items ("helping organize get-togethers") was not included, as its meaning was not altogether clear.

Morrison's (1994) scale was chosen above that of Van Dyne et al. (1994) due to its shorter and thus more efficient length; it contained six items, rather than Van Dyne et al.'s eleven. The scale developed by Morrison (1994) also retained greater cohesion during factor analysis, separating into two factors: participation in organizational functions, and keeping informed about organizational events and changes. Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) scale separated into three factors: social participation, advocacy participation, and functional participation.

Compliance/obedience. Compliance/obedience was measured using items from the scale developed by Van Dyne et al. (1994). The original scale contained nine items with factor loadings above the recommended level; due to space considerations, the present study used the five items with the highest factor loadings to represent the construct.

This scale was chosen because of its good construct validity and test-retest reliability (.81), and suitability compared to other available measures of compliance/obedience. Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) compliance scale included items that bore a strong resemblance to the concepts of civic virtue ("attends and participates in meetings regarding the company") and loyal boosterism ("demonstrates concern about the image of the company"). Hui et al.'s (1994) compliance scale was developed for site specificity, and the items in Smith et al.'s (1983) scale of generalized compliance were worded in a manner more likely to elicit socially desirable responses (e.g., ("takes undeserved breaks") than the more neutrally-worded items in Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) measure.

Opportunity for OCB. Opportunity to perform organizational citizenship behaviours was measured with six items created for this study. Items assessed the extent to which respondents perceived that their opportunity to engage in interpersonal helping, civic virtue, and compliance/obedience behaviours was constrained by a lack of time or energy. There were no items assessing to the extent to which loyal boosterism behaviours were impeded by time or energy constraints, as this construct would appear to be the least time- and energy-consuming of the organizational citizenship behaviours under investigation.

Task performance. Task performance was measured with Robinson's (1996) two-item scale. Items were "How would you rate your own work performance?" and "How would your employer rate your work performance?". This scale was chosen for its brevity and high internal reliability alpha (.84 in the original study). The factor loading matrix for this scale can be found in Appendix C.

Independent variables

Work-home interference. Work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based work-home interference were measured with Carlson et al.'s (2000) measure of work-family conflict, described in detail in Chapter 5.

Work-home culture. Organizational work-home culture was measured using Thompson et al.'s (1999) work-home culture scale. Details of this measure can be found in Chapter 5, and the complete factor loading matrix is contained in Appendix C.

6.5.3 Analysis

The hypotheses concerning the proposed direct relationships between work-home interference and work-home culture and task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour were tested using hierarchical multiple regression. Specifically, task performance and the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour – interpersonal helping, loyal boosterism, civic virtue, and compliance/obedience – were individually regressed on the measures of work interference with home, home interference with work, behaviour-based work-home interference, managerial support, co-worker resentment, and organizational time demands.

In each of the hierarchical regression equations, several background variables were included in the analyses for control purposes: gender (male = 0/female = 1, dummy-coded), organization (Sunnydale Borough Council = 0/Durand College of Technology = 1, dummy-coded), and organizational tenure (in years). Both gender and organizational tenure have been linked to some dimensions of OCB (Kidder, 2002; Morrison, 1994), and organization was included to control for any potential differences in OCB performance resulting from variation in industry (i.e., education vs. government) or in organizational norms. Perceived organizational support was also included due to its established role in predicting task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1990; Moorman et al., 1998; Wayne et al., 1997).

For each equation, the control variables were entered in step 1, followed by the work-home interference variables in step 2 to determine whether they contributed over and above the effects of the control variables. The work-home culture variables were entered in step 3 of the equation. Changes in R^2 were used to evaluate the ability of the variables in each step to explain variance beyond that accounted for by the variables in the previous step.

To test the mediation proposed in Hypothesis 3, the procedure recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used. In this procedure, three regression models are investigated. First, the mediator (opportunity for OCB) is regressed on the independent variables (work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference); second, the dependent variable (each dimension of organizational citizenship behaviour) is regressed on the independent variables (work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference); and third, the dependent variable (each dimension of organizational citizenship behaviour) is regressed simultaneously on the independent (work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference) and mediator (opportunity for OCB) variables.

Mediation is present if the following conditions hold true: the independent variable affects the mediator in the first equation; the independent variable affects the dependent variable in the second equation; and the mediator affects the dependent variable in the third equation. The effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second. Full mediation occurs if the independent variable has no significant effect when the mediator is in the equation, and partial mediation occurs if the effect of the independent variable is smaller but significant when the mediator is in the equation.

<u>6.6 Results</u>

6.6.1 Factor analysis

Factor loadings for the Organizational citizenship behaviour, Task performance, and Opportunity for OCB scales are presented in Table 6.1. In order to establish the

conceptual distinctiveness of each scale, items measuring all three constructs were included in the factor analysis.

Table 6.1: Complete factor loading matrix for Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, Task Performance, and Opportunity for OCB scales

Item	Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I actively promote my organisation's services to potential users. LB	**.78**	.30	.05	.10	-.07	.03	.01	-.10
I show pride when representing my organisation in public. LB	**.72**	.21	.06	.12	-.13	.08	.28	-.04
I keep in mind what is best for my organisation. CV	**.61**	.07	.13	.10	-.02	..08	.16	.06
I read announcements provided by my organisation. CV	**.50**	.00	.09	.19	.04	.08	.07	.04
I encourage friends and family to utilise my organisation's services. LB	**.46**	.20	.19	.11	-.11	.00	.04	.06
I volunteer to help new employees settle into the job. IH	.08	**.69**	.06	.10	-.05	-.01	.12	.21
I always go out of my way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group. IH	.06	**.63**	.08	.18	.00	.00	.01	.09
I go out of my way to help co-workers with work-related problems. IH	.16	**.59**	-.04	.04	-.02	.00	.05	-.06
I try to show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations. IH	.14	**.47**	.19	-.03	-.07	.04	.00	.10
I frequently adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off. IH †	.14	**.38**	.11	.09	-.05	-.06	.12	-.12
At work, I produce as much as I am capable of at all times. CO	.19	.28	**.79**	-.03	-.06	.11	.03	.05
Regardless of the circumstances, I produce the highest quality possible work. CO	.08	.11	**.66**	-.03	-.23	.29	-.03	.09
I rarely waste time while I'm at work. CO	.26	.16	**.63**	.01	-.03	-.02	.02	-.03
I always come to work on time. CO	.01	-.05	**.53**	.10	.03	.07	.07	.00
I attend voluntary meetings at work. CV	.19	.23	.08	**.81**	.01	.11	.07	-.01
I attend voluntary functions at work. CV	.27	.22	-.07	**.72**	-.14	.01	-.02	-.04
I keep up with changes in my organisation. CV *	.30	-.01	.16	**.47**	-.07	.10	.12	.15
Because of other demands on my time, I don't have the opportunity to always produce the highest quality possible work (reverse scored). OPP	-.05	.10	-.18	.11	**.63**	-.22	.01	-.14
Due to constraints on my energy, I don't have the opportunity to go out of my way to help colleagues with their work (reverse scored). OPP	-.08	-.20	-.08	-.06	**.63**	-.11	-.08	-.24

Item	Factor							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I don't have the time or energy to organise or attend voluntary functions at work. (reverse scored) OPP	-.09	-.20	-.04	-.09	**.56**	-.03	-.11	-.02
Due to time constraints, I don't have the opportunity to organise or attend voluntary functions at work. (reverse scored) OPP	.00	.03	.12	-.30	**.53**	.03	-.07	-.01
I do not meet all the deadlines set by my organisation (reverse scored). CO †	-.03	.10	-.10	.13	**.26**	-.04	.03	-.21
How would you rate your own work performance? TP	.08	.03	.17	.04	-.06	**.93**	-.01	.13
How would your manager rate your work performance? TP	.12	-.05	.12	.10	-.16	**.56**	.05	-.04
I defend my organisation when other employees criticize it. LB	.32	.17	.13	.10	-.14	.01	**.79**	.11
I defend my organisation when outsiders criticize it. LB *	.49	.18	-.02	.07	-.15	.07	**.66**	-.13
I have enough time to be able to help out colleagues with work-related problems. OPP	-.04	.12	-.16	.07	-.21	-.01	.03	**.68**
I have enough energy to be highly productive at work all the time. OPP	.05	.11	.27	.02	-.13	.09	-.01	**.44**
Eigenvalue	5.99	2.62	2.12	1.95	1.55	1.21	1.18	1.15
Percent of variance explained	21.39	9.37	7.58	6.97	5.55	4.31	4.20	4.11
Total percent variance explained	**63.47**							

<u>Note</u>: IH = Interpersonal helping; LB = Loyal boosterism; CV = Civic virtue; CO = Compliance/obedience; OPP = Opportunity to perform organizational citizenship behaviours; TP = Task performance.

* Item dropped as loaded highly on more than one factor.

† Item dropped as factor loading less than .40.

One item was dropped from the Interpersonal helping scale following principal axis analysis ("I frequently adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off"), as it had a factor loading of less than .40. Two items were dropped from the Loyal boosterism scale following principal axis analysis. These items were, "I defend my organization when other employees criticize it", and "I defend my organization when outsiders criticize it". Both items loaded onto a separate factor from the remaining three items in the scale, and the second item loaded highly on more than one factor.

Principal axis analysis revealed that two of the five Civic virtue items loaded onto the same factor as the three retained items representing Loyal boosterism. These two items ("I keep in mind what is best for my organization", and "I read announcements provided by my organization") were therefore dropped from the Civic virtue scale. Another item measuring Civic virtue ("I keep up with changes in my organization") loaded highly on more than one factor and was therefore not retained.

One item was dropped from the Compliance/obedience scale following principal axis analysis ("I do not meet all the deadlines set by my organization"). This item loaded onto a separate factor from the remaining four items, and had a factor loading of less than .40.

Two items were dropped from the Opportunity for OCB scale after principal axis analysis. These items were, "I have enough energy to be highly productive at work all the time", and "I have enough time to be able to help out colleagues with work-related problems". Both items loaded onto a separate factor from the remaining four Opportunity for OCB items and were therefore not retained.

Both items in the Task performance scale loaded on the same factor and were therefore retained.

6.6.2 Descriptive statistics

The means and standard deviations of the study variables are reported in Table 6.2. Reliabilities and intercorrelations among the variables are presented in Table 6.3.

Task performance had moderate, positive correlations with three of the four OCB dimensions, but did not have a significant relationship with interpersonal helping. The correlations among all four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour were positive and significant.

Table 6.2: Means and standard deviations

Scale	Mean	SD
Task performance	5.69	0.86
Interpersonal helping	5.99	0.64
Loyal boosterism	5.22	1.03
Civic virtue	4.96	1.19
Compliance/obedience	5.95	0.86
Opportunity for OCB	4.46	1.14
Work interference with home	4.01	1.62
Home interference with work	2.21	1.00
Behaviour-based interference	3.48	1.16
Organizational time demands	3.96	1.78
Co-worker resentment	3.39	1.09
Managerial support	4.50	1.18

6.6.3 Main effects

The results from the hierarchical multiple regression analyses are presented in Table 6.4 and 6.5. Hypothesis 1 was partially supported; behaviour-based work-home interference was significantly and negatively related to task performance ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .05$). Work interference with home and home interference with work had nonsignificant relationships with task performance.

Hypothesis 2 was partially supported. While work interference with home had significant relationships with three of the four OCB dimensions, the relationships were in the opposite direction of those predicted. Work interference with home was positively related to interpersonal helping ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$), loyal boosterism ($\beta = .24$, $p < .01$), and civic virtue ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$). Home interference with work was negatively and significantly related to compliance/obedience ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .01$). Behaviour-based interference had nonsignificant relationships with three of the four OCB dimensions, but was a significant negative predictor of civic virtue ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .05$).

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Table 6.3: Intercorrelations among task performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, work-home interference, and work-home culture variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Task performance	(.72)											
2. Interpersonal helping	.05	(.71)										
3. Loyal boosterism	.18**	.37***	(.77)									
4. Civic virtue	.17**	.32***	.44***	(.83)								
5. Compliance/obedience	.28***	.26***	.32***	.16*	(.76)							
6. Opportunity for OCB	.24***	.16*	.22***	.22***	.19**	(.69)						
7. Work interference with home	-.23***	.11	.03	.04	-.06	-.49***	(.92)					
8. Home interference with work	-.13	-.12	-.20**	-.05	-.29***	-.26***	.19**	(.84)				
9. Behaviour-based interference	-.29***	-.06	-.18**	-.14*	-.17*	-.29***	.38***	.44***	(.80)			
10. Organizational time demands	-.29***	.14*	.09	-.01	.00	-.39***	.65***	.05	.23***	(.94)		
11. Co-worker resentment	-.12	-.21**	-.06	-.03	-.10	-.22***	.22***	.07	-.03	.21***	(.77)	
12. Managerial support	.34***	-.01	.09	.07	.01	.28***	-.49***	-.03	-.21**	-.63***	-.18**	(.91)

Note. $N = 223$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. The main diagonal contains Cronbach's internal consistency reliability estimates.

Table 6.4: Hierarchical regression results predicting Task performance

Independent variable	Task performance		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Sex	**.20****	**.19****	**.16***
Organization	.09	.07	.13†
Tenure	-.08	-.06	-.07
POS	**.33*****	**.27*****	.12
Work interference with home		-.02	.11
Home interference with work		-.04	-.04
Behaviour-based interference		**-.17***	**-.18***
Organizational time demands			-.16
Co-worker resentment			-.03
Managerial work-home support			**.19***
F	8.89***	6.42***	5.51***
△F	8.89***	2.81*	2.94*
△R^2	.15***	.03*	.03*
Adjusted R^2	.13***	.15***	.18***

Note. $N = 223$. $^†\,p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 were unsupported. Organizational time demands were not significantly related to either organizational citizenship behaviours or task performance. Only partial support was found for Hypothesis 6; co-worker resentment was a significant negative predictor of interpersonal helping ($\beta = -.17, p < .05$), but was unrelated to the other three dimensions of OCB. Co-worker resentment did not predict task performance, disconfirming Hypothesis 7. Partial support was found for Hypothesis 8; managerial support was a significant positive predictor of task performance ($\beta = .19, p < .05$). Managerial support was, however, unrelated to all four dimensions of OCB, providing no support for Hypothesis 9.

Table 6.5: Hierarchical regression results predicting Organizational citizenship behaviour

Independent variables	Opportunity for OCB			Interpersonal helping				Loyal boosterism			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Sex	.07	.04	.03	.10	.11	.10	.09	.02	.03	.03	.02
Organization	.00	.01	.00	.14†	.11	.05	.05	**.39*****	**.36*****	**.33*****	**.33*****
Tenure	**-.17****	**-.13***	**-.12***	.04	.04	.03	.07	-.07	-.07	-.08	-.05
POS	**.36*****	**.19****	**.24****	.01	.07	.08	**.02**	**.26*****	**.31*****	**.27****	**.21***
Work interference with home		**-.36*****	**-.35*****		**.18***	.16	**.24***		**.18***	.16†	**.24****
Home interference with work		**-.19****	**-.18****		**-.15***	-.13†	-.08		**-.18****	**-.18***	-.14†
Behaviour-based interference		-.01	-.02		-.04	-.07	-.07		-.08	-.08	-.08
Organizational time demands			.01			.21†	.21†			.13	.12
Co-worker resentment			**-.12***			**-.20****	**-.17***			-.02	.01
Managerial work-home support			-.08			.11	.13			.14	.16†
Opportunity for OCB			-				**.25****				**.24****
F	10.57***	14.56***	10.77***	1.41	2.05*	2.72**	3.47***	9.28***	7.57***	5.60***	6.26***
△F	10.57***	16.69***	1.62	1.41	2.86*	4.06**	9.83**	9.28***	4.64**	1.01	10.27**
△R²	.17***	.16***	.02	.03	.04*	.05**	.04**	.15***	.05**	.01	.04**
Adjusted R²	.15***	.31***	.32***	.01	.03*	.08**	.11***	.14***	.18***	.18***	.21***

Note. $N = 223$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 6.5 continued: Hierarchical regression results predicting Organizational citizenship behaviour

Independent variables	Civic virtue				Compliance/obedience			
	Step 1	*Step 2*	*Step 3*	*Step 4*	*Step 1*	*Step 2*	*Step 3*	*Step 4*
Sex	.09	.09	.09	.08	.08	.08	.08	.07
Organization	**.18***	**.15***	.15†	.15†	**.17***	**.16***	.15†	.15†
Tenure	.03	.04	.03	.07	.03	.05	.05	.07
POS	**.15***	**.17***	.11	.04	.09	.06	.09	.05
Work interference with home		**.16***	.19†	**.29****		-.03	-.01	.04
Home interference with work		-.03	-.03	.02		**-.25*****	**-.24****	**-.22****
Behaviour-based interference		**-.17***	**-.17***	**-.17***		-.01	-.02	-.02
Organizational time demands			.01	.01			-.01	-.01
Co-worker resentment			-.01	.03			-.08	-.07
Managerial work-home support			.11	.13			-.04	-.03
Opportunity for OCB				**.30*****				.14†
F	2.29†	2.44*	1.82†	2.99***	1.70	3.22**	2.39*	2.47**
$\triangle$F	2.29†	2.57†	0.40	13.58***	1.70	5.12**	0.51	3.08†
$\triangle$R^2	.04†	.04†	.01	.06***	.03	.07**	.01	.01†
Adjusted R^2	.02†	.05*	.04†	.09***	.01	.07**	.06*	.07**

Note. $N = 223$. $^\dagger p < .10$. $* p < .05$. $** p < .01$. $*** p < .001$.

6.6.4 Mediating effects

 The results of the mediation analyses are presented in Table 6.5. Hypothesis 3, which posited that the relationship between work-home interference and organizational citizenship behaviour was mediated by opportunity to perform organizational citizenship behaviours, received only limited support. The first condition of Baron and Kenny's (1986) test for mediation was met for two of the three types of work-home interference; work interference with home (β = -.35, p < .001 and home interference with work (β = -.18, p < .01) were significantly related to opportunity for OCB (Table 6.5, column 2). The second condition requires that work interference with home and home interference with work be significantly related to organizational citizenship behaviour. As Table 6.5 shows, work interference with home was not significantly related to any of the OCB dimensions in Step 3, while home interference with work was significantly related to loyal boosterism (β = -.18, p < .05) and compliance/obedience (β = -.24, p < .01).

The third condition stipulates that opportunity for OCB must affect organizational citizenship behaviour (Table 6.5), and when opportunity for OCB and the independent (home interference with work) variable are entered together in the equation, the effect of home interference with work must be less when opportunity for OCB is in the equation than when it is not. The results suggest that opportunity for OCB mediates the effect of home interference with work on loyal boosterism. The beta coefficient of home interference with work (β = -.14, p < .10) became non-significant when opportunity for OCB was entered into the equation.

6.7 Discussion

The aim of this chapter was to determine if work-home interference is capable of predicting both in-role task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour, either directly or, in the case of organizational citizenship behaviour, via the mediating variable of perceived opportunity to perform organizational citizenship behaviours. The capacity of work-home culture to contribute to task performance and organizational citizenship behaviour was also explored.

While behaviour-based interference was the only dimension of work-home interference to predict task performance, all three dimensions of interference emerged as significant predictors of OCB. Opportunity to perform OCB was instrumental in predicting three of the four dimensions of citizenship behaviour, but mediated the relationship only between home interference with work and loyal boosterism. Only limited support was found for the proposed links between work-home culture and employee performance, with managerial support predicting in-role performance, and co-worker resentment predicting interpersonal helping.

6.7.1 Work-home interference

Work-home interference was, on the whole, not a major predictor of in-role task performance. Neither work interference with home nor home interference with work was significantly related to task performance. Behaviour-based interference, however, was a significant negative predictor; individuals reporting an incompatibility between the behaviours they used at work and those used at home were more likely to report lower levels of task performance. Employees whose behaviours at home are inappropriate at work may find their task performance declining when attempts are made to integrate their behaviours across domains.

Work interference with home was a significant, positive predictor of interpersonal helping, loyal boosterism, and civic virtue. As the relationships between these variables were hypothesized to be negative, these results are surprising. Employees experiencing a spillover of work-related time and strain demands into their personal lives might be expected to devote less, rather than more, time and energy to performing non-compulsory workplace behaviours. There are several potential explanations for these unexpected findings. Firstly, the hypothesized direction of causality may in fact be reversed. Employees who spend more time assisting their co-workers and participating in voluntary work activities may find that these increased actions on the job result in less time and energy available for responsibilities at home. An alternative explanation for the positive relationship between work interference with home and interpersonal helping is that the experience of work interfering with one's personal life may render an employee more sensitive to the plight of his or her

co-workers. Feelings of empathy and of solidarity may induce an employee to help others who are "in the same boat" (see Lee & Murnighan, 2001).

In the case of loyal boosterism, employees experiencing work interference with home may be more inclined to publicly endorse their organization and promote its services to others as a means of justifying the negative effect wielded by the organization on the employees' personal lives. Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance holds that individuals will seek to resolve any incompatibility between attitudes, or between attitudes and behaviours, by adjusting either of the two. Employees who believe their work negatively affects their home life, but who continue to work for their employing organization, may seek to advocate the organization and its services as a means of persuading themselves and others that it is a great place to work, and that its effects on employees' home lives are therefore worthwhile.

Alternatively, the link between work interference with home and loyal boosterism, as well as that between work interference with home and civic virtue, may be due to a third variable not measured in this study: job involvement. Employees with high levels of job involvement have been found to report more work interference with home (Adams et al., 1996; Wallace, 1999), and are also more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours (Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin, & Lord, 1999). It is possible that a high degree of job involvement among participants of the present study who reported elevated levels of work interference with home and participation in OCB was responsible for the association between interference and citizenship. Future research may wish to examine the moderating role of job involvement in the relationship between work interference with home and OCB.

Home interference with work was negatively related to compliance/obedience, lending support to the hypothesis that individuals whose home responsibilities are intruding upon their work may allocate time and energy resources to dealing with these demands, leaving fewer of these personal resources available to obey organizational rules and regulations to the letter.

A negative relationship was also found between behaviour-based interference and civic virtue. This suggests that employees concerned by a perceived clash between

work-oriented and home-oriented behaviours may have fewer mental and emotional resources to devote to behaviours not formally required of them, such as attending voluntary meetings or keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization. These resources may instead be allocated to efforts to compartmentalize work and home behaviours, as a means of coping with their perceived incompatibility.

6.7.2 Opportunity for OCB

Employees with higher levels of perceived opportunity to participate in organizational citizenship were more likely to report engaging in interpersonal helping, loyal boosterism, and civic virtue behaviours. Together with the findings of Gellatly and Irving (2001) and Farh et al. (2002), this adds support to the notion that situational constraints play an important role in predicting employee participation in citizenship behaviours. Perceived opportunity did not, however, mediate work-home interference as was expected. Only the influence of home interference with work on loyal boosterism was mediated by perceived opportunity to engage in OCB. It appears that employees whose home responsibilities take up time and energy at the workplace are apt to perceive that this interference impedes their ability to assist co-workers with problems, or to promote their organization's services to others. This suggests a fixed amount of resources available for use in a given domain. Employees whose resources have been allocated to one activity (i.e., home responsibilities) do not have sufficient resources left to engage in another activity (i.e., contextual behaviour). As a result, they engage in fewer OCB's.

It is surprising that perceived opportunity for OCB did not mediate the impact of home interference with work on interpersonal helping, civic virtue, or compliance, or, indeed, the impact of behaviour-based interference on any of the four dimensions of OCB. These relationships appear to be direct, without any intervening variables. It may be that the effects of home interference with work and behaviour-based interference on organizational citizenship behaviour are mediated by something other than perceived opportunity for OCB. Employees experiencing high levels of these dimensions of interference may simply have less desire to engage in contextual behaviour in addition to their existing commitments. Or, dispositional characteristics such as conscientiousness may moderate the link between interference and contextual

performance, such that conscientious individuals will be more likely to perform citizenship behaviours regardless of whether or not home interference work or behaviour-based interference are also competing for their time and energy resources.

6.7.3 Work-home culture

Work-home culture explained only a small amount of variance in task performance. Managerial support did, however, emerge as a significant predictor of individual task performance; individuals reporting higher levels of managerial support were also apt to report higher levels of task performance. These individuals may be operating according to the norm of reciprocity, and responding to their managers' support with increased performance on the job. Or, managerial support may simply help to remove structural barriers to high performance caused by interference between work and home, such as time pressures or strain.

Work-home culture did not explain significant additional variance in three of the four OCB dimensions, but did account for additional variance in interpersonal helping. Co-worker resentment was a key predictor of interpersonal helping. Respondents who perceived that their efforts to balance work and home were resented by their colleagues were significantly less likely to report assisting those colleagues with work-related problems, or showing courtesy and concern for colleagues even under difficult business or personal conditions. Interpreted in the light of social exchange theory, this is eminently logical; there is nothing to be gained from investing resources in those who do not reciprocate.

Although no variance in loyal boosterism was explained by work-home culture, perceived organizational support was a significant predictor of this dimension of OCB. Individuals who felt that their values, opinions, and well-being were important to their organization reported more instances of actively promoting that organization to others and showing pride whilst representing it. For this dimension of OCB, a more generalized version of organizational support is evidently more important in promoting citizenship behaviour than is a targeted measure of support for work-home issues. A 2002 study by Behson found that work-home organizational support failed to predict job satisfaction and affective commitment when measures of more general

organizational support were also included in the analyses. He concluded that work-home context is important in explaining variance in work-home specific outcomes, such as work-home interference, but not in broader organizational outcomes. The findings of this chapter show mixed support for this deduction. Work-home culture did not explain significant additional variance beyond perceived organizational support in three of the four OCB dimensions, but the impact of perceived organizational support on task performance was significantly reduced once measures of work-home culture were included in the regression equation. It seems that work-home context is indeed capable of predicting more general organizational outcomes, if only to a moderate degree.

The results of this chapter suggest that the organization-related outcomes of work-home interference are more numerous than has previously been assumed. In addition to reducing employee attendance and retention (Anderson et al., 2002; Greenhaus et al., 1997), interference between work and home has now been shown to significantly reduce employees' opportunities to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours, and the degree to which employees' responsibilities at home intrude upon the workplace has negative repercussions for their actual participation in loyal boosterism and compliance/obedience behaviours. Individuals whose behaviour at work is incompatible with their behaviour at home are also more likely to report decreased levels of task performance as well as civic virtue behaviours. These findings indicate that the costs to organizations of employee work-home interference are greater than has heretofore been supposed. Because task performance and organizational citizenship behaviours have important ramifications for organizational performance (Podsakoff et al., 1997), it follows that the home interference with work and behaviour-based interference of an organization's workforce is likely to compromise organizational effectiveness, and that there is considerable incentive for organizations to formulate and implement effective solutions to the problem of employee work-home interference.

The findings of this chapter also extend existing research on organizational citizenship behaviour, by going beyond the traditional focus on POS and other manifestations of favourable organizational treatment as the main antecedents to OCB and identifying work-home interference as a predictor of employee participation in citizenship

behaviours. The identification of opportunity for OCB as a situational constraint on the performance of citizenship behaviours is also of interest, as only job autonomy has yet been studied as a restricting influence on employees' ability to perform OCB. The implications of these findings for the field of organizational citizenship behaviour will be discussed in detail in Chapter 9.

6.8 Limitations

The chief limitation of this chapter is the cross-sectional design of the study, which precludes any firm conclusions regarding the causality of the work interference with home-OCB relationship. While work interference with home may indeed explain an employee's participation in citizenship behaviour, it is also possible that engaging in extra-role behaviours contributes to an employee's work interference with home. Future longitudinal research is necessary to address issues of directionality between these two variables.

It is possible that the items in the scale used to measure task performance did not emphasize sufficiently to respondents that only their in-role performance was of interest. As a result, responses to the task performance items may have incorporated the study participants' assessments of both their task *and* contextual performance. Morrison (1994) found that the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviours was not clearly defined for many employees, and varied from one employee to the next and between employees and supervisors. Results from a study by Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, and Purcell (2004) indicate that employees who perceive a high degree of mutual commitment between themselves and their organization will define their job responsibilities more broadly, to include what are commonly viewed as "extra-role" behaviours, and that this increased job breadth influences the extent to which individuals engage in citizenship behaviour. While the present study's measure of task performance did correlate significantly with loyal boosterism, civic virtue, and compliance/obedience, however, the correlations were of low to moderate strength and did not indicate substantial overlap among the constructs.

It is worth noting that neither measures of perceived organizational support nor work-home culture explained significant variance in civic virtue and compliance/obedience.

It may be that, as Konovsky and Organ (1996) have suggested, individual differences play a greater role in contributing to an employee's actions in obeying rules and regulations beyond the call of duty than do attitudinal or situational factors.

A low amount of variance overall was explained in civic virtue. It would appear that the key antecedents of this construct are attitudinal and dispositional variables not included in the present study. For example, Morrison (1994) found civic virtue best predicted by affective and normative commitment, while Van Dyne et al. (1994) concluded that significant determinants of civic virtue were cynicism, values, and job satisfaction, mediated by employee perceptions of the reciprocal relationship between the employee and the organization.

6.9 Conclusion

The results of this chapter indicate that work-home-related factors play a small to moderate role in predicting in-role task performance and employee participation in organizational citizenship behaviours. Of the three type of work-home interference, only behaviour-based interference emerged as a significant predictor of task performance. In the case of organizational citizenship behaviour, links were found between work interference with home and interpersonal helping, loyal boosterism, and civic virtue; between home interference with work and compliance; and between behaviour-based interference and civic virtue. Although perceived opportunity to perform OCB was found to be a significant antecedent of organizational citizenship behaviour, it mediated only the relationship between home interference with work and the OCB dimension of loyal boosterism.

Managerial support emerged as a key predictor of task performance, with work-home culture explaining a small but significant amount of variance in the construct. Work-home culture was not shown to be a meaningful determinant of three of the four dimensions of OCB. Interpersonal helping, however, had a significant amount of variance explained by work-home culture, with co-worker resentment emerging as a main predictor.

In the present chapter, the effect of work-home interference on "functional" workplace behaviours has been investigated. The next chapter will explore the potential "dysfunctional" behavioural outcomes of work-home interference. Both work-home interference and the perceived fairness of work-home benefits will be considered as potential antecedents to workplace deviance, and their direct and interactional effects on deviance examined.

Chapter 7 - Deviance Outcomes of Work-Home Interference

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7.2 Deviance as an outcome of work-home interference

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7.9 Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, in-role and extra-role job performance were explored as behavioural outcomes of work-home interference. This chapter proposes to build on those findings by examining the effect of work-home interference on participation in another type of workplace behaviour: deviance.

Interference between the domains of work and home can produce a number of detrimental work-related outcomes. Research has found employees experiencing work-home interference to exhibit decreased levels of organizational commitment (Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996; O'Driscoll et al., 1992), and increased intention to turnover (Greenhaus et al., 2001; Kelloway et al., 1999). As was noted in the previous chapter, work-home interference also has negative effects on employee behaviour in the workplace. Individuals with high levels of work-home interference tend to be absent from work more often (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Eagle et al., 1998; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999), and are less productive when they are present (Parasuraman et al., 1992).

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the role of work-home interference in predicting deviant behaviour at work. It investigates the possibility that individuals experiencing more interference between work and home will be more likely to engage in workplace deviance than those experiencing lower levels of work-home interference. This study also examines how employee perceptions of fairness regarding organizational work-home options affect workplace deviance, and whether employees' attribution of responsibility for interference influences their propensity to participate in deviant acts. The proposed relationships among these variables are illustrated in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1: Hypothesized model of relationships among work-home interference, attribution of responsibility for interference, organizational justice, and workplace deviance variables
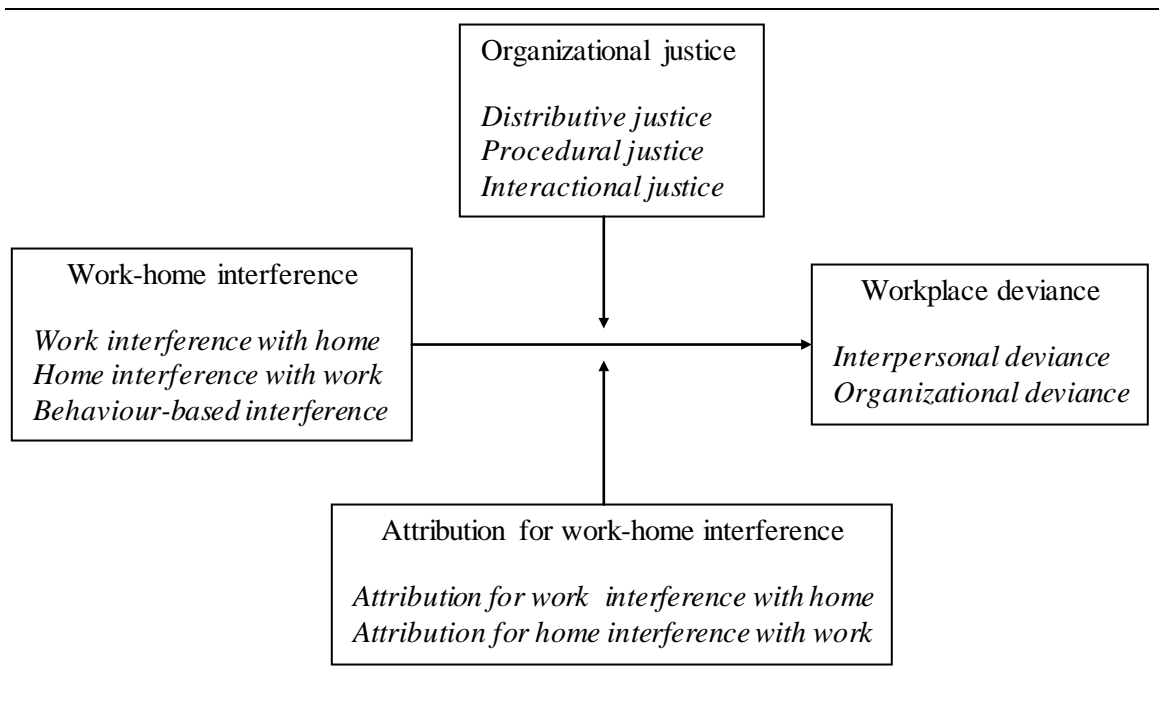
7.2 Deviance as an outcome of work-home interference

Workplace deviance is defined as voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and threatens the well-being of the organization and/or its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Despite being an under-researched topic in organizational behaviour (e.g., Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998), it is nonetheless an important one, given its costs for both organizations and individual employees. Theft, legal expenses, insurance losses, and damage and waste of property incur significant expenses for organizations (Bensimon, 1994; Filipczak, 1993), while individual employees who find themselves targets of hostile behaviour in the workplace are more likely to experience low morale, reduced productivity, and stress symptomology (O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996).

Antecedents to, or provocations of, workplace deviance include both personal characteristics - such as dispositional aggressiveness (Burroughs, 2002), negative affectivity (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999), and alcohol use (Greenberg & Barling, 1999) - and features of the workplace, including perceptions of injustice (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), work group norms (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), and stressors such as role ambiguity, role conflict, and interpersonal conflict (Chen & Spector, 1992). Interference between work and home is itself a situational factor that is often conceptualized as a stressor, having been shown to increase levels of strain among those experiencing it (O'Driscoll et al., 1992). From this perspective, it is reasonable to surmise that work-home interference might also contribute to workplace deviance.

Robinson and Bennett (1997) proposed two distinct motivations for deviance in the workplace. The first, an instrumental motivation, is employed in order to resolve any disparity between current conditions and desired conditions produced by these provocations, or stressors, in the workplace. In this case, deviance is intended to repair the situation or to restore equity; e.g., by taking unauthorized breaks to gossip with colleagues about a supervisor, an employee may alleviate the pressure of a call-centre job requiring constant interaction with customers.

The second, expressive, motivation reflects the need to release feelings of outrage or frustration associated with these situational stressors. This approach is supported by the Dollard-Miller frustration-aggression theory (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939, cited in Fox & Spector, 1999), which holds that when an individual's predicted behavioural sequence is interrupted, the resulting frustration is often met with some degree of aggression. An individual who is scheduled to attend an important meeting at work, but who must cancel at the last minute because of a childcare emergency, may express his or her frustration by means of aggressive behaviour such as speaking brusquely to a colleague or slamming the phone receiver into its cradle.

Both instrumental and expressive motivations may prompt employees experiencing work-home interference to perform deviant acts. For example, an employee whose work

prevents him from spending as much time as he wishes with his family may attempt to repair the situation, and transform current conditions into desired conditions, by engaging in deviant behaviours. He may reclaim time for his personal life by coming into work late without permission, or by using work time or work resources for personal purposes. Alternatively, the same employee might react to the frustration induced by work interference with home by cursing at or speaking rudely to co-workers, or by spending time on the job fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.

Peters and O'Connor (1980) describe frustrating events as situational constraints in the work domain that prevent individuals from achieving valued work goals or attaining effective performance. An individual whose personal life is interfering in some way with the performance of his or her work tasks - e.g., who must spend the better part of a workday on the telephone trying to arrange last-minute alternative daycare provision for an elderly relative, or whose mental preoccupation with a friend's substance abuse problem renders concentration on job duties difficult - may react by expressing frustration via the medium of deviant workplace behaviour. Conversely, engaging in deviant behaviour may be an attempt to resolve the disparity between existing and desired conditions. For instance, if tension and fatigue from an employee's personal life are spilling over into the work domain, he or she may deliberately put little effort into work or neglect to follow a supervisor's instructions in an attempt to recover energy and reduce the overall amount of demands in his or her life.

As discussed in earlier chapters, there is a paucity of research on behaviour-based work-home interference. The present thesis treats behaviour-based interference as a distinct construct, due to the results of the factor analysis of the work-home interference measures used in this study (presented in Chapter 5). However, given the lack of theoretical development and empirical investigation of this construct, the hypotheses in this chapter concerning behaviour-based interference are exploratory in nature.

As well as explaining the potential link between home interference with work and workplace deviance, frustrating events may also be responsible for a connection between

behaviour-based work-home interference and deviance. Individuals whose behaviour at home is perceived to be ineffective at work may not always be successful in their efforts to thoroughly compartmentalize the two sets of behaviours, and any performance of a home-oriented behaviour at work may operate as a situational constraint preventing these individuals from attaining effective performance levels on the job. The results of Chapter 6, which demonstrated that behaviour-based interference was negatively related to job performance, provide supporting evidence for this proposition. In response to the frustration generated by this situational constraint, employees may participate in deviant acts such as verbal hostility towards co-workers, or theft of organizational property.

An alternative framework for the potential link between behaviour-based interference and workplace deviance is predicated upon Robinson and Bennett's (1997) proposition of instrumental motivation for deviance. Employees experiencing behaviour-based interference may attempt to transform current, undesirable conditions (incongruity between work-oriented and home-oriented behaviours) into desired conditions (integration of behaviour across domains). If an employee habitually swears, makes ethnic or sexist jokes, or exerts little effort in his or her personal life, but this behaviour is considered inappropriate at work, he or she may seek to resolve the behavioural discrepancy between domains by amalgamating both sets of behaviours, and behaving in the same way at work and at home. This may result in the performance of behaviours at work that are considered deviant.

Hypothesis 1: Employees experiencing greater levels of work-home interference will report engaging in more instances of workplace deviance.

7.3 Moderating effects of justice

Simply experiencing interference between work and home may not be enough to motivate an individual to engage in deviant behaviour. Employees' perceptions of fairness regarding the organization's efforts to help them with work-home interference may influence their decisions to take action against the organization. Organizational assistance with

work-home interference generally takes the form of work-home option provision, i.e., flexible working practices designed to assist employees achieve greater balance between their work and home roles. These practices include job-sharing, reduced hours, and compassionate leave.

Fairness perceptions are known to predict workplace deviance, both directly (Aquino et al., 1999; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001) and in combination with dispositional variables (Henle, 2002; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999). The most prevalent explanation for this relationship derives from theories of social exchange. The norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) states that individuals reward others the way that others reward them (Johns, 1996), and Blau's social exchange theory (1964) argues that social relationships can be viewed as exchange processes in which individuals make investments for which they expect certain outcomes (Mowday, 1996). One of the most prominent social exchange theories is Adams' (1965) equity theory, which holds that employees who feel their employers have treated them unfairly will seek restitution by means of theft, reduced effort on the job, or other counterproductive behaviours. This premise is supported by research investigating distributive justice, which concerns perceptions of fairness associated with the distribution of outcomes received by employees. DeMore, Fisher, and Baron (1988) found that perceptions of unfair treatment from authorities predicted employee vandalism, and concluded that this was a form of inequity reduction. Greenberg and Scott (1996) ascertained that perceptions of underpayment predicted instances of employee theft. This approach is consistent with Robinson and Bennett's (1997) conceptualization of instrumental motivation for workplace deviance. No research has yet captured the underlying motivation for deviance, however, and both instrumental and expressive motivations may operate concurrently.

Another rationale for the link between organizational justice and workplace deviance is provided by Fox et al. (2001), who conceptualize organizational injustice as a job stressor, and deviance as a behavioural response to stress at work. In Lazarus' (1995) transactional model of stress, individuals evaluate situations as being stressful, benign, or irrelevant. Stressful events are seen as threats to one's well-being and can include job stressors, such

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as unfair treatment, that induce negative emotional reactions. These reactions produce strain, which can manifest itself as psychological, physical, or behavioural (such as smoking or withdrawal from work). According to Fox et al. (2001), workplace deviance is a form of behavioural strain, and can result from not only distributive injustices but also those associated with interpersonal treatment and organizational decision-making procedures. This approach is compatible with Robinson and Bennett's (1997) notion of expressive motivation for deviance, which holds that deviance is a manifestation of frustration associated with situational stressors such as injustice.

Most measures of justice are concerned with pay, workload, or general assessments of procedures, outcomes, and interpersonal treatment throughout the organization (e.g., Aquino et al., 1999; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). To date, there has been limited research assessing fairness perceptions of organizational work-home options, and this work has primarily investigated antecedents to perceived fairness (Mosier, Naranjo, & Yasuda, 2002; Parker & Allen, 2001; Young, 1999). There has been no research involving multidimensional justice perceptions of work-home options, or how these perceptions might influence workplace deviance.

7.3.1 Distributive justice

Distributive justice regarding rewards for work inputs has been negatively linked to both interpersonal (Aquino et al., 1999) and organizational deviance (Fox et al., 2001). It is reasonable to suppose that employees experiencing interference between work and home would be more likely to engage in deviant workplace behaviours if they perceived that they did not have fair access to the work-home options provided by their organization, options in place ostensibly to help them resolve such interference. For example, if an employee experiencing home interference with work perceived that he or she was not being given fair access to flexible working hours, he or she might respond by coming in to work late without permission, taking longer breaks than is acceptable, or otherwise creating his or her own flexibility in order to restore equity and repair the situation.

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Hypothesis 2: Distributive justice will moderate the relationship between work-home interference and workplace deviance in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for individuals who perceive low levels of distributive justice.

7.3.2 Procedural justice

Procedural justice refers to the fairness of an organization's procedures for making decisions. Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry (1980) suggested that procedures are fair to the extent that the decision-making process shows evidence of voice, consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, correctability, representativeness, and ethicality. Cropanzano and Folger (1989) proposed that if the procedures responsible for undesirable outcomes are perceived as unfair, employees are more likely to engage in retaliatory behaviour. Negative associations have been found between general procedural justice and both interpersonal (Bennett & Robinson, 2000) and organizational deviance (Fox et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1993). An employee's inclination to behave in a counterproductive manner may be accentuated if he or she believes that the procedures in place for allocating work-home options designed to reduce his or her work-home interference are unfair. In such a case, deviance may be a means of retaliating against the organization or of expressing the strain produced by the combination of work-home interference and unfair workplace procedures.

Hypothesis 3: Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between work-home interference and workplace deviance in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for individuals who perceive low levels of procedural justice.

7.3.3 Interactional justice

Interactional justice involves the quality of interpersonal treatment experienced by employees, and includes assessments of the degree of respect and dignity with which employees are treated by authorities involved in implementing procedures or allocating outcomes, and the honesty and thoroughness of explanations provided by authorities for decisions or outcomes affecting employees. Interactional justice has been negatively

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linked to both interpersonal and organizational deviance (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000). If an employee is undergoing interference between work and home and perceives that his organization is not providing candid and full explanations regarding the availability of work-home options designed to reduce this interference, he might be more inclined to react negatively toward the organization and/or its members. It is also conceivable that work-home interference would be more likely to provoke deviant behaviour if it were compounded by the stress of perceived ill-treatment by an immediate supervisor or manager. In such a case, an employee might feel entirely justified in putting little effort into his or her work, or ignoring a supervisor's instructions.

> Hypothesis 4: Interactional justice will moderate the relationship between work-home interference and workplace deviance in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for individuals who perceive low levels of interactional justice.

Most organizational work-home options are designed to reduce the time pressures associated with balancing work and home responsibilities, as well as the strain generated by these time pressures. Because these options are not explicitly intended to resolve the incompatibility of work and home behaviours characteristic of behaviour-based interference, it is doubtful that fairness perceptions related to these options would impact the relationship between behaviour-based interference and its outcomes. For this reason, fairness perceptions will not be investigated as moderators of the link between behaviour-based interference and workplace deviance.

7.4 Moderating effect of attribution for work-home interference

Interference from work to home is a situational factor whose origins lay primarily in the work domain (see Chapter 4 of this thesis; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Wallace, 1999). Some individuals, however, may not regard their employing organization as being chiefly responsible for their work interference with home. Employees who enjoy working long hours, or who feel compelled for personal reasons rather than by organizational pressures

to devote time and energy to work concerns while at home, may attribute any work-to-home interference they experience to themselves rather than the organization.

Home interference with work is customarily ascribed to an individual's family or personal responsibilities (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Gignac et al., 1996; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). When personal responsibilities impinge upon the workplace, this is usually attributed to the nature of the responsibilities and not to the nature of the organization and its demands upon employees. The results of Chapter 4, however, demonstrate that elements of the workplace such as role expectations or hours worked can play a key part in affecting levels of home interference with work. Employees who feel pressured to work long hours and prioritize work over family may therefore attribute their home interference with work to their employing organization rather than to their own domestic situation.

According to Bies, Tripp, and Kramer (1997), the expressive motivation for deviance described by Robinson and Bennett (1997) can be experienced by an employee as a desire to exact revenge on the individuals or organization held responsible for the stressors. If this is the case, then an employee who attributes his or her work-home interference to the organization will be more likely to respond to it with deviant behaviour than would an employee who feels personally responsible for any interference experienced between work and home. For example, an individual whose home is interfering with his or her work life and who blames the organization for this stressor may choose to retaliate against the organization, either by lashing out against co-workers or through theft or work slowdowns. An employee who blames himself or herself for not setting clear boundaries between work and home and thereby feels responsible for the degree to which home interferes with his or her work life may be less inclined to strike out against the organization. He or she may, in fact, feel obliged to behave impeccably at work in order to compensate for the intrusion of his or her personal responsibilities, and therefore avoid engaging in deviant acts.

Hypothesis 5: Attribution for work-home interference will moderate the relationship between work-home interference and workplace deviance in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for individuals who report to a greater degree that their organizations are responsible for their work-home interference.

Robinson and Bennett (1997) surmised that the two types of workplace deviance, interpersonal and organizational, are likely to be predicted by different factors. Specifically, if an employee's deviant behaviour is provoked by an individual, the employee will be apt to direct his or her behaviour toward that individual. If the organization is seen to be the cause of the provocation, the employee will be liable to engage in behaviours directed toward the organization. There is some indication that this may be the case (Giacalone, Riordan, & Rosenfeld, 1997), but evidence also exists to suggest that the two types of deviance may share common antecedents (Aquino et al., 1999). To date, little research has been conducted to verify Robinson and Bennett's (1997) proposition. The present study will examine the effect of one set of predictor variables upon both interpersonal and organizational deviance in order to determine if predictors do indeed vary across type of deviance.

7.5 Method

7.5.1 Sample

At the time of data collection, Sunnydale Borough Council offered a number of work-home options to its employees. These consisted of flexible working hours, the opportunity to work from home, sharing a full-time job with another employee, voluntary reduced work hours, a maternity returnees policy, and compassionate leave of absence. Efforts were made to ensure that each practice was accessible to as many employees as possible. Durand College, however, had not yet implemented any work-home practices beyond the provision of an on-site childcare centre, for which a fixed number of places were available only to employees with guardianship of young children.

The relationships among work-home interference, justice, and workplace deviance postulated in this chapter are predicated upon fairness perceptions related to work-home options. There is no reason to suppose that more general perceptions of organizational justice, for example, those related to pay, would moderate the effect of a specific type of predictor, work-home interference, on the dependent variable of deviance. For this reason, only data collected from employees of Sunnydale Borough Council were used in the analyses for this chapter, yielding an effective sample size of 111.

7.5.2 Measures

For all items in each of the scales used in this chapter, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements on a seven-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 7.

Dependent variable

Workplace deviance was measured using items from the self-report scale created by Bennett and Robinson (2000). This was one of the few existing validated measures of workplace deviance, and was designed to be generalizable across many organizational settings. It assessed all four dimensions of deviance (property, production, political, and interpersonal aggression), and distinguished between deviance targeted at the organization ("Organizational deviance") and deviance directed at individuals ("Interpersonal deviance") with two separate subscales. The interpersonal deviance subscale was originally composed of seven items in Bennett and Robinson's (2000) study, but due to space constraints, the five items with the highest factor loadings in the original study were chosen to represent the variable in the present thesis. Organizational deviance was measured using eight of the twelve items developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000).

Independent variables

Work-home interference was measured with Carlson et al.'s (2000) measure of work-family conflict, described in detail in Chapter 5.

Organizational justice was measured using items adapted from the multidimensional scale developed by Colquitt (2001), who provided evidence of the original scales' predictive and discriminant validity. Employees of Sunnydale Borough Council had access to a variety of work-home options offered by their organization, which presented the opportunity to measure fairness perceptions related to the allocation of, access to, and information about these options. Colquitt's (2001) measures of procedural, distributive, and interactional justice were modified accordingly. Factor loadings for these scales are presented in Table 7.3.

Distributive justice was gauged using four items assessing the degree to which respondents felt that their access to work-home options reflected their need for and desire to use them (e.g., "My access to work-home options is justified, given my personal or family circumstances").

Procedural justice was measured with seven items evaluating the presence of voice, consistency, accuracy, appeal processes, bias, and ethical treatment in Sunnydale Borough Council's procedures for allocating work-home options (e.g., flexitime, reduced hours, working from home).

Interactional justice was assessed with nine items evaluating the degree to which respondents were treated with dignity and respect by their supervisors, and provided with thorough and timely information regarding the work-home options available in Sunnydale Borough Council (e.g., "My manager treats me in a polite manner"; "My organisation has been candid in its communications with me regarding the availability of work-home options").

Attribution for work-home interference was measured with a four-item scale devised specifically for this study, adapted from an existing scale developed by Karuza, Zevon, Rabinowitz, and Brickman (1982) to measure attribution of responsibility for helping by both helpers and recipients of help. Items asked respondents to indicate whether they felt

that they or their employing organization was primarily responsible for and could best prevent one domain of their life interfering with the other.

7.5.3 Analysis

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses. For each equation, the justice variables were entered in step 1, followed by the work-home interference variables in step 2 to determine whether or not they contributed over and above the effects of justice. The interaction terms were entered in step 3, permitting the significance of the interactions to be determined after controlling for the main effects of the independent variables. The predictor variables were centred before forming interaction terms, in order to reduce the multicollinearity often associated with regression equations containing interaction terms (Aiken and West, 1991). Changes in R^2 were used to evaluate the ability of the interaction terms to explain variance beyond that accounted for by the main effects in the equation.

Significant interactions were probed using procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991). The regression equation was restructured to represent the regression of workplace deviance on work interference with home, or home interference with work, at different levels of organizational justice. Low, medium, and high values of justice were established (Cohen & Cohen, 1983) and entered into the transformed regression equation so as to calculate three regression equations. Low, medium, and high values of justice were calculated as one standard deviation below the mean, the mean, and one standard deviation above the mean, respectively. T-tests were then performed on simple slopes of the equations to determine if they differed from zero.

No interaction terms were formed with behaviour-based interference and attribution for interference. The scales measuring attribution for work-home interference were designed to distinguish between the two directions of interference: work interference with home, and home interference with work. As the behaviour-based interference scale combines the two directions, it was not possible to examine any interactions between behaviour-based

interference and attribution for interference. Direct effects of behaviour-based interference were still explored, however.

7.6 Results

7.6.1 Factor analysis

Factor loadings for the workplace deviance scale are presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Complete factor loading matrix for Workplace Deviance scales

Item	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Acted rudely toward someone at work	**.68**	.11	.27	.10
Cursed at someone at work	**.68**	-.07	.15	-.09
Said something hurtful to someone at work	**.66**	.11	.10	.16
Made fun of someone at work	**.59**	.17	-.03	.01
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	**.52**	.19	-.03	.22
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	.17	**.68**	.11	-.01
Put little effort into your work	.07	**.66**	.19	.13
Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	.19	**.63**	.26	.10
Discussed confidential work-related information with an unauthorized person	-.02	**.36**	.16	.30
Come in late to work without permission	.10	.12	**.70**	.07
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	.08	.34	**.67**	.08
Neglected to follow your supervisor's instructions	.15	.37	**.48**	.16
Taken property from work without permission	.20	.12	.13	**.80**
Eigenvalue	4.04	1.93	1.17	1.04
Percent of variance explained	31.04	14.85	8.97	7.99
Total percent variance explained	**62.85**			

The results indicated a four-factor solution, with organizational deviance items distributed among three factors. Because this is an established scale designed to assess only two components of workplace deviance, a second factor analysis was conducted, forcing the items to load on two factors. This step of forcing items to load on a specified number of factors is not uncommon (e.g., Scott & Bruce, 1994). The factors and their loadings are presented in Table 7.2.

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Seven of the eight items measuring organizational deviance loaded onto one factor with eigenvalues greater than 1, and were chosen to represent the variable. One item, "Taken property from work without permission", was dropped due to a low factor loading.

Table 7.2: Two-factor loading matrix for Workplace Deviance scales

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	**.66**	.19
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	**.64**	.11
Put little effort into your work	**.64**	.08
Neglected to follow your supervisor's instructions	**.61**	.17
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	**.55**	.16
Come in late to work without permission	**.48**	.14
Discussed confidential work-related information with an unauthorized person	**.45**	.02
Taken property from work without permission * †	**.32**	.25
Acted rudely toward someone at work	.25	**.70**
Said something hurtful to someone at work	.16	**.68**
Cursed at someone at work	.00	**.65**
Made fun of someone at work	.10	**.57**
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	.17	**.53**
Eigenvalue	4.05	1.93
Percent of variance explained	31.13	14.83
Total percent variance explained	**45.96**	

* Item dropped as loaded highly on more than one factor.
† Item dropped as factor loading less than .40.

Factor loadings for the organizational justice scales are presented in Table 7.3. Principal axis analysis revealed that the interactional dimension of justice separated into two factors, with four items measuring supervisors' respectful treatment of employees (interpersonal justice), and five items measuring the provision of comprehensive information regarding work-home options (informational justice). This is consistent with Colquitt's (2001) and Greenberg's (1990) findings regarding the dimensionality of interactional justice, and so the two factors were retained.

Four varimax-rotated factors emerged during principal axis analysis, and the four-factor structure explained 72.87% of the total variance, which is well above the minimum acceptable target of 60% recommended by Hinkin (1998) for newly developed scales. Factor loadings ranged from .48 to .92. Two of the procedural justice items ("These procedures are applied consistently to all employees" and "I have been able to express my views and feelings during these procedures") also loaded moderately highly on the informational justice factor (.32 and .31, respectively). Overall, however, the results indicated that the four types of organizational justice are separate and distinct constructs.

Table 7.3: Complete factor loading matrix for Organizational Justice scales

Item	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
These procedures are based on accurate information.	**.84**	.14	.11	.24
These procedures are free of bias.	**.84**	.06	.09	.23
These procedures are applied consistently to all employees.	**.72**	.06	.03	.32
These procedures uphold ethical and moral standards.	**.70**	.07	.12	.18
I am able to appeal the outcome arrived at by these procedures.	**.64**	.10	.06	.08
I have influence over the outcome arrived at by these procedures.	**.50**	.22	.19	.21
I have been able to express my views and feelings during these procedures.	**.48**	.10	.18	.31
My access to work-home options is justified, given my personal or family circumstances.	.13	**.92**	.12	.03
My access to work-home options reflects my desire to use them.	.11	**.92**	.07	.02
My access to work-home options is appropriate for my personal or family situation.	.15	**.91**	.05	.05
My access to work-home options reflects my need for such options.	.14	**.88**	.04	.11
My manager treats me with dignity.	.15	.08	**.92**	.18
My manager treats me with respect.	.16	.10	**.92**	.17
My manager treats me in a polite manner.	.13	.03	**.89**	.17
My manager refrains from making improper remarks or comments.	.08	.07	**.74**	.03
My organisation has communicated details of its work-home options in a timely manner.	.16	.02	.13	**.81**
My organisation has explained its work-home options thoroughly.	.34	.05	.10	**.77**
My organisation's explanations of its work-home options are reasonable.	.45	.11	.16	**.67**
My organisation has been candid in its communications with me regarding the availability of work-home options.	.17	.00	.04	**.64**
My organisation seems to tailor its communications regarding work-home options to individuals' specific needs.	.28	.11	.25	**.51**
Eigenvalue	7.24	3.12	2.67	1.55
Percent of variance explained	36.19	15.60	13.34	7.74
Total percent variance explained	72.87			

Factor loadings for the attribution for work-home interference scale are presented in Table 7.4. Principal axis analysis revealed the existence of two distinct factors: attribution for work interference with home, and attribution for home interference with work.

Table 7.4: Complete factor loading matrix for Attribution for work-home interference scale

Item	Factor	
	1	2
Do you feel that you, or your organisation, could best prevent your personal life interfering with your work?	**.91**	.18
Do you feel that you, or your organisation, is primarily responsible for your personal life interfering with your work?	**.87**	.19
Do you feel that you, or your organisation, could best prevent your work interfering with your personal life?	.29	**.85**
Do you feel that you, or your organisation, is primarily responsible for your work interfering with your personal life?	.10	**.85**
Eigenvalue	2.45	1.14
Percent of variance explained	61.26	28.53
Total percent variance explained	89.79	

7.6.2 Descriptive statistics

The means and standard deviations for each of the study variables are shown in Table 7.5. Inter-correlations and reliability coefficients are presented in Table 7.6.

Table 7.5: Means and standard deviations

Scale	Mean	SD
Interpersonal deviance	2.12	0.85
Organizational deviance	1.80	0.67
Procedural justice	4.09	1.08
Distributive justice	4.31	1.16
Informational justice	3.73	1.26
Interpersonal justice	5.77	1.33
Work interference with home	3.66	1.48
Home interference with work	2.27	0.92
Behaviour-based work-home interference	3.47	1.06
Attribution for work interference with home	3.86	1.53
Attribution for home interference with work	3.04	1.39

Table 7.6: Intercorrelations among Workplace Deviance, Work-Home Interference, Organizational Justice, and Attribution for Work-Home Interference variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1. Interpersonal deviance	(.75)										
2. Organizational deviance	.37***	(.79)									
3. Work interference with home (WIH)	.26**	.11	(.92)								
4. Home interference with work (HIW)	.27**	.30***	.36***	(.84)							
5. Behaviour-based interference	.24*	.18	.31***	.42***	(.80)						
6. Procedural justice	-.19*	-.17	-.31***	-.20*	-.25**	(.89)					
7. Distributive justice	-.06	-.04	.10	.12	-.14	.46***	(.91)				
8. Informational justice	-.37***	-.22*	-.18	-.07	-.14	.59***	.48***	(89)			
9. Interpersonal justice	-.17	-.19*	-.17	-.05	-.10	.16	.17	.20*	(.95)		
10. Attribution for WIH	.09	.04	.17	.04	-.10	-.11	-.09	-.21*	-.20*	(.86)	
11. Attribution for HIW	.11	.07	.05	.02	-.02	-.04	-.03	-.10	.02	.38***	(.90)

Note. $N = 111$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. The main diagonal contains Cronbach's internal consistency reliability estimates.

7.6.3 Main and moderating effects

The results of the hierarchical regression analyses are presented in Tables 7.7 and 7.8. Only partial support was obtained for Hypothesis 1. Work interference with home was a significant, positive predictor of interpersonal deviance ($\beta = .24, p < .05$). The only form of work-home interference to predict organizational deviance was home interference with work ($\beta = .24, p < .05$).

Distributive justice was found to moderate the relationship between home interference with work and interpersonal deviance ($\beta = .24, p < .05$), but the relationship was in the opposite direction from that predicted. Simple slopes and t-tests for significant interactions are featured in Table 7.9. Employees experiencing higher levels of home interference with work and who perceived higher distributive justice reported engaging in more interpersonally deviant acts, running counter to the predictions of Hypothesis 2. Distributive justice did not moderate the relationship between home interference with work and organizational deviance, or the link between work interference with home and either of the dependent variables.

Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Procedural justice did not moderate the relationships between either form of work-home interference and either type of workplace deviance. Another reversal effect was found for Hypothesis 4. Interpersonal justice moderated the relationship between home interference with work and interpersonal deviance ($\beta = .20, p < .05$), but in the opposite direction from that predicted. Employees with higher levels of home interference with work reported increased participation in interpersonal deviance when they perceived levels of interpersonal justice to be high, rather than low. There were no significant interactions between interpersonal justice and work interference with home for either form of workplace deviance, and interpersonal justice did not moderate the relationship between home interference with work and organizational deviance.

Table 7.7: Hierarchical regression results predicting Workplace Deviance and the Moderating effect of Organizational Justice

Independent variable	Interpersonal Deviance			Organizational Deviance		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Procedural justice (PJ)	.00	.13	.05	-.08	.00	.00
Distributive justice (DJ)	.15	.05	.12	.13	.07	.05
Informational justice (InfJ)	**-.40*****	**-.38*****	**-.47*****	-.21†	-.20†	-.20
Interpersonal justice (IntJ)	-.12	-.09	-.12	-.17†	-.16†	-.16
Work interference with home (WIH)		.14	**.24***		-.05	-.06
Home interference with work (HIW)		.17	.12		**.27***	**.24***
Behaviour-based interference		.10	.07		.06	.06
PJ x WIH			-.14			-.01
DJ x WIH			.11			-.04
InfJ x WIH			**-.28****			.00
IntJ x WIH			-.07			.03
PJ x HIW			.06			-.02
DJ x HIW			**.24***			.08
InfJ x HIW			**-.33****			.01
IntJ x HIW			**.20***			.06
F	4.85***	4.40***	5.40***	2.53*	2.82**	1.31
$\triangle$F	4.85***	3.36*	5.07***	2.53*	3.01*	0.16
$\triangle R^2$	.16***	.08*	.23***	.09*	.07*	.01
R^2	.12***	.18***	.38***	.05*	.10**	.04

Note. $N = 111$. $^{\dagger} p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 7.8: Hierarchical regression results predicting Workplace Deviance and the Moderating effect of Attribution for Interference

Independent variable	Interpersonal Deviance			Organizational Deviance		
	Step 1	*Step 2*	*Step 3*	*Step 1*	*Step 2*	*Step 3*
Procedural justice	.13	.13	.13	.00	.00	.01
Distributive justice	.05	.05	.05	.07	.07	.07
Informational justice	**-.38***	**-.38**	**-.40***	-.20†	-.20	-.23†
Interpersonal justice	-.09	-.10	-.11	-.16	-.17†	-.18†
Work interference with home (WIH)	.14	.15	.15	-.05	-.04	-.04
Home interference with work (HIW)	.16	.17	.18†	**.27***	**.27***	**.28***
Behaviour-based interference	.09	.09	.09	.06	.05	.07
Attribution for WIH		-.05	-.05		-.05	-.05
Attribution for HIW		.08	.09		.07	.09
Attribution for WIH x WIH			.08			.11
Attribution for HIW x HIW			-.02			-.06
F	4.36***	3.43***	2.82**	2.75*	2.18*	1.87†
$\triangle$F	4.36***	0.36	0.31	2.75*	0.29	0.60
$\triangle$R^2	.23***	.01	.01	.16*	.01	.01
R^2	.18***	.17***	.16**	.10*	.09*	.08†

Note. $N = 111$. $^\dagger p < .10$. $^* p < .05$. $^{**} p < .01$. $^{***} p < .001$.

<u>Table 7.9: Tests of Simple Slopes of Regression for Interactions between Work-Home</u>
<u>Interference and Organizational Justice</u>

Work Interference with Home × Informational Justice in Predicting Interpersonal
Deviance

Level of Informational Justice	Simple Slope	SE	t(111)
Low	.56	.08	4.15***
Medium	.26	.05	3.02**
High	-.04	.06	-0.37

Home Interference with Work × Distributive Justice in Predicting Interpersonal Deviance

Level of Distributive Justice	Simple Slope	SE	t(111)
Low	.24	.13	1.64
Medium	.27	.09	2.89**
High	.31	.11	2.63**

Home Interference with Work × Informational Justice in Predicting Interpersonal
Deviance

Level of Informational Justice	Simple Slope	SE	t(111)
Low	.47	.11	4.11***
Medium	.25	.08	2.92**
High	.02	.11	0.17

Home Interference with Work × Interpersonal Justice in Predicting Interpersonal
Deviance

Level of Interpersonal Justice	Simple Slope	SE	t(111)
Low	.12	.13	0.85
Medium	.25	.08	2.71**
High	.38	.11	3.01**

<u>Note</u>. $N = 111$.. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Informational justice moderated the relationship between work interference with home and interpersonal deviance ($\beta = -.28, p < .01$), and the relationship between home interference with work and interpersonal deviance ($\beta = -.33, p < .01$). Employees experiencing higher levels of either work interference with home or home interference with work were more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance when they perceived that levels of informational justice regarding work-home options was low. Informational justice did not, however, moderate the link between either type of work-home interference and organizational deviance.

Informational justice regarding work-home options was the only justice variable to exhibit a significant main effect in predicting interpersonal deviance ($\beta = -.47, p < .001$). None of the justice variables predicted organizational deviance directly, and no significant interactions between justice and work-home interference were found for organizational deviance.

No support was found for Hypothesis 5. Work interference with home and attribution for work interference with home did not interact to predict interpersonal or organizational deviance, and neither did home interference with work and attribution for home interference with work.

7.7 Discussion

The purpose of this chapter was to investigate the role of work-home interference in predicting workplace deviance. This chapter sought first to examine the direct effects of interference between work and home on both interpersonal and organizational deviance, and ascertain if this interference contributes to any variance in the dependent variable beyond that explained by organizational justice regarding work-home options. Its second objective was to determine if the relationship between work-home interference and deviance in the workplace is moderated by fairness perceptions regarding organizational work-home options, and by employee attribution of responsibility for work-home interference.

Several of the hypotheses of this chapter were supported. Work-home interference showed itself capable of directly predicting workplace deviance, and of explaining significant variance in both interpersonal and organizational deviance above and beyond the effects of organizational justice. In addition, fairness perceptions regarding work-home options were shown to moderate the effects of work-home interference on interpersonal deviance. Employee attribution of responsibility for work-home interference did not, however, affect the relationship between interference and either form of deviance.

7.7.1 Main effects of work interference with home

The results of this chapter indicate that work interference with home is capable of predicting interpersonal deviance. It seems probable that in this case, the incentive for employees to engage in deviant behaviours was expressive rather than instrumental. Interpersonal deviance behaviours include such acts as rudeness toward a colleague, making fun of others in the workplace, or making inappropriate ethnic, religious, or racial remarks. It is doubtful that engaging in these behaviours would resolve any sense of disparity between existing and desired conditions with regard to work interference with home. Cursing at a co-worker is unlikely to provide an individual with more time to spend with friends or family, or to reduce work demands in such a way as to prevent stress from carrying over into one's personal life.

A desire to express the frustration associated with interference between work and home, however, is a more likely candidate for explaining why individuals were moved to engage in interpersonally deviant acts. The tension and anxiety often incorporated in work-home interference may negatively impact an employee's ability to perform effectively on the job, and the consequent frustrated goal achievement may motivate an employee to vent his or her dissatisfaction by verbally attacking others in the workplace. The verbal abuse may also be deliberately targeted. Bies et al. (1997) suggest that individuals seek to retaliate against those whom they hold responsible for undesirable conditions. A supervisor who routinely creates extra work for an individual may be held responsible by that individual for his or her work-to-home interference, and treated rudely as a result.

The failure of work interference with home to contribute in any significant way to participation in organizational deviance can, in contrast, be interpreted with regard to instrumental motivation. If an individual's work demands are interfering with his personal life and leaving him or her less time and energy in that domain, engaging in organizationally deviant behaviours may be counterproductive. In a situation such as this, deliberately putting little effort into one's work or spending an excessive amount of time fantasizing or daydreaming would do little to restore the disparity between current and desired conditions. Instead, these behaviours would be likely to incur further work interference with home, as a surfeit of delayed work tasks accumulate and create additional work demands.

7.7.2 Main effects of home interference with work

Home interference with work emerged as a significant, positive predictor of organizational deviance. In this case, the stimulus to engage in deviant behaviour was likely to be instrumental. An employee suffering from mental or emotional preoccupation with personal matters may be unable to concentrate fully on his or her work and expend his or her usual quantity of effort. He or she may therefore work more slowly than he or she is capable of doing in order to gain some respite from the competing demands of work and home.

The inability of home interference with work to predict interpersonal deviance suggests that the link between this form of interference and workplace deviance in general is due to an instrumental, rather than expressive, motivation. Employees whose responsibilities at home interfere with the performance of their job duties do not, apparently, express their frustration with this state of affairs by engaging in interpersonally deviant behaviour. While experiencing the symptoms of home interference with work (such as fatigue or preoccupation with personal matters) has been connected with increased participation in organizationally deviant behaviours, it does not appear to prevent or dissuade employees from treating superiors and co-workers with respect. This may be because the discourteous

behaviours inherent to interpersonal deviance, unlike the respite afforded by the work slowdowns and decreased effort associated with organizational deviance, do not serve to improve the situation of an employee experiencing home interference with work.

7.7.3 Main effects of behaviour-based interference

Behaviour-based work-home interference did not emerge as a significant contributor to either interpersonal or organizational deviance. Employees who perceive an incompatibility between their work-oriented and their home-oriented behaviours do not, evidently, respond by increasing their participation in deviant acts in the workplace. Due to the scarcity of research involving behaviour-based interference, the construct is not yet well understood. The results of Chapter 6 demonstrated that behaviour-based interference was negatively associated with in-role job performance, but was negatively associated with only one of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour. This may indicate that the measurable implications of behaviour-based work-home interference are situated primarily in the task, rather than the contextual, sphere of the work domain. For example, if behaviours that are effective only at home are performed at work, task performance may suffer, but the home-oriented behaviours may not be sufficiently inappropriate at work to be considered deviant. Alternatively, the consequences of behaviour-based interference may be located predominantly in the home domain, as opposed to the workplace. Employees frustrated by the incompatibility of their work and home behaviours may express this aggravation at home rather than at work, because the repercussions of deviance may be more severe in the workplace.

7.7.4 Moderating effects of justice on work interference with home

Work interference with home interacted with only one of the four justice variables to predict interpersonal deviance. Results indicate that neither fairness estimates of work-home option allocations nor perceptions of the procedures used to allocate these options appear to affect the relationship between work-to-home interference and deviant behaviour. Interpersonal justice did not interact with work interference with home to

influence levels of deviance, either. This construct assesses employees' perceptions of the respect with which they are generally treated by their supervisors, and may therefore not be closely enough linked in employees' minds to work-home interference for interpersonal justice to have a noticeable effect on the relationship of interference with deviance.

In contrast, informational justice showed significant effects on interpersonal deviance. Confirming Aquino et al.'s (1999) finding that interactional justice was a stronger predictor of deviance than either distributive or procedural justice, fairness perceptions related to explanations and information about work-home options were the only justice considerations in the present study shown to have a direct, negative impact on instances of interpersonally deviant behaviour. Informational justice perceptions also influenced the ability of work interference with home to predict interpersonal deviance. Employees experiencing work interference with home, who believe their organization does not provide them with complete and reasonable explanations of the work-home options designed to reduce that interference, appear more likely to express their frustration via interpersonally deviant acts. The organization's failure to be forthright regarding its capacity for assistance with work-home interference may be seen as compounding the negative effects of that interference, resulting in greater frustration and, consequently, greater expression of that frustration through deviance.

Work interference with home did not interact with any of the justice variables to predict organizational deviance. As discussed previously, engaging in organizationally deviant acts would be more likely to increase an individual's work-to-home interference than to improve the situation in any way. It is evident that fairness perceptions of work-home options are not meaningful enough in this context to alter that relationship.

7.7.5 Moderating effects of justice on home interference with work

As with work interference with home, procedural justice did not affect the ability of home interference with work to predict interpersonal deviance. Employees perceiving higher levels of distributive justice, however, were more likely to engage in interpersonal

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deviance than were those perceiving less fair allocations of work-home options. This finding runs counter to the hypothesized direction of the relationship, and comes as a surprise. It may be that individuals with high levels of home interference with work and good access to work-home options experience increased frustration due to the failure of their coping efforts. Post-hoc analysis reveals a significant positive correlation between perceived fairness of access to work-home options, and current usage of at least one work-home option. There is no relationship, however, between the use of work-home options and levels of home interference with work. It would seem that the fair access to work-home options enjoyed by these employees is not accompanied by a reduction in the degree to which their home interferes with their work. Taking measures designed to help one's situation, only to find that the situation remains unchanged, may generate frustration which is then expressed via interpersonal deviance.

The question remains as to why employees who report high levels of home interference with work, but unfair access to work-home options, would be less likely to engage in interpersonally deviant behaviour. These employees may not find themselves in an environment conducive to "letting off steam" through acts such as cursing, rude comments, or poking fun at others. A significant negative correlation between perceived fairness of access to work-home options and co-worker resentment was revealed in post-hoc analysis. It appears that employees who feel they do not have access to the work-home options they deserve are also more likely to perceive that their efforts to deal with interference between work and home will be met with antipathy from their colleagues. In consequence, these employees may be more reluctant to engage in disrespectful behaviour towards their colleagues, for fear of rendering their situation even more unpleasant.

Informational justice moderated the relationship between home interference with work and interpersonal deviance, such that employees who perceived low levels of justice engaged in more interpersonally deviant acts. Employees experiencing such interference may take any perceived subterfuge on the part of the organization in disseminating information about its work-home options as a frustrating provocation. While employees may not hold the organization entirely accountable for reducing their home to work interference, any

failure on its part to communicate effectively details of available assistance may be seen as disrespectful and insulting, and deserving of reprisal. Compared to administering and allocating work-home options, after all, simply providing information about them requires the least effort and resource use on the part of the organization.

A significant interaction was found between home interference with work and interpersonal justice, such that employees with higher levels of home interference with work who perceived high levels of interpersonal justice were more likely to engage in interpersonally deviant behaviour. This is an unexpected and rather counter-intuitive finding. One potential explanation is that workers who enjoy a good relationship with their supervisor, and who are treated with respect, may feel more comfortable in expressing frustration or feelings of strain via foul language, careless remarks, or racy jokes without fear of negative repercussions.

7.7.6 Moderating effects of attribution for work-home interference

The extent to which employees blamed either themselves or their organization for the work interference with home they experienced did not moderate any of the relationships among work-home interference with home and deviance. Because motivation for engaging in interpersonal deviance has been generally hypothesized to be expressive, rather than instrumental, this suggests that a cognitive, rational construct such as attribution for interference may be irrelevant when it comes to the more emotional manifestation of frustration from thwarted goal attainment. Individuals whose completion of work duties is hindered by intrusions from home, or whose fulfillment of responsibilities at home is obstructed by time and/or strain demands from work, may not stop to ponder who or what is at fault before lashing out at others in the vicinity to release their frustration.

With regard to the instrumental rationale ascribed in this chapter to participation in organizational deviance, attribution of responsibility for interference may again be irrelevant in employees' efforts to repair their undesirable situations. An employee whose responsibilities at home leave him or her tired and preoccupied with family matters at work

may not be concerned with who is to blame for the experience of home interference with work, and may recoup lost time and energy by putting in little effort on the job regardless of where he or she lays the blame for interference. An employee experiencing work interference with home may also choose to reduce his or her effort on the job or neglect a supervisor's instructions, regardless of attribution of responsibility for interference. One who attributes the interference to his or her organization may seek to restore equity by reducing his or her level of work inputs. One who attributes the interference to his or her own tendencies toward overwork may cut back on work inputs to repair the situation and prevent further work interference with home. In either case, organizational deviance would result, but the effects of the opposing attributions for interference would cancel one another out.

The results of this chapter provide support for the notion that interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance are predicted by different factors. Because work-home interference cannot be said to be caused exclusively by individuals or by organizations, however, these results cannot confirm Robinson and Bennett's (1997) proposition that interpersonal deviance is a result of provocation by individuals, while organizational deviance arises due to provocation by the organization. Moreover, employees who blamed their organization for causing their work-home interference were no more likely to engage in organizational deviance than were employees who attributed responsibility for the interference to themselves. Still, different rationales for deviant behaviour did appear to determine the form of deviance taken. Individuals experiencing work interference with home presumably engaged in deviance in order to express frustration with their situation, while employees experiencing home interference with work engaged in deviance to repair their situation by reclaiming time for themselves.

To date, research has focused on organizational justice as a key determinant of employee participation in workplace deviance. The findings of this chapter extend the range of deviance predictors by showing that interference between work and home may also contribute to the performance of counter-productive behaviours at work. The results of this chapter have also shown that specific, targeted measures of organizational justice - such as

those regarding work-home options - can contribute to the understanding of when and why individuals engage in deviant behaviours at work. This is something of a departure in the field of workplace deviance, which has tended to explore the effects of a broader conceptualization of justice, measuring fairness of general organizational procedures or pay-related decisions. As will be discussed in Chapter 9, the knowledge that work-home interference, and the related issue of fairness of work-home options, can influence important organizational outcomes such as deviant behaviour in the workplace may be of considerable use to researchers and practitioners in their efforts to reduce the negative impact of such interference on both individuals and organizations.

7.8 Limitations

A limitation of this chapter may be its use of a self-administered questionnaire to assess participation in workplace deviance. As will be discussed in Chapter 9, there has been some debate regarding the use of self-reports to measure negative behaviour (Lautenschlager and Flaherty, 1990). While evidence exists to support the accuracy of self-report measures (Spector, 1992), it is possible that incidences of deviant workplace behaviour among the study sample were under-reported due to social desirability bias, and that peer reports would have yielded greater variance in the deviance constructs.

In this chapter, greater variance was explained for interpersonal deviance than for organizational deviance. Although the literature on workplace deviance has established general and pay-related organizational justice as a consistent predictor of both interpersonal and organizational deviance, the latter does not appear to be influenced by more narrowly focused fairness perceptions, specifically, those regarding work-home options. While home interference with work emerged as a significant predictor of organizational deviance, none of the justice variables moderated this relationship.

7.9 Conclusion

This chapter has demonstrated that work-home interference is capable of predicting workplace deviance, and of explaining significant variance in deviance above and beyond the effects of organizational justice. Because justice is a widely used predictor of deviance, this finding has considerable implications for both organizations and researchers seeking to forecast and prevent the incidence of deviance in the workplace.

Work interference with home was shown to be a key contributor to interpersonal deviance, both directly and when moderated by informational justice regarding the availability of work-home options. Employees whose work interferes with their personal lives are more apt to engage in discourteous behaviour towards their colleagues in the workplace, especially if they perceive that their organization has not provided them with sufficient information regarding the availability of work-home options to ease their situation. These employees are unlikely, however, to engage in organizationally deviant acts, most probably because the nature of these acts is such that they would intensify, rather than diminish, levels of work interference with home.

Home interference with work also interacted with a number of justice dimensions to predict interpersonal deviance; individuals whose personal responsibilities interfere with the completion of their job duties and who perceive low levels of informational justice are prone to express their frustration via interpersonal deviance, as are those who report high levels of distributive and interpersonal justice. It appears that employees with good access to work-home options experience increased frustration when their home interference with work does not abate as a result. In addition, those with high levels of home interference with work are seemingly more liable to take out their frustration on those around them when they perceive that they are well treated by their immediate supervisor and will not be punished for their deviant behaviour.

Employees whose responsibilities at home intrude upon their work to a greater degree were more likely to respond by engaging in organizationally deviant behaviours that may also function as coping mechanisms, such as starting work late, taking longer breaks than is

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normally permissible, and putting in less effort on the job. Coping techniques such as these will be the focus of the following chapter, which will investigate a number of individual coping strategies used by employees and attempt to ascertain which are most effective in attenuating levels of work-home interference. The impact of gender on the effectiveness of coping strategies will also be explored.

Chapter 8 - Gender Differences in Coping with Work-Home Interference

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8.10   Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

In the last four chapters of this thesis, family domain, work domain, and work-home culture variables were explored as situational antecedents to work-home interference. Perfectionism, self-esteem, and self-efficacy were investigated as dispositional antecedents to interference, and task performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, and workplace deviance were examined as outcomes. Now that a clearer understanding of work-home interference's predictors and outcomes has been obtained, the question arises: How do individuals cope with interference between work and home?

As was discussed in the previous chapter, interference between work and home can produce a number of detrimental work-related outcomes. These include lower levels of organizational commitment (Lyness & Thompson, 1997), increased intention to turnover (Kelloway et al., 1999), and more frequent absenteeism (Burke & Greenglass, 1999). Negative consequences of work-home interference for employee well-being are also evident; employees experiencing interference have reported higher levels of anxiety (Beatty, 1996), depression and heavy alcohol consumption (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997), and lower levels of general health and energy (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001).

Given the negative outcomes of work-home interference for both organizations and individuals, the importance of coping strategies cannot be overestimated. While there is a growing literature on the impact of organization-implemented programs designed to reduce work-home interference, such as flexitime (Hill et al., 2001) or telework (Standen, Daniels, & Lamond, 1999), little attention has been paid to individual coping mechanisms. It is doubtful that organizational work-home programs operate in isolation from individual coping; employees making use of work-home options are likely to supplement these with individual strategies to manage competing responsibilities from work and home. For members of organizations that do not offer work-home options, or who lack access to available programs, individual coping is of paramount significance.

The work-home coping literature is still in the early stages of its development, and few empirical studies have been conducted which demonstrate the effectiveness of particular coping techniques over others. There have been approximately five published articles and two unpublished conference papers on the topic, each incorporating no more than four different types of coping strategy, and most only one or two. This chapter seeks to extend existing research in three ways. First, it investigates the effects on work-home interference of a wider range of coping strategies than those previously addressed in the work-home literature. Secondly, it compares the ability of problem-focused coping to that of emotion-focused coping in explaining variance in work-home interference. Thirdly, it examines the effect of gender on the use and effectiveness of coping mechanisms. Just as gender differences exist in the way situational factors contribute to work-home interference, as shown in Chapter 4, gender is also likely to affect the way in which individuals cope with interference. Differential expectations of men and women in the workplace and at home may influence employees' decisions to adopt particular strategies, or the ability of certain strategies to effectively attenuate work-home interference. There is precedent in the coping literature for gender differences manifesting themselves in choice and effectiveness of coping techniques; for example, several studies have found differences between men and women in both usage and efficacy of coping mechanisms for job stress (Koeske et al., 1993; Paden & Buehler, 1995; Porter et al., 2000), itself a known outcome of work-home interference (Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994). This chapter will seek to determine whether or not these differences exist for men and women in coping with work-home interference.

8.1.1 Relationship of coping to work-home interference

As so few empirical studies of work-home coping have been conducted, there is no widely accepted answer to the question of how exactly coping operates to reduce work-home interference. In the work-home coping literature, three different approaches to the coping-interference link have been taken. One approach conceptualizes coping as an action that moderates the effect of a stressor on work-home interference. For example, Aryee et al. (1999b) hypothesized that spousal support would moderate the relationship between

role stressors, such as work and parental overload, and work-home interference. Their findings indicated that parental overload contributed to higher levels of home interference with work only under conditions of low spousal support, but that spousal support did not moderate the relationship between work overload and work interference with home. This approach to the coping-interference link is illustrated in Figure 8.1, below.

Figure 8.1: Relationship of coping to work-home interference – Approach #1
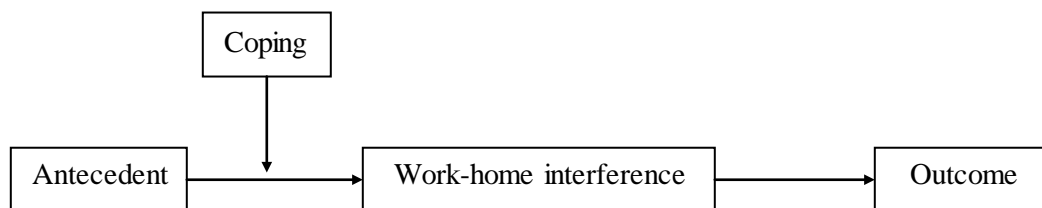
The second approach conceptualizes coping as an action taken in order to reduce negative consequences of work-home interference. This approach therefore investigates the moderating effect of coping on the relationship between work-home interference and outcomes such as strain or job satisfaction, and has met with limited success. Butler and Gasser (2002) found that both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping moderated the effects of work interference with family on job satisfaction, but not on strain. Aryee et al. (1999b) found that emotion-focused coping moderated the relationship between home interference with work and job satisfaction, but neither emotion-focused nor problem-focused coping moderated the hypothesized links between work-home interference and family satisfaction or life satisfaction. Hypotheses regarding the moderating effect of social support on the relationship between work-home interference and strain were not supported by the findings of Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1995) or Parasuraman et al. (1992). Only Matsui et al. (1995) found that coping - in the form of altering work activities to meet family roles - interacted with family interference with work to predict levels of strain. While this coping-as-moderator approach to the coping-interference relationship has yielded mixed results, many of the studies cited above

have shown evidence of a direct relationship between coping and outcomes such as job satisfaction (Aryee et al., 1999b; Butler & Gasser, 2002) and strain (Butler & Gasser, 2002; Frone et al., 1995). This second approach to the coping-interference link is illustrated in Figure 8.2.

Figure 8.2: Relationship of coping to work-home interference – Approach #2
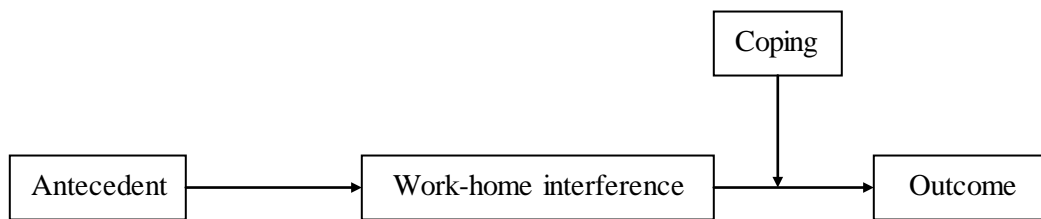
The third approach to the coping-interference relationship conceptualizes coping as an action that either prevents or reduces work-home interference directly. This approach has received greater empirical support than either of the other two approaches. Adams et al. (1996) found that both instrumental and emotional family social support were negatively related to home interference with work, while Aryee et al. (1999b) demonstrated that spousal social support was associated with lower levels of work interference with home. Johnson et al. (2000) found that social withdrawal coping strategies were positively related to both work interference with home and home interference with work, while prioritization was negatively related to both directions of interference. Kirchmeyer and Cohen (1999) found that "personal coping", comprised of techniques such as time management and cognitively reframing demands, was negatively related to home interference with work. This direct approach to the coping-interference link has received the most empirical support in the literature, and possesses a clear underlying logic. The nature of many coping strategies involves action taken to reduce work-home interference directly, rather than to influence the effect of antecedents on interference, or the effect of interference on strain. For example, an individual with high levels of work-home interference who engages in successful cognitive reappraisal of his or her situation will reinterpret the meaning of that

situation, and change his or her perceptions of the level of interference being experienced. Similarly, an employee who reschedules his or her work activities to accommodate responsibilities at home is directly reducing the degree to which work activities can interfere with his or her personal life. In both these instances, coping strategies are exerting a direct effect on work-home interference. The limited empirical evidence that exists is weighted more towards this approach; therefore, this third, direct approach to the coping-interference relationship is the one adopted for use in this chapter. It is illustrated below in Figure 8.3.

Figure 8.3: Relationship of coping to work-home interference – Approach #3
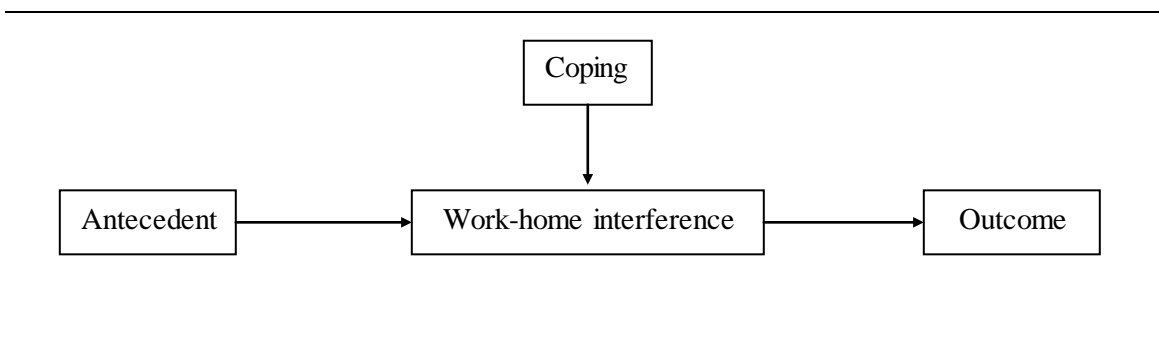
8.2 Dimensions of coping

Virtually all research on coping, whether work-home-related or otherwise, is predicated upon the conceptual analysis of stress and coping first proposed by Lazarus in 1966, and elaborated upon by Lazarus and Folkman in 1984. Lazarus argued that stress consists of three processes: primary appraisal is the process of perceiving a threat to oneself, secondary appraisal is the process of bringing to mind a potential response to the threat, and coping is the process of executing that response. In the work-home context, coping can be seen as a response designed to eliminate the threat of work-home interference perceived during primary appraisal.

There is little consensus in the literature about how to conceptualize or measure ways of coping (Skinner, Edge, Altman, & Sherwood, 2003). Existing empirical studies have

largely concentrated on two general, function-based dimensions of coping: problem-focused and emotion-focused. In their cognitive model of general coping, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) described the function of problem-focused coping as changing the situation causing stress, and the function of emotion-focused coping as changing the emotional consequences of stress. Each of these higher order categories encompasses a number of lower order categories, or individual strategies of coping.

Recent thinking on coping argues that single functions such as problem- versus emotion-focused are not effective higher order categories, because any given way of coping is likely to serve many functions (Skinner et al., 2003). For example, making a plan may not only guide problem-solving, but also serve to calm one's emotions, and thus fit into both problem-focused and emotion-focused dimensions of coping. Notwithstanding these criticisms, models of general coping subsequent to that of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) have not deviated widely from its framework; Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) addressed conceptually distinct aspects of each dimension, while Tobin, Holroyd, Reynolds and Wigal (1989) identified engagement and disengagement approaches to both emotion-focused and problem-focused coping styles, similar to those proposed by Billings and Moos (1981). Endler and Parker (1994) expanded the number of core dimensions to three, with the addition of avoidance-oriented coping. Because the majority of the coping literature continues to rely on problem-focused and emotion-focused distinctions, this chapter will adopt the traditional framework established by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) in its investigation of coping with work-home interference.

An examination of the established dimensions of coping confirms that many of the strategies identified in the general coping literature are inappropriate for use in work-home interference research. For instance, Carver et al. (1989) identified techniques such as "restraint coping", which assumes the stressor is discrete rather than chronic, and "suppression of competing activities" for dealing with a problem, which lacks relevance in a situation where competing activities are the problem. Folkman and Lazarus (1985) identified strategies such as "accepting responsibility" and "confrontive coping", both of

which appear to presuppose a problem with an individual target rather than one which is lifestyle-based.

There are, however, certain strategies identified by Carver et al. (1989), Folkman and Lazarus (1985), and Tobin et al. (1989) that are relevant to coping with work-home interference. A number of these can be found in a review of the work-home coping literature, in which four recurring elements of problem-focused coping can be identified: increased role behaviour (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Hall, 1972), structural role redefinition or limiting role responsibilities (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Becker & Moen, 1999; Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Hall, 1972; Paden & Buehler, 1995), prioritization or internal role redefinition (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Hall, 1972; Johnson et al., 2000), and instrumental social support (Adams et al., 1996; Anderson & Leslie, 1991; Johnson et al., 2000). In addition, five key types of emotion-focused coping can be identified: tension reduction (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Elman & Gilbert, 1984), acceptance (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Anderson & Leslie, 1991), behavioural disengagement (Paden & Buehler, 1995), cognitive reappraisal (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987; Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Paden & Buehler, 1995), and emotional social support (Adams et al., 1996).

Because very few empirical studies of work-home coping exist, relatively little is known about the effects of these coping techniques on levels of work-home interference. Social support from family members and "personal coping strategies", incorporating such techniques as time management, have been associated with lower levels of home interference with work (Adams et al., 1996; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999). Establishing priorities among competing roles and activities has been negatively related to both work interference with home and home interference with work (Johnson et al., 2000). Coping strategies involving social withdrawal, meanwhile, have been shown to predict increased levels of work interference with home and home interference with work (Johnson et al., 2000).

This chapter will expand on these limited findings by exploring the effect of each of the coping strategies listed earlier on work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference. It will also compare the ability of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies to explain variance in work-home interference. Previous research has not investigated the relative merits of one dimension over the other, and so there is no consensus on which general dimension of coping is more effective in predicting work-home interference.

8.3 Problem-focused coping

Amatea and Fong-Beyette (1987) described role redefinition as modifying either the demands of a role or the methods for performing the role. According to Elman and Gilbert (1984), structural role redefinition characteristically involves negotiations with others as a means of altering structurally given demands, e.g., arranging work schedules with employers to allow time for certain parenting responsibilities, or negotiating family schedules with spouses.

Two distinct elements of this strategy emerge: eradicating or reducing involvement in role activities, and adapting schedules in one domain to accommodate the demands of another. Each of these elements can be broken down further according to the domain in which the strategy is employed, yielding four components overall: limiting work role involvement, scheduling work to accommodate home, limiting home role involvement, and scheduling home to accommodate work.

8.3.1 Limiting work role involvement

Becker and Moen (1999) identified "placing limits on work" as a strategy for dual-earner couples dealing with inter-role conflict. Establishing limits on work-related responsibilities taken on, hours spent at work, and work brought home clearly has the potential to reduce the spillover of work demands into the home domain, lessening work interference with home. However, reducing or constraining one's work role activities to facilitate the

completion of responsibilities at home may indicate to an individual that the demands of the home domain are taking precedence over those of the work domain, and dictating the degree to which work demands can be fulfilled. Conceding to the demands of home or family in this fashion may therefore increase perceptions of home interference with work.

According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), behaviour-based interference is most pronounced when an individual experiences difficulty exchanging one set of behaviours for the other upon changing domains, and this may be especially likely to happen when one set of behaviours dominates the other, i.e., is performed more frequently. Cutting back on work role involvement necessarily involves a reduction in work-related behaviours. The corresponding dominance of home-oriented behaviours may then bring about problems in setting them aside for work behaviours when required, and produce augmented perceptions of behaviour-based home interference with work. Additionally, the dominance of home-oriented behaviours may increase the salience of any work-oriented behaviours deemed unsuitable at home, and lead to higher perceptions of behaviour-based work-home interference.

8.3.2 Scheduling work to accommodate home

In their interview-based research on the prevalence of restructuring work for family, Karambayya and Reilly (1992) identified behaviours such as making special arrangements at work to attend a child's activity, or rearranging work hours in order to be at home at certain times. These behaviours are likely to reduce the degree of work interference with home, but the shaping of the work domain to accommodate the needs of the home domain effectively constitutes home interference with work. It is therefore probable that respondents using this strategy will report higher levels of the latter phenomenon. As with limiting work role involvement, behaviour-based interference may also be heightened as a result of home-oriented behaviours being given precedence.

Hypothesis 1: Limiting work role involvement and scheduling work to accommodate home will be negatively related to work interference with home, and positively related to home interference with work and behaviour-based work-home interference.

8.3.3 Limiting home role involvement

Cutting back on non-essential family or social activities has obvious potential for decreasing interference from home to work, but may increase levels of work interference with home if perceived as a concession to the demands of the workplace. Placing constraints on home role involvement may result in the dominance of work-oriented behaviours, difficulties in laying them aside in favour of home-oriented behaviours at the end of the day, and the increased salience of home behaviours deemed unsuitable for work. Consequently, perceptions of behaviour-based interference may be heightened.

8.3.4 Scheduling home to accommodate work

The effect of this strategy is likely to be the mirror opposite of scheduling work to accommodate home. Home interference with work is likely to be diminished, but work interference with home may increase as a result of work demands taking precedence over family or social activities. As with limiting home role involvement, perceptions of behaviour-based interference may be raised due to the prevalence of work-oriented behaviours relative to home-oriented behaviours.

Hypothesis 2: Limiting home role involvement and scheduling home to accommodate work will be positively related to work interference with home and behaviour-based work-home interference, and negatively related to home interference with work.

8.3.5 Prioritization/Internal role redefinition

Hall's (1972) inter-role coping model proposed what was termed "personal role redefinition" as one of three core coping responses. This coping strategy was described as modifying personally based role demands, by overlooking role demands or changing one's attitudes toward given roles. Amatea & Fong-Beyette's (1987) study of coping identified "internal role redefinition" as a strategy wherein individuals evaluate current role demands and expectations with a view to maximizing the most valued and necessary role activities. In so doing, individuals are able to free themselves from the time and energy requirements of less important roles, and reallocate those resources to meeting demands from more highly valued roles. An example of this would be an employee who prioritizes home over work and is therefore less troubled by intrusions from personal responsibilities in the workplace, as these responsibilities are seen as being of greater importance than those at work. Employees who modify their standards for working or parenting, such that their expectations of themselves in particular roles are reduced, may also be less likely to perceive interference between work and home. An individual who decides that being a good parent does not necessitate home-cooked meals or a spotlessly clean home may be less likely to perceive work interference with home when time pressures prevent him or her from attending to household duties.

Prioritization has been found to be negatively related to both work interference with home (Johnson et al., 2000) and home interference with work (Adams & Jex, 2002). It is conceivable, however, that assigning clear priorities in work and/or home roles will result in increased levels of behaviour-based interference. Behaviour-based interference is more likely to occur when one set of behaviours dominates another and produces difficulties in switching between the two (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985); prioritizing one role over another would obviously entail prioritizing one set of behaviours over another as well. For example, an employee who has made a conscious decision to prioritize his or her parental role while his children are young may also assign priority to parental behaviours. The dominance of these home-oriented behaviours may incur difficulties in exchanging them for work behaviours upon leaving home, and thus result in elevated behaviour-based

interference. In addition, the prioritization of home-oriented behaviours may render more salient the unsuitability of any work-oriented behaviours for the home, and thus may also contribute to higher perceptions of behaviour-based interference.

Hypothesis 3: Prioritization/internal role redefinition will be negatively related to work interference with home and home interference with work, and positively related to behaviour-based interference.

8.3.6 Increased role behaviour

The strategy of increased role behaviour comprises attempts by an individual to meet all of the role demands experienced, without evidence of any considered planning, and has been linked to women's dissatisfaction with coping outcomes (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987) and ratings of performance dissatisfaction (Gray, 1983). Simply increasing one's effort to meet role demands, without altering those demands or the resources available with which to meet them, is unlikely to produce any discernible reduction in interference between work and home. This strategy may in fact serve to heighten all three types of interference as personal resources such as time and energy are further drained, and performance of both work- and home-oriented behaviours is increased.

Hypothesis 4: Increased role behaviour will be positively related to work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference.

8.3.7 Instrumental social support

Much of the work-home coping literature is focused on social support. Instrumental social support refers to practical assistance or information derived from friends, family, or colleagues. Support from family members has been associated with lower levels of home interference with work (Adams et al., 1996; Bernas & Major, 2000; Burke & Greenglass, 1999) and with lower levels of composite, non-directional measures of interference

between work and home (Erdwins et al., 2001; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Support from co-workers has also been linked to decreased levels of work-home interference (Friedman & Johnson, 1997; Greenglass et al., 1988; Lee & Duxbury, 1998).

Instrumental social support has the potential to reduce levels of each type of work-home interference. Colleagues who offer to switch shifts, family members who take on more responsibility for household chores, or friends who share their experiences of integrating work and home behaviours can directly lessen the demands on an individual that produce interference between work and home.

> Hypothesis 5: Instrumental social support will be negatively related to work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference.

8.4 Emotion-focused coping

Changing the emotional consequences of stress can take several different forms, ranging from passive acceptance to attempts at relaxation or efforts to procure sympathy and understanding from others.

8.4.1 Acceptance

Acceptance of a problematic situation relates to two aspects of the coping process. Acceptance of a stressor as genuine occurs in primary appraisal, and acceptance of a current absence of coping strategies occurs in secondary appraisal. According to Carver et al. (1989), acceptance may be particularly important in circumstances in which the stressor cannot easily be changed and must instead be accommodated. Regardless of the inflexibility of an individual's situation, however, merely resigning oneself to the reality of work-home interference is unlikely to constitute an effective coping mechanism in and of itself. It seems more probable that individuals who are thus resigned to their situation

would be less likely to engage in constructive efforts to change it, and would therefore report higher levels of all three types of interference.

8.4.2 Behavioural disengagement

Behavioural disengagement involves reducing efforts to deal with stressors, and is generally regarded as being dysfunctional (Carver et al., 1989). Individuals who state that they feel unable to deal with their work-home interference and have therefore abandoned all attempts to manage it are unlikely to report beneficial results. It is likely that this coping technique would, instead, be associated with higher levels of all three types of interference.

> Hypothesis 6: Acceptance and behavioural disengagement will be positively related to work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference.

8.4.3 Cognitive reappraisal

Individuals employing a strategy of cognitive reappraisal make conscious attempts to alter their attitudes about themselves, their behaviours, or their situation, by modifying the cognitive meaning of these events or efforts rather than changing the situation itself (Amatea & Fong-Beyette, 1987). An element of this strategy, cognitively reframing demands, has been linked to lower levels of home interference with work (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999). Reappraising work-home interference in a positive manner may lead to reduced perceptions of all three types of interference, as favourable elements of the situation are given emphasis and acquire greater salience for respondents.

8.4.4 Emotional social support

The importance of social support is well-documented in the stress and coping literature (e.g., Schnittinger & Bird, 1990). Sympathy and understanding provided by friends, family, or colleagues may help to reduce all three types of interference. An individual's

perception of work interfering with home life may be lessened by an understanding spouse who reassures the individual that he or she is not neglecting the family. Similarly, sympathetic colleagues who empathize with an employee's efforts to balance work and home may help to reduce that employee's sensitivity toward interruptions from family or personal demands. The ability to share one's concerns regarding the incompatibility of work behaviours with home behaviours with a caring friend or co-worker may diminish one's estimation of behaviour-based interference between the two.

8.4.5 Tension reduction

The strategy of tension reduction comprises behaviours aimed at managing stress symptoms, such as taking time out to relax, or exercising. While such activities do not address the source of work-home interference - i.e., role demands - they may help to replenish personal resources such as health and energy, and therefore enable individuals to manage competing responsibilities and behaviours with greater effectiveness.

> Hypothesis 7: Cognitive reappraisal, emotional social support, and tension reduction will be negatively related to work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference.

The proposed relationships between work-home interference and the coping strategies delineated above are illustrated in the following three figures. The hypothesized links between coping and work interference with home are presented in Figure 8.4; those between coping and home interference with work are presented in Figure 8.5; and those between coping and behaviour-based interference are displayed in Figure 8.6.

Figure 8.4: Hypothesized model of relationships among coping and work interference with home

Problem-focused coping	**Emotion-focused coping**
Limiting work involvement	*Emotional social support*
Scheduling work for home	*Cognitive reappraisal*
Prioritization	*Tension reduction*
Instrumental social support	

Problem-focused coping	**Emotion-focused coping**
Limiting home involvement	*Acceptance*
Scheduling home for work	*Behavioural disengagement*
Increased role behaviour	

Work interference with home

Positive relationship ⟶
Negative relationship ┄┄➤

Figure 8.5: Hypothesized model of relationships among coping and home interference with work

Problem-focused coping	**Emotion-focused coping**
Limiting home involvement	*Emotional social support*
Scheduling home for work	*Cognitive reappraisal*
Prioritization	*Tension reduction*
Instrumental social support	

Problem-focused coping	**Emotion-focused coping**
Limiting work involvement	*Acceptance*
Scheduling work for home	*Behavioural disengagement*
Increased role behaviour	

Home interference with work

Positive relationship ⟶
Negative relationship ┄┄➤

Figure 8.6: Hypothesized model of relationships among coping and behaviour-based work-home interference

Problem-focused coping	Emotion-focused coping
Instrumental social support	*Emotional social support*
	Cognitive reappraisal
	Tension reduction

Problem-focused coping	Emotion-focused coping
Limiting work involvement	*Acceptance*
Scheduling work for home	*Behavioural disengagement*
Limiting home involvement	
Scheduling home for work	
Prioritization	
Increased role behaviour	

Behaviour-based interference

Positive relationship ⟶
Negative relationship ┄┄⟶

8.5 Gender differences in use and effectiveness of coping strategies

The general coping literature has revealed some differences between men and women in their preferred coping strategies and the effectiveness of those strategies in reducing stress. The prevailing framework for gender differences in coping is the socialization hypothesis, which proposes that men are socialized to emphasize instrumental behaviour and to suppress emotions, and will therefore be more likely to use problem-focused coping. Women are socialized to express emotion and to seek social support, and will therefore be more likely to employ emotion-focused coping strategies (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Research testing the socialization hypothesis has produced mixed results. Women have reported greater use of social support and catharsis as coping methods than have men (Porter et al., 2000), and greater intention to use work-home coping strategies associated with reducing tension (Burley, 1994). These results would appear to support the socialization hypothesis. However, other studies have yielded disconfirmatory evidence. Burley (1994) found that female university students were also more likely to report

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intentions of using problem-focused work-home coping techniques, such as increasing efficiency and modifying roles and standards, and Koeske et al. (1993) found that men reported using the emotion-focused technique of avoidance coping in response to job stressors more often than did women.

With regard to the effectiveness of strategy use, Paden and Buehler (1995) found that planning and cognitive restructuring moderated the relationships between the predictors of role overload and role conflict and the outcomes of both positive and negative affect for women, but not for men. For women, planning and cognitive restructuring helped to buffer the negative effects of the role stressors. For the men in the study, talking exacerbated the relationship between role overload and reduced positive affect, while withdrawing reduced the negative effect of role overload on physical symptomology, and cognitive restructuring reduced the negative effect of role conflict on physical symptomology (Paden & Buehler, 1995).

Given the gendered nature of the work-home interface, with men's primary domain traditionally seen as work, and women held primarily responsible for the home, it is reasonable to expect some gender differences in both the selection and the effectiveness of particular coping strategies for work-home interference. Employed women spend significantly more time on household chores and childcare than do men (Hundley, 2001), and are more likely to report attempts to structure their work duties to fit their responsibilities at home (Huws, Korte, & Robinson, 1990; Karambayya & Reilly, 1992). Because women have traditionally experienced stronger sanctions than men for non-compliance with family demands (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), they are more likely to schedule their work hours or alter their involvement in work roles in order to ensure their responsibilities at home can be met.

While women may be subject to more negative sanctions than men for non-compliance with family role demands, men are more often penalized for not complying with work role expectations and for efforts to accommodate family responsibilities (Butler & Skattebo, 2000; Powell, 1997). Men in dual-earner relationships work longer hours than their female

counterparts (Levine & Pittinsky, 1997), and are less likely to make use of family leave entitlements (Pleck, 1993). According to Powell (1997), many men are reluctant to use available work-life practices due to fear of reprisal from their employers should they deviate from the traditional male norm; there is often a perceived trade-off between using work-life practices and advancing in one's career. Because of these negative sanctions, it is hypothesized that the men in this study will be more likely than the women to make concessions in their home or family life to satisfy the demands of their work.

> Hypothesis 8: Women will report more use of limiting work role involvement and scheduling work to accommodate home than will men, while men will report more use of limiting home role involvement and scheduling home to accommodate work than will women.

Traditional gender role expectations may also render use of the above-mentioned strategies differentially effective for men and women. Placing limits on work role involvement and scheduling work activities to accommodate responsibilities at home may be more successful in reducing work interference with home for women, who are expected to make home their primary domain, than for men, who are expected to prioritize work. Men who curtail their involvement at work, or who structure their job duties to facilitate fulfillment of demands at home, are more likely to have any consequent decline in work interference with home cancelled out by reduced opportunities for promotion or pressure from colleagues and superiors to assign greater priority to work, both of which contribute to work interference with home (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Friedman & Johnson, 1997).

If men are expected to prioritize work over home, making concessions at work for personal responsibilities may result in greater perceptions of home interference with work for them than for women, who are expected to make home a priority. Giving precedence to the home domain may also be coupled with an emphasis on nurturing, home-oriented behaviours, as opposed to the unemotional, competitive work-oriented behaviours with which men are often associated. This untraditional change in emphasis from work-oriented behaviours to

home-oriented behaviours may therefore result in greater perceptions of behaviour-based interference for men than for women.

> Hypothesis 9: Limiting work role involvement and scheduling work to accommodate home will be associated with lower levels of work interference with home for women than for men, and higher levels of both home interference with work and behaviour-based interference for men than for women.

If women are expected to make home their primary domain, restructuring personal or family activities to accommodate job demands may result in greater perceptions of work interference with home for them than for men, who are expected to prioritize work over home and are rewarded by their employers for doing so. Women who limit their involvement at home or who schedule family activities to accommodate work demands may also find any reduction of home interference with work offset by social condemnation of their priorities, whereas men, who are expected to make work their primary domain, are unlikely to experience comparable penalties. Women may therefore report higher levels of both work interference with home and home interference with work than do men. In addition, because the home domain is traditionally associated with caring, emotion-oriented behaviours not commonly used in the workplace, emphasizing work demands and, therefore, work behaviours may also lead to greater perceptions of behaviour-based interference for women, rather than men.

> Hypothesis 10: Limiting home role involvement and scheduling home to accommodate work will be associated with higher levels of both work interference with home and behaviour-based interference for women than for men, and lower levels of home interference with work for men than for women.

Research indicates that women enjoy larger social support networks than do men (Lee & Duxbury, 1998), and the general coping literature suggests that women may make greater use of social contacts to help them manage role demands and consequent stress (Porter et al., 2000). In their study of resolutions to work-home interference, Kinnier et al. (1991)

found that women were more likely than men to report that they talked to others about their work-home interference as a means of coping with it. It is therefore likely that the women participating in this study will report greater use of both instrumental and emotional social support than will the men, and that this strategy will prove more effective in lowering work-home interference for women than it will for men.

Hypothesis 11: Instrumental social support and emotional social support will be associated with lower levels of work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference for women than for men.

8.6 Method

8.6.1 Measures

Dependent variables

Work-home interference was measured with Carlson et al.'s (2000) measure of work-family conflict, described in detail in Chapter 5.

Independent variables

Because the measurement of work-home interference coping strategies is not highly developed, and there is no single preferred instrument (Koeske et al., 1993), new scales were created to measure individual coping mechanisms. Items in each scale were answered with a seven-point Likert response scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 7.

Limiting work role involvement was measured with four items based on those in Karambayya and Reilly's (1992) open-ended measure of work restructuring, and on the behavioural correlates of the "placing limits" strategy identified by Becker and Moen (1999). Items assessed the extent to which respondents limited their involvement in

non-essential activities at work in an effort to reduce interference between work and home (e.g., "I try not to take on additional responsibilities at work").

Scheduling work to accommodate home was measured with four items based on those in Karambayya and Reilly's (1992) measure of work restructuring. Items assessed the extent to which respondents scheduled their work activities to accommodate demands from home (e.g., "I try to arrange my work hours to fit around personal activities or my family's schedule").

Limiting home role involvement was measured using three items created for this survey, assessing the extent to which respondents limited their involvement in non-essential activities at home or in their personal lives (e.g., "I try to restrict the number of social or leisure activities I participate in"; "I try not to take on additional responsibilities in my personal or family life").

Scheduling home to accommodate work was measured with three items created for this survey, assessing the extent to which respondents scheduled their activities at home to accommodate demands from work (e.g., "I try to arrange my personal or family activities to fit around my work schedule").

Prioritization was measured using three items based on representative statements from participants in Amatea and Fong-Beyette's (1987) qualitative study. Items assessed the extent to which respondents redefined their priorities in dealing with competing demands from work and home (e.g., "I try to establish which aspects of my life are the most important ones to attend to right now, and which ones don't matter as much").

Increased role behaviour was measured using three items based on illustrative statements from participants in Amatea and Fong-Beyette's (1987) qualitative study. Items assessed the extent to which respondents invested more effort in meeting competing demands from work and home (e.g., "I try to work harder in order to get everything done").

Instrumental social support was measured with four items adapted from items in the "Seeking social support for instrumental reasons" subscale of Carver et al.'s (1989) COPE inventory. Items assessed the extent to which respondents sought information or assistance to help them cope with competing demands from work and home (e.g., "I talk to someone to find out more information about what can be done to improve my situation").

Emotional social support was measured using three items adapted from items in the "Seeking social support for emotional reasons" subscale of Carver et al.'s (1989) COPE inventory. Items assessed the extent to which respondents sought empathy or a listening ear from friends and family as a means of coping with competing demands from work and home (e.g., "I discuss my feelings with someone who provides sympathy and understanding").

Acceptance was measured with three items adapted from items in Carver et al.'s (1989) COPE inventory. Items assessed the extent to which respondents were resigned to the fact that their work and home lives interfered with one another (e.g., "I accept that this is the way things are and that they aren't going to change any time soon").

Behavioural disengagement was measured using three items adapted from items in Carver et al.'s (1989) COPE inventory. Items assessed the extent to which respondents had abandoned attempts to achieve work-life balance (e.g., "I give up the attempt to achieve balance between work and my personal life").

Cognitive reappraisal was measured with three items adapted from items in the "Positive reinterpretation and growth" subscale of Carver et al.'s (1989) COPE inventory. Items assessed the extent to which respondents emphasized the positive aspects of dealing with competing demands from work and home (e.g., "I try to look upon the experience as a learning opportunity").

Tension reduction was measured with three items based on representative statements from participants in Amatea and Fong-Beyette's (1987) qualitative study. Items assessed the

extent to which respondents engaged in activities designed to decrease tension or strain, as a means of coping with interference between work and home (e.g., "I do relaxing things like going for a walk, practising yoga or taking a long bath").

8.6.2 Analysis

T-tests were conducted to investigate whether there were gender differences in the coping strategies used. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to test the relationships among sex, nine coping strategies, and work-home interference. Specifically, the three types of work-home interference – work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference - were individually regressed on the measures of gender and coping strategies.

In each of the hierarchical regression equations, several background variables were included in the analyses for control purposes. These demographic variables may also be important explanatory variables in their own right in terms of work-home interference. However, in order to focus on the main research questions that the present study was designed to assess, they were used and treated simply as control variables in the equations. The control variables included were hours worked weekly, presence of children aged 16 and under in the respondent's household (absent = 0/present = 1, dummy-coded), and current use of one or more work-home options for employees of Sunnydale Borough Council, or on-site childcare facilities for employees of Durand College (no use = 0, use = 1, dummy-coded). This latter variable was included so that the effects of individual coping beyond those of organizationally-assisted coping could be determined.

A usefulness analysis (Darlington, 1968) was conducted to compare the contribution of problem-focused coping variables to that of emotion-focused coping variables in explaining variance in work-home interference. Usefulness analysis provides the incremental change in explained variance that is attributable to the set of independent variables that goes beyond the contribution to explained variance of all the other variables in the equation. This analysis compares the change in R^2 associated with a set of

independent variables while controlling for the effect of the other variables in the equation. Each set of independent variables (problem-focused and emotion-focused coping) were entered into an hierarchical equation in separate stages, in each possible ordering to examine the unique variance explained by each set of independent variables in the dependent variable (work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference). For each equation in the usefulness analysis, the control variables were entered in step 1, followed by gender in step 2. The coping variables were entered in steps 3 and 4.

For each equation in the hierarchical multiple regression analyses testing the hypotheses concerning gender interactions, the control variables and gender were entered in step 1. The coping variables followed in step 2, and the interaction terms were entered in step 3, permitting the significance of the interactions to be determined after controlling for the main effects of the independent variables. The predictor variables were centred before forming interaction terms, in order to reduce the multicollinearity often associated with regression equations containing interaction terms (Aiken and West, 1991). Changes in R^2 were used to evaluate the ability of the interaction terms to explain variance beyond that accounted for by the main effects in the equation.

Significant interactions were probed using procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991). The regression equation was restructured to represent the regression of work-home interference on the independent variables for the two different genders. Two separate regression equations were calculated, one for men and one for women. T-tests were then performed on simple slopes of the equations to determine if they differed from zero.

8.7 Results

8.7.1 Factor analysis

Factor loadings for the coping scales are presented in Table 8.1. Eleven factors were obtained, of which 9 were retained. Factor 10 was eliminated because although three of the items had loadings of over .40, one of these was intended to measure behavioural disengagement and was theoretically unrelated to the other two, which were designed to measure prioritization. The two prioritization items had a reliability alpha of only .56, and so the prioritization scale was dropped. Factor 11 had no items that loaded at or above .40 and was therefore not retained.

Two of the items designed to measure acceptance loaded on the same factor as the two retained items from the behavioural disengagement scale, and the other item loaded onto a separate factor. The two items loading on the same factor yielded a reliability alpha of .12, and so the behavioural disengagement items were chosen to represent that factor. The acceptance scale was eliminated.

One item from the behavioural disengagement scale ("I admit to myself that I can't deal with it, and reduce the amount of effort I'm putting into achieving work-life balance") loaded onto a separate factor from the remaining items, and was therefore dropped.

Principal axis analysis revealed that all seven items from the instrumental social support and emotional social support measures loaded on the same factor. The two subscales were therefore combined to form a composite scale labelled "Social support".

Table 8.1: Complete factor loading matrix for Coping scales

Item	Factor										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I talk to someone about how I feel.	**.78**	.03	.00	-.04	-.04	.04	-.06	.15	.08	.04	-.21
I discuss my feelings with someone who provides sympathy and understanding.	**.77**	.06	-.12	.02	.02	.09	-.04	.25	.11	.07	-.14
I talk to someone who could help me out with my responsibilities at work or at home.	**.72**	.08	.01	-.13	.03	.12	.03	.05	-.04	.18	.19
I talk to someone to find out more information about what can be done to improve my situation.	**.67**	.06	-.08	-.28	-.07	.11	-.01	.19	-.07	.22	.17
I talk to people who have had similar experiences about what they did to cope.	**.67**	.11	-.05	-.04	-.05	.11	-.07	.23	-.07	.07	-.03
I ask for help with my responsibilities at work or in my personal life.	**.67**	.07	.02	-.04	-.01	.09	-.09	.01	-.03	.03	.21
I try to get emotional support from friends or family.	**.58**	.02	-.01	.06	.10	.20	.04	.19	.12	.14	-.31
I try to make arrangements at work to accommodate my family or personal needs.	.10	**.84**	-.03	.05	.10	.00	.01	.14	.08	.08	-.04
I try to reschedule my work in order to attend to personal or family circumstances (e.g., work from home if I need to look after a sick child or wait for a plumber).	.07	**.78**	.09	-.07	.15	.11	-.10	.05	.02	.02	-.09
I try to restructure my hours at work in order to be at home at certain times.	.12	**.70**	-.06	.09	.11	-.01	.06	.08	-.06	.04	.11
I try to arrange my work hours to fit around personal activities or my family's schedule.	.04	**.69**	.01	.08	.27	.02	.06	-.03	.03	.20	.03
I try to ensure that my schedule at home accommodates the demands of my work.	-.07	.01	**.89**	.06	-.06	.01	.22	.02	.08	.08	-.05
I try to schedule my personal or family activities to accommodate my work requirements.	-.03	.01	**.88**	.12	-.03	.05	.20	.01	.09	-.03	.00

Item	Factor										
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**
I try to arrange my personal or family activities to fit around my work schedule.	-.04	-.01	**.76**	.16	.17	.05	.22	.07	.06	.04	.06
I give up the attempt to achieve balance between work and my personal life.	-.16	.05	.07	**.73**	-.13	-.08	.07	-.15	-.06	-.08	-.07
I accept that this is the way things are and that they aren't going to change any time soon.	-.08	.00	.11	**.72**	.11	-.03	.09	.03	.20	-.06	.17
I just give up trying to reach the goal of work-life balance.	-.01	.08	.07	**.71**	-.05	-.09	.09	-.16	-.09	-.02	-.30
I learn to live with the way things are.	-.08	.01	.10	**.49**	.06	.00	.01	.04	.24	.08	.12
I try to establish limits on the number of hours I spend at work.	.06	.24	.08	-.15	**.75**	.05	-.02	.08	.06	.05	-.06
I try to reduce my involvement in non-essential work activities.	-.12	.06	.06	.13	**.70**	.02	.16	.01	-.07	.08	.08
I try to limit the amount of work I do on weekends and evenings.	.02	.19	-.08	-.21	**.70**	.00	.01	.10	.00	-.05	-.03
I try not to take on additional responsibilities at work.	.00	.12	.00	.23	**.51**	-.09	.06	-.02	.01	.11	-.02
I look for something good in what is happening.	.18	-.02	.04	-.11	.03	**.85**	-.05	.10	.13	.05	-.09
I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	.18	.06	.00	-.05	.00	**.81**	.01	.11	.23	.17	-.05
I try to look upon the experience as a learning opportunity.	.30	.08	.06	-.07	-.06	**.53**	-.07	.14	.13	-.04	.27
I try to restrict the number of social or leisure activities I participate in.	-.09	-.04	.26	.07	.06	.03	**.91**	-.04	.03	-.03	-.04
I try to limit my involvement in non-essential social or family activities.	-.03	-.04	.29	.06	.06	-.06	**.83**	-.04	.07	.01	-.03
I try not to take on additional responsibilities in my personal or family life.	-.07	.20	.19	.20	.19	-.06	**.43**	-.01	.05	.14	.08

Item	Factor										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I listen to music or do exercise to get rid of tension.	.21	.03	.06	-.05	.03	.01	-.11	**.75**	.04	.01	-.08
I try to take time to relax and de-stress.	.29	.14	-.07	-.08	.10	.19	-.05	**.72**	.07	.03	.04
I do relaxing things like going for a walk, practising yoga or taking a long bath.	.26	.05	.07	-.06	.00	.08	.06	**.54**	-.01	.07	.04
I try to establish which aspects of my life are the most important ones to attend to right now, and which ones don't matter as much.	.10	.17	.06	.02	.21	.20	.03	.30	.06	.21	.18
I try to put more effort into getting everything done.	.03	.05	.05	.10	.04	.18	.00	.08	**.78**	-.01	.03
I try to work harder in order to get everything done.	.05	-.01	.01	.12	-.01	.06	.04	.00	**.76**	-.02	-.09
I try to put more energy into dealing with activities at work and at home.	.13	.02	.17	-.05	-.07	.27	.08	-.01	**.48**	.11	.11
I try to modify the standards I have of myself in areas I feel are less important than my central goals.	.29	.21	.06	.00	.17	.04	.02	.04	-.02	**.58**	.05
I try to examine the standards I have of myself regarding work and my personal life, to decide which standards are important to maintain and which ones can be relaxed a bit.	.19	.08	.02	-.22	.00	.16	.05	.10	.05	**.54**	-.01
I admit to myself that I can't deal with it, and reduce the amount of effort I'm putting into achieving work-life balance.	.25	.15	-.02	.29	.05	.06	-.07	-.02	-.03	**.41**	-.07
I try to get used to the idea that this is the way things are.	-.05	-.01	.10	.36	.08	-.07	.13	.13	.34	**.38**	-.03
Eigenvalues	6.74	4.71	3.31	2.47	2.21	1.72	1.56	1.31	1.29	1.16	1.01
Percent of variance explained	17.28	12.08	8.48	6.33	5.67	4.42	4.01	3.36	3.30	2.97	2.58
Total variance explained	70.48%										

8.7.2 Descriptive statistics

The means and standard deviations for each of the study variables are shown in Table 8.2, and the correlations and internal consistency estimates are presented in Table 8.3. There were no significant gender differences in levels of home interference with work. Differences in the other two types of interference reached significance only at the $p < .10$ level; men reported higher levels of both work interference with home ($t = 1.85$) and behaviour-based interference ($t = 1.81$).

Table 8.2: Means, Standard Deviations, and T-tests

| Measure | Men (n=84) | | Women (n=138) | | |
	M	SD	M	SD	t(218)
Work interference with home	4.25	1.58	3.84	1.65	1.85[†]
Home interference with work	2.22	1.00	2.20	1.00	0.10
Behaviour-based interference	3.68	1.24	3.39	1.11	1.81[†]
Hours worked weekly	41.27	6.46	36.69	10.23	4.10***
Limiting work role involvement	4.30	1.38	4.22	1.21	0.40
Scheduling work for home	4.20	1.41	4.29	1.45	-0.45
Limiting home role involvement	3.40	1.44	3.72	1.39	-1.64
Scheduling home for work	4.06	1.79	4.39	1.46	-1.44
Increased role behaviour	5.26	0.96	5.17	0.96	0.68
Social support	4.15	1.27	4.52	1.08	-2.21*
Cognitive reappraisal	5.12	1.20	5.24	0.98	-0.81
Behavioural disengagement	3.29	1.46	3.21	1.37	0.41
Tension reduction	4.75	1.24	4.84	1.41	-0.50

Note. N = 220. [†]p < .10. *p < .05. ***p < .001.

Table 8.3: Intercorrelations among Work-Home Interference and Coping variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Work interference with home	(.92)											
2. Home interference with work	.19**	(.84)										
3. Behaviour-based interference	.38***	.44***	(.80)									
4. Gender	-.12	-.01	-.12	-								
5. Limiting work role involvement	-.05	.17*	.15*	-.03	(.77)							
6. Scheduling work for home	-.13	.32***	.07	.03	.37***	(.86)						
7. Limiting home role involvement	.37***	.18**	.22***	.11	.17*	.06	(.81)					
8. Scheduling home for work	.34***	.06	.18**	.10	.05	.01	.50***	(.91)				
9. Increased role behaviour	.10	-.06	-.06	-.05	.01	.06	.08	.15*	(.73)			
10. Social support	-.23**	.03	-.16*	.15*	.03	.21**	-.13*	-.09	.16*	(.89)		
11. Cognitive reappraisal	-.19**	-.14*	-.23***	.06	.01	.12	-.10	.06	.38***	.42***	(.83)	
12. Behavioural disengagement	.35***	.19**	.25***	-.03	-.04	.07	.19**	.15*	-.02	-.16*	-.21***	(.81)
13. Tension reduction	-.21***	.04	-.11	.03	.11	.18**	-.10	.01	.13*	.46***	.31***	-.20**	(.77)

Note. $N = 220$. $^{†}p < .10$. $*p < .05$. $**p < .01$. $***p < .001$. The main diagonal contains Cronbach's internal consistency reliability estimates.

8.7.3 Main effects

The results of the hierarchical regression analyses are presented in Table 8.4. Partial support was obtained for Hypothesis 1; scheduling work to accommodate home was significantly and positively related to home interference with work ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$), but not to work interference with home or behaviour-based interference. Limiting work role involvement did not predict any of the three types of interference. Hypothesis 2 also received partial support. Limiting home role involvement and scheduling home to accommodate work were significant predictors of work interference with home ($\beta = .20$, $p < .01$ and $\beta = .14$, $p < .05$, respectively), but not of home interference with work or behaviour-based interference.

Hypothesis 3 could not be tested due to the elimination of the prioritization scale following factor analysis. Increased role behaviour did not predict any of the three types of work-home interference, and thus provided no support for Hypothesis 4. The composite measure of social support also failed to predict work-home interference, disconfirming Hypothesis 5.

Strong support was found for Hypothesis 6; although acceptance could not be tested following its elimination after factor analysis, behavioural disengagement was a significant, positive predictor of work interference with home ($\beta = .19$, $p < .001$), home interference with work ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$), and behaviour-based interference ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$). While no significant relationships were found between tension reduction and work-home interference, cognitive reappraisal predicted work interference with home ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .01$) and behaviour-based interference ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .05$), lending partial support to Hypothesis 7.

Table 8.4: Hierarchical regression results predicting Work-home interference

Independent variable	Work interference with home				Home interference with work			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Hours worked weekly	**.44***	**.44***	**.34***	**.32***	-.05	-.06	-.03	-.03
Presence of young children	**.16*	**.16*	.09	.08	.13†	.12†	.05	.06
Current use of work-home options	-.01	-.01	.04	.00	.08	.09	.05	.03
Gender		.00	-.08	-.04		-.04	-.06	-.04
Limiting work role involvement			-.05	-.03			.02	.03
Scheduling work for home			-.08	-.06			**.28***	**.26***
Limiting home role involvement			**.24***	**.17**			**.16*	.12
Scheduling home for work			**.19**	**.17**			.01	.00
Increased role behaviour			-.01	.08			-.10	-.05
Social support				-.03				.04
Cognitive reappraisal				**-.15*				-.15†
Behavioural disengagement				**.20***				**.16*
Tension reduction				-.05				.08
F	18.52***	13.83***	11.31***	10.92***	2.18†	1.72	3.89***	3.66***
$\triangle$F	18.52***	0.00	7.59***	7.09***	2.18†	0.37	5.49***	2.83***
$\triangle$R^2	.21***	.00	.12***	.08***	.03†	.00	.11***	.05***
Adjusted R^2	.19***	.19***	.30***	.37***	.02†	.01	.11***	.14***
$\triangle$R^2 when steps 3 and 4 reversed	-	-	.12***	.08***	-	-	.07**	.09***
$\triangle$F when steps 3 and 4 reversed	-	-	9.49***	5.71***	-	-	4.23**	4.29***

Note. $N = 223$. †$p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 8.4: Hierarchical regression results predicting Work-home interference, continued

Independent variable	Behaviour-based work-home interference			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Hours worked weekly	.03	.01	-.02	-.03
Presence of young children	.12†	.11	.05	.05
Current use of work-home options	-.08	-.07	-.05	-.09
Gender		-.10	**-.15***	-.10
Limiting work role involvement			.07	.09
Scheduling work for home			.03	.05
Limiting home role involvement			**.19***	.12
Scheduling home for work			.11	.09
Increased role behaviour			-.11†	-.03
Social support				-.05
Cognitive reappraisal				**-.17***
Behavioural disengagement				**.18****
Tension reduction				-.01
F	1.52	1.65	2.83**	3.64***
$\triangle$F	1.52	1.99	3.69**	4.99***
$\triangle$R^2	.02	.01	.08**	.08**
Adjusted R^2	.01	.01	.07**	.14***
$\triangle$R^2 when steps 3 and 4 reversed	-	-	.11***	.04†
$\triangle$F when steps 3 and 4 reversed	-	-	6.97***	2.23†

Note. $N = 223$. $^{\dagger}p < .10$. $* p < .05$. $** p < .01$. $*** p < .001$.

The results of the usefulness analysis are displayed in Table 8.4. The order in which the coping variables were entered into the regression equations did not substantially affect the variance explained in work interference with home; problem-focused and emotion-focused coping variables appeared to explain equal amounts of variance. For home interference with work, the incremental variance explained by problem-focused coping strategies was consistently higher than that explained by emotion-focused coping regardless of the order in which the dimensions of coping were entered into the equation ($\triangle R^2 = .11$, $p < .001$ when problem-focused coping was entered first, and $\triangle R^2 = .09$, $p < .001$ when they were entered subsequent to emotion-focused coping). For behaviour-based coping, the incremental variance explained by problem-focused coping was reduced from $\triangle R^2 = .08$, $p < .01$ when it was entered first in the equation to $\triangle R^2 = .04$, $p < .10$ when it was entered subsequent to emotion-focused coping.

These results suggest that for work interference with home, problem-focused and emotion-focused coping are equally useful in explaining variance. For home interference with work, problem-focused coping accounted for additional variance beyond that explained by emotion-focused coping, whereas for behaviour-based interference, the reverse was true; emotion-focused coping explained greater variance than did problem-focused coping.

8.7.4 Gender differences and moderating effects

The results of the t-tests are presented in Table 8.2. No significant differences were found between men's and women's use of limiting work role involvement, scheduling work to accommodate home, limiting home role involvement, or scheduling home to accommodate work, providing no support for Hypothesis 8.

The results of the interaction analyses are shown in Table 8.4, with the simple slope regression analyses presented in Table 8.5. Hypothesis 9 predicted that limiting work role involvement and scheduling work to accommodate home would be associated with lower levels of work interference with home for women than for men, and higher levels of both

home interference with work and behaviour-based interference for men than for women. Results demonstrated a significant interaction between gender and limiting work role involvement in predicting work interference with home ($\beta = -.15, p < .05$), lending partial support to this hypothesis. Limiting work role involvement was negatively associated with work interference with home for women, but positively associated with work interference with home for men. No interactions were found between gender and limiting work role involvement in predicting either of the other two types of interference, or between gender and scheduling work to accommodate home in predicting any type of interference.

Hypothesis 10 predicted that limiting home role involvement and scheduling home to accommodate work would be associated with higher levels of both work interference with home and behaviour-based interference for women than for men, and with lower levels of home interference with work for men than for women. No significant results were obtained for limiting home role involvement. Significant interactions were found between gender and scheduling home to accommodate work, but the relationships were in the opposite direction than those predicted. Use of this coping strategy was associated with higher levels of work interference with home ($\beta = -.14, p < .05$) and behaviour-based interference ($\beta = -.23, p < .01$) for men, rather than women.

Although no significant interaction was found between gender and social support, women were significantly more likely than men to report seeking social support ($t = -2.21, p < .05$), lending partial support to Hypothesis 11.

Table 8.5: Hierarchical regression analyses for the interaction between Gender and Coping strategies

Independent variable	Work interference with home			Home interference with work			Behaviour-based interference		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Gender	.00	-.04	-.04	-.04	-.04	-.05	-.10	-.10	-.09
Hours worked	**.44*****	**.32*****	**.33*****	-.06	-.03	-.04	.01	-.03	-.01
Presence of young children	**.16***	.08	.07	.12†	.06	.06	.11	.05	.04
Current use of work-home options	-.01	.00	.00	.09	.03	.05	-.07	-.09	-.13†
Limiting work role involvement (LimW)		-.03	-.04		.03	.01		.09	.08
Scheduling work for home (SchW)		-.06	-.05		**.26*****	**.26*****		.05	.08
Limiting home role involvement (LimH)		**.17****	**.20****		.12	.13		.12	.13†
Scheduling home for work (SchH)		**.17****	**.14***		.00	.01		.09	.03
Increased role behaviour		.08	.08		-.05	-.05		-.03	-.01
Social support (SocS)		-.03	-.01		.04	.05		-.05	-.04
Cognitive reappraisal		**-.15***	**-.18****		-.15†	-.15†		**-.17***	**-.20****
Behavioural disengagement		**.20*****	**.19*****		**.16***	**.17***		**.18****	**.17***
Tension reduction		-.05	-.04		.08	.09		-.01	-.02
Gender x LimW			**-.15***			-.06			-.06
Gender x SchW			.06			-.02			.00
Gender x LimH			.12†			.07			.09
Gender x SchH			**-.14***			.00			**-.23****
Gender x SocS			-.05			.00			.01
F	13.83***	10.92***	8.79***	1.72	3.66***	2.70***	1.65	3.64***	3.30***
$\triangle$F	13.83***	7.86***	2.33*	1.72	4.41***	0.37	1.65	4.43***	2.13†
$\triangle$R^2	.21***	.20***	.03*	.03	.16***	.01	.03	.16***	.04†
Adjusted R^2	.19***	.37***	.39***	.01	.14***	.12***	.01	.14***	.16***

Note. $N = 220$. $^\dagger p < .10$. $*p < .05$. $**p < .01$. $***p < .001$.

Table 8.6: Tests of Simple Slopes of Regression for Interactions between Gender and Coping Technique

Gender × Limiting work role involvement in Predicting Work Interference with Home

Gender	Simple Slope	SE	t(218)
Men	.11	.13	0.98
Women	-.16	.12	-1.83[†]

Gender × Scheduling Home to Accommodate Work in Predicting Work Interference with Home

Gender	Simple Slope	SE	t(218)
Men	.48	.09	4.98***
Women	.30	.09	3.60***

Gender × Scheduling Home to Accommodate Work in Predicting Behaviour-based Work-Home Interference

Gender	Simple Slope	SE	t(218)
Men	.37	.07	3.58***
Women	.05	.07	0.61

Note. $N = 220$. [†]$p < .10$. ***$p < .001$.

8.8 Discussion

This chapter sought to achieve three aims: one, to investigate the effects of a wide range of coping strategies on work-home interference; two, to compare the ability of problem-focused versus emotion-focused coping to explain variance in work-home interference; and three, to examine the effect of gender on use and effectiveness of coping strategies.

8.8.1 Problem-focused coping

While problem-focused coping was no more effective than emotion-focused coping in explaining variance in work interference with home, problem-focused strategies were responsible for explaining the majority of variance in home interference with work. This may be due to the greater permeability of the home domain in comparison to that of the work domain. In 1984, Lazarus and Folkman observed that problem-focused coping tends to be used when individuals feel they can influence or control the situation in which they find themselves. Because accommodations can more often be made at home than at work (Bolger et al., 1989; Eagle et al., 1997), individuals' sense of control over their home environment may be greater than that over their work environment, and problem-focused coping strategies may therefore be more useful in predicting the extent to which home interferes with work.

Examined individually, problem-focused coping strategies did not appear to be particularly effective in reducing work-home interference. Scheduling work activities to accommodate responsibilities at home was not, as predicted, associated with lower levels of work interference with home. However, it was, as hypothesized, strongly associated with elevated levels of home interference with work. Because levels of home interference with work are considerably lower than those of work interference with home, this may not pose a significant problem; still, the strategy appears far from foolproof. Similarly, restructuring the home domain to accommodate work responsibilities did not reduce home interference with work, yet it showed evidence of increasing work interference with home, indicating that this strategy may cause more problems than it solves.

8.8.2 Emotion-focused coping

Emotion-focused coping was responsible for explaining more variance in behaviour-based interference than was problem-focused coping. Because problem-focused strategies are generally oriented toward reducing time and strain demands, rather than resolving any incompatibility between work-related and home-related behaviours, using these strategies

appears unlikely to affect levels of behaviour-based interference to any great extent. Emotion-focused techniques – e.g., adjusting one's attitude, seeking support from others, or engaging in relaxing activities - may be the only strategies able to influence the degree of behaviour-based interference experienced by employees.

In terms of the general efficacy of emotion-focused coping techniques, cognitive reappraisal of the situation appeared to be the only successful interference-reduction strategy for all employees participating in this research. Behavioural disengagement, or "giving up", emerged as an ineffective coping strategy, being positively associated with all three types of work-home interference. Positive thinking can evidently decrease perceptions of time, strain, and behavioural demands from one domain spilling over into another, but abandoning all attempts to achieve balance between work and home has uniformly detrimental consequences.

Greater differences between the amount of variance explained by higher order categories of coping may have been found had different higher order categories of coping been employed. As mentioned earlier, Skinner et al. (2003) posit that problem-focused versus emotion-focused categories are ineffective, because any particular strategy of coping is likely to serve more than one function. They argue that higher order categories are only useful when each category is functionally homogeneous as well as functionally distinct from every other category, as determined by the functions of each coping category in helping an organism adapt to its environment under stress. Strategies of coping that are functionally homogeneous should be able to be substituted for each other, because they serve the same function in responding to stress. This is clearly not the case for some of the strategies encompassed in problem-focused or emotion-focused categories of coping; e.g., behavioural disengagement does not serve the same function (escaping a stressful environment) as cognitive reappraisal (adjusting one's preferences for available options). According to Skinner et al. (2003), action types (e.g., proximity seeking, mastery, accommodation) constitute better higher order categories than problem-focused and emotion-focused coping. Using these more refined higher order categories may have

resulted in greater distinctions between the effects of a particular category on a particular form of work-home interference.

8.8.3 Gender differences in strategy use

With the exception of seeking social support, the men and women participating in this research did not differ significantly in their use of coping strategies for work-home interference. The most popular techniques for both sexes were those in which the responsibility for reducing work-home interference remained with the individual (increased role behaviour, cognitive reappraisal, and tension reduction), rather than employing the assistance of others to redefine roles and redistribute demands (limiting work or home role involvement, scheduling one domain to accommodate the other, and enlisting social support).

Similar findings were obtained twenty years ago by Elman and Gilbert (1984), indicating that despite the mounting awareness of "work-life balance" within the past two decades, both men and women remain reluctant to seek structural change in the workplace. The use of non-standard work arrangements, such as flexible hours or working from home, often renders employees less visible in the workplace. Because time spent at work is often used as an indicator of employee commitment and productivity, these arrangements have been associated with career penalties such as lower performance evaluations, smaller wage increases, or fewer promotions (Bailyn, 1997; Raabe, 1996). It is therefore unsurprising that the participants in the current study chose to focus on coping strategies with fewer potential negative career repercussions.

A similar reluctance to restructure the home or family role among respondents of this research, the majority of them caregivers to either children or adult dependents, may indicate their desire or sense of obligation to fulfill the demands of this role themselves rather than delegating, sharing, or otherwise reducing their responsibilities. Conversely, the preponderance of respondents belonging to dual-earner households suggests that resources for restructuring home demands may be limited. Opportunities to devolve

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responsibilities to others may not present themselves readily, resulting in a reliance upon more individual means of coping with competing demands from work and home.

8.8.4 Gender differences in effectiveness of strategies

Although relatively little variance in work-home interference was explained by the gender interactions, two of the coping strategies under investigation - limiting work role involvement and scheduling home to accommodate work demands - emerged as having differential effects on work-home interference for the men and women in this research. Limiting work role involvement was associated with lower work interference with home for women only. Women are still expected to be the primary caretakers of the home, and as such, it may be more socially acceptable for them to limit their involvement or responsibilities at work, their "secondary" domain. Men, in contrast, are still expected to make work a priority (Wiley, 1991). Limiting or reducing their involvement at work would be likely to result in organizational penalties for men which might offset the benefits of any extra time or energy gained.

While it is evident that altering one's personal life to fit around one's work would be associated with the interference of work with that personal life, it is somewhat surprising that scheduling home arrangements to accommodate work demands predicted increased levels of two of the three types of work-home interference for only the men in this research. An explanation may lie in the fact that men have traditionally been expected to prioritize work over home life (Powell, 1997), including making home life flexible enough to accommodate work demands. Now that expectations are changing regarding men's role in the home, and men are increasingly taking responsibility for childcare and becoming more involved generally in family roles (Levine & Pittinsky, 1997), clinging to these old ways of working may provoke more conflict, and more awareness of the differences between the way men are supposed to behave at work and at home. Another possibility is that the men in this study habitually make more far-ranging accommodations than do the women, to the point where these accommodations have an effect that those made by women do not. The

survey did not assess the extent of accommodations made, and it is therefore difficult to verify this explanation.

The results of this chapter have helped to extend previous work-home coping research in several ways. The quantification of coping techniques such as limiting role involvement that have been identified in interview-based studies (e.g., Becker & Moen, 1999; Karambayya & Reilly, 1992) has permitted the empirical investigation of their effectiveness in alleviating work-home interference. The comparison of problem-focused to emotion-focused coping strategies has enabled each set of techniques to be evaluated in terms of their ability to explain variance in work-home interference. However, a number of this chapter's findings are also consistent with existing research. As with other studies that have found few or no differences in the coping techniques used by men and women, the results reported in this chapter have provided no support for the socialization hypothesis (Hamilton & Fagot, 1988; Porter & Stone, 1995). Together with the findings of Paden and Buehler (1995), the results of this chapter instead suggest that gender differences lie in the efficacy of coping strategies, rather than the frequency of their use.

8.9 Limitations

Several limitations to the present chapter should be noted. More total variance was explained for work interference with home than for either home interference with work or behaviour-based interference. The coping strategies under investigation in this study, together with the control variables incorporated, appear to be more useful in predicting levels of work interference with home than in predicting either of the other two types of interference. In addition, work interference with home was the only dependent variable in which the additional variance explained by the interactions between gender and coping reached statistical significance. Gender is evidently an important factor in coping with work interference with home, but its influence on coping with other types of interference seems less remarkable.

The men and women in this study appear to have similar experiences of home interference with work, both in the amount of interference reported and in the selection and effectiveness of coping strategies employed to reduce it. It may be that expectations for participation in the home role are comparable for both the men and women in this study, rendering their coping experiences alike as well. The inclusion of a measure of employees' responsibilities at home would have helped to determine whether or not this was the case. Furthermore, a measure of masculinity vs. femininity may have revealed that differences attributable to gender orientation are more pronounced than those accredited to biological sex.

Regarding variance explained, home interference with work is clearly affected not only by coping techniques, hours worked, and the presence of children in the household, but also by factors not included in this study. A greater number of variables originating in the home domain might have gone some way towards increasing the variance explained for this type of interference. In terms of behaviour-based work-home interference, it could be that more detailed information about the nature of the behaviours demanded in one's job, and the nature of behaviours demanded in one's home environment, is necessary to explain a larger amount of variance.

8.10 Conclusion

The results of this chapter suggest that regardless of which type of work-home interference is experienced by an individual, cognitive reappraisal of the situation is likely to prove most successful at reducing interference, while forsaking any attempts to rectify the interference is apt to prove least effective.

The discovery that women who curtail their involvement in the workplace in order to better meet their responsibilities at home enjoy correspondingly lower work interference with home, while men do not, is indicative of the persistence of traditional gender role expectations in today's workplace. Women whose actions at work fall in line with conventional thinking regarding their primary place in the home are unlikely to suffer the

same degree of negative feedback as men, whose self-imposed constraints on work role involvement would be perceived as nonconformist.

In contrast, the finding that scheduling one's home activities to accommodate work demands contributed to both work interference with home and behaviour-based interference for men, but not women, can most likely be attributed to changing societal expectations concerning gender roles. Men are experiencing a tug-of-war between the workplace, in which shaping one's participation at home to conform to job demands has been both expected and rewarded since time immemorial, and the home, where men's increasing participation has meant that overt concessions to the workplace now provoke perceptions of one's job as intrusive and one's job-related behaviours as inappropriate for use elsewhere.

Judging from the higher levels of behaviour-based interference they report, men appear to perceive a greater discrepancy than do women between how they are supposed to act in the workplace, and how they are expected to behave at home. This too is evidence of how expectations of men at work are not keeping pace with changing expectations of men in the home. The implications of these findings are that traditional gender-role attitudes in the workplace must undergo some adjustment before commonly used work-home coping strategies can benefit both men and women equally.

This thesis has presented findings concerning antecedents and outcomes of work-home interference, and examined the role of coping strategies used by individuals to deal with interference. The significance of these findings for the field of organizational behaviour will now be discussed in greater depth. Chapter 9 will address both practical and research implications of the results established in the last five chapters of this thesis, and suggest ways to build upon these results in future research.

Chapter 9 – Discussion and Conclusion

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        9.2.2   Outcomes of work-home interference
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9.1 Introduction

The last five chapters of this thesis have investigated a number of research questions regarding the determinants and outcomes of work-home interference, and associated coping strategies. This chapter will recapitulate the key findings of the thesis, before describing the original contribution of this thesis to research in the field of work-home interference, as well as to research in the field of organizational behaviour more generally. The practical implications of these findings will then be discussed, as will the limitations of the research. Finally, directions for future research in work-home interference will be presented.

9.2 Summary of key findings

In this section, the various antecedents to work-home interference established in the thesis will be reviewed, along with the role of gender in influencing the effect of some of these antecedents. Following this will be a précis of the behavioural outcomes associated with work-home interference. Finally, the findings of this thesis concerning individual coping strategies for work-home interference will be summarized, together with the moderating effects of gender on the link between coping and interference.

9.2.1 Antecedents of work-home interference

A number of different contributors to work-home interference were explored in this thesis: demographic and family domain variables, work-related factors, and personality characteristics. Chapter 4 examined the extent to which characteristics of one domain (e.g., work) could directly influence interference originating from another domain (e.g., home interference with work). It also investigated the role of gender in determining the degree to which certain variables contributed to work-home interference. An illustration of this chapter's findings is provided in Figure 9.1.

Figure 9.1: Key findings - Gender and opposite-domain antecedents of work-home interference
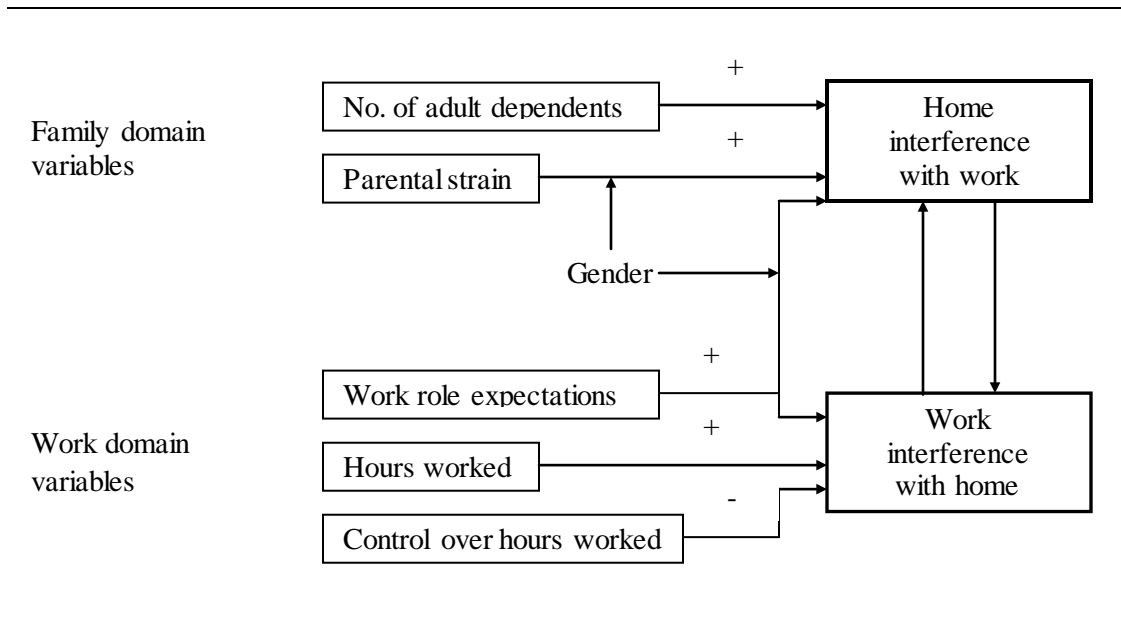
The findings indicated that the degree to which an individual's work interfered with his or her personal life was dependent solely upon job-related characteristics. Employees who worked longer hours and who felt under pressure from colleagues and superiors to prioritize work over family reported higher levels of work interference with home than did individuals working fewer hours and perceiving fewer expectations regarding their commitment to the workplace. In addition, the greater control an employee wielded over his or her work hours, the less work interference with home he or she was likely to report. Levels of work interference with home were unaffected by any family-related characteristics, beyond the degree to which one's home-related responsibilities interfered with completion of job-related tasks.

In contrast, the extent to which an individual's responsibilities at home intruded upon his or her work was dependent upon both family-related and work-related characteristics, and the effect of two of these characteristics was influenced by the gender of the individual. In terms of family characteristics, the more adult dependents for whom an employee had caregiving responsibilities, the more home interference with work that employee was likely to report. Strain related to parenting responsibilities also predicted levels of home interference with work, particularly for

men. With regard to work-related characteristics, expectations from colleagues and superiors concerning an employee's willingness to work long hours and prioritize work over family were predictive of home interference with work for men. Higher levels of work interference with home were also likely to result in increased home interference with work.

In summary, work interference with home was associated predominantly with work-related characteristics. Work role expectations, hours worked, control over hours, and home interference with work worked predicted work interference with home. Home interference with work was associated with home-related factors, work-related factors, and gender. Number of adult dependants, parental strain, and work interference with home predicted home interference with work, as did the interactions between gender and parental strain, and between gender and work role expectations.

To complement the primarily situational perspective adopted in Chapter 4, a different set of antecedents to work-home interference was examined in Chapter 5. Personality characteristics – perfectionism, self-esteem, and self-efficacy – were investigated as determinants of work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference. The ability of these dispositional variables to explain variance in work-home interference was compared with that of three situational variables epitomizing organizational work-home culture: organizational time demands, co-worker resentment, and managerial support. The findings of Chapter 5 are illustrated in Figure 9.2.

Personality characteristics were found capable of predicting all three types of work-home interference, to varying degrees. Individuals scoring highly in generalized self-esteem experienced lower levels of home interference with work, as did those scoring highly in adaptive perfectionism, who reported setting high personal standards for their performance but who were not upset when they failed to achieve those standards. Individuals scoring highly in maladaptive perfectionism, who were distressed by their inability to achieve high personal standards for performance, reported higher levels of all three types of interference: work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference.

Figure 9.2: Key findings – Dispositional vs. situational antecedents of work-home interference
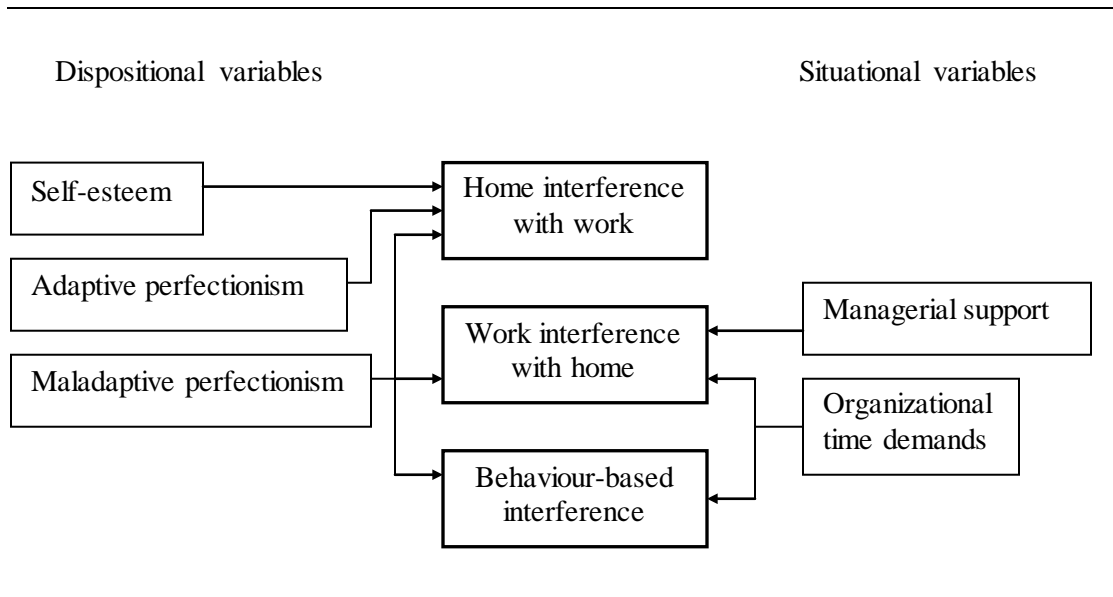
Situational variables also played a role in determining levels of work-home interference. Employees who perceived that their organizations expected them to work long hours and sacrifice personal time in order to succeed in their jobs and advance within the organization were more likely to report high levels of work interference with home, and interference between work-related behaviours and home-related behaviours. Lower levels of work interference with home were reported by employees who perceived that management was supportive of their efforts to balance work and home responsibilities.

In terms of which set of variables – dispositional or situational – was capable of explaining more variance in work-home interference, the findings differ amongst the dimensions of work-home interference. Personality characteristics were found to explain the majority of the variance in both home interference with work and behaviour-based interference, while work-home culture explained the preponderance of variance in work interference with home.

9.2.2 Outcomes of work-home interference

Three different behavioural outcomes of work-home interference were explored in this thesis: task performance, organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and

workplace deviance. In Chapter 6, the ability of work-home interference to predict employee performance was investigated. Work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference were examined as predictors of both in-role and extra-role performance, as was organizational work-home culture. The potential for perceived opportunity to engage in OCB as a mediator in the relationships between interference and citizenship behaviour was also investigated. The key findings of Chapter 6 are presented in the diagram below.

Figure 9.3: Key findings – Effects of work-home interference on employee performance
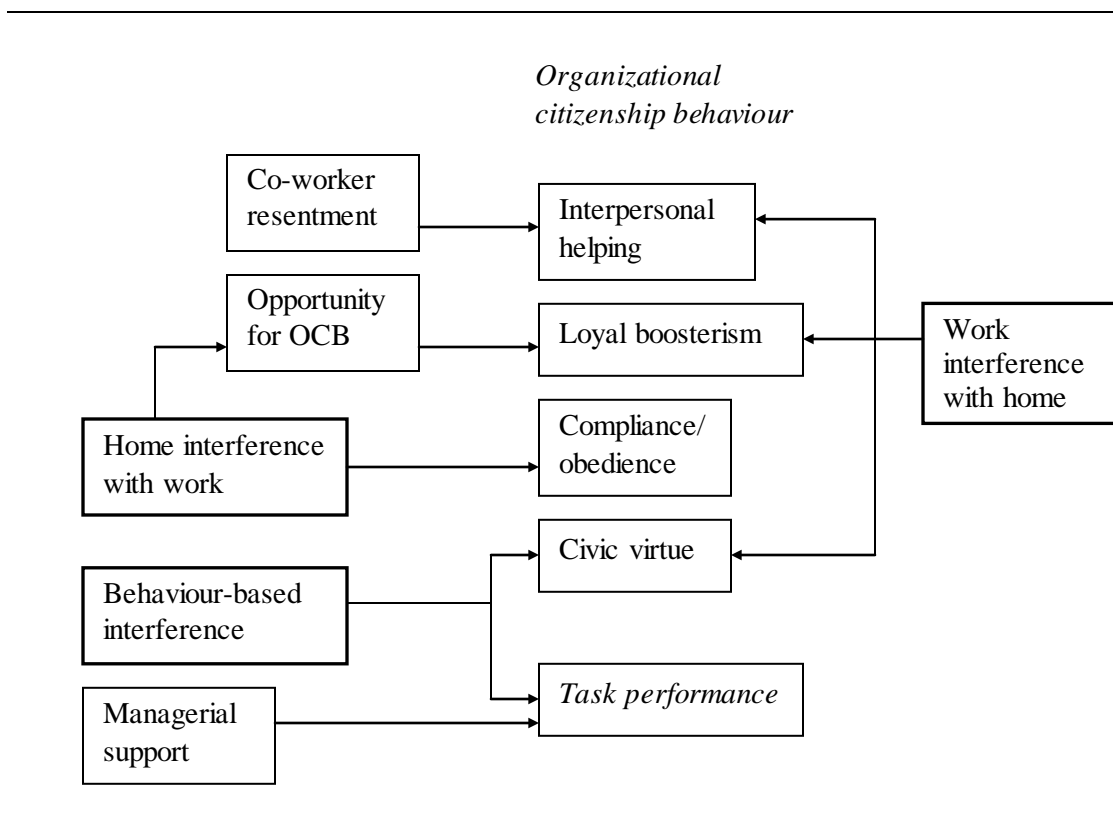
These findings suggest that in-role and extra-role job performance have different predictors. Employees' task performance was affected by their levels of behaviour-based work-home interference; the more they perceived that the behaviours they used at work were inappropriate at home, and vice versa, the lower they rated their performance on the job. When management was seen as being supportive and understanding of employees' efforts to balance work and home responsibilities, self-ratings of job performance were higher.

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Of the four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour investigated, three were associated with work interference with home. Employees whose work duties interfered to a greater extent with their responsibilities at home were more likely to report engaging in interpersonal helping, loyal boosterism, and civic virtue behaviours. In contrast, home interference with work was related to less participation in organizational citizenship behaviours. In the case of loyal boosterism, the negative relationship between home interference with work and citizenship behaviour was mediated by perceived opportunity for OCB. Individuals whose personal or family lives interfered consistently with their work reported less perceived opportunity to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours, and lower levels of perceived opportunity for OCB were associated in turn with reduced participation in loyal boosterism. High levels of home interference with work also contributed directly to lower levels of participation in compliance/obedience behaviours. Work-home culture played a small role in predicting organizational citizenship behaviour; employees who perceived that their co-workers were resentful of their efforts to balance work and home demands were less likely to report engaging in interpersonal helping behaviours.

Overall, citizenship behaviour outcomes of work-home interference differed between the two directions of interference. Work interference with home was associated with greater levels of participation in OCB's, whereas home interference with work was associated with lower levels of engagement in citizenship behaviours. Behaviour-based interference was associated with lower levels of only one of the OCB dimensions, civic virtue.

Turning to dysfunctional behavioural outcomes of work-home interference, Chapter 7 explored the relationship between interference and workplace deviance. Work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference were investigated as determinants of participation in both interpersonally oriented and organization-oriented deviant behaviours. Attribution of responsibility for work-home interference and fairness perceptions regarding organizational work-home options were also explored as potential moderators of the relationship between interference and deviance. The findings of this chapter are presented in Figure 9.4.

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Figure 9.4: Key findings – Effects of work-home interference on workplace deviance
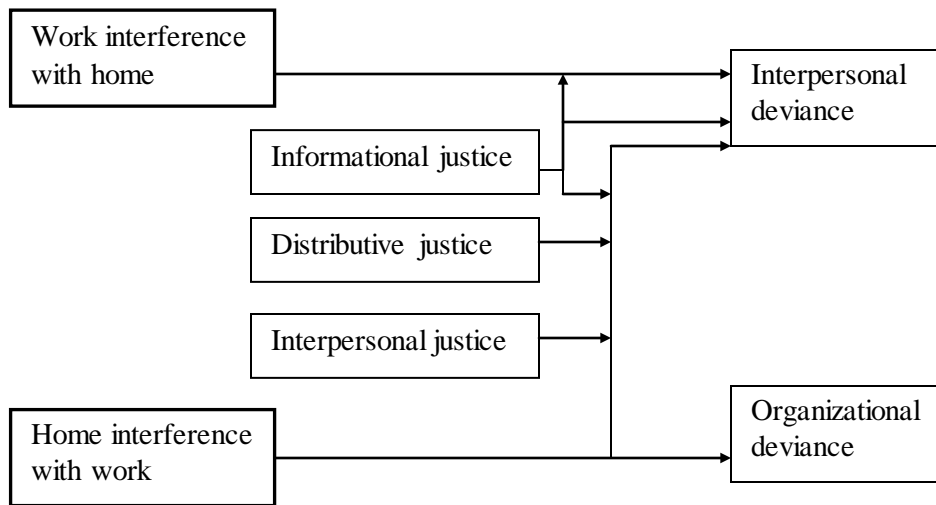
Employees suffering from high levels of work interference with home were more likely to report engaging in deviant behaviours directed at other individuals in the workplace. Those who perceived that their organization had failed to provide them with sufficient information regarding available work-home options were also more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance. Employee perceptions of informational justice also moderated the relationship between work interference with home and interpersonal deviance, such that work interference with home was more likely to lead to deviance when levels of informational justice were low.

Individuals whose home responsibilities interfered with their ability to perform their jobs reported greater participation in deviant behaviours directed at the organization, such as neglecting to follow a supervisor's instructions, or taking time away from work without permission. Three dimensions of justice moderated the effect of home interference with work on interpersonal deviance: informational, distributive, and interpersonal. As with work interference with home, home interference with work resulted in interpersonal deviance when employees perceived that their organization did not provide them with appropriate information about available work-home options. Counter-intuitively, home interference with work also contributed to interpersonal deviance when employees perceived that their access to work-home

options was fair, or when they felt that their supervisor treated them with respect and dignity.

9.2.3 Coping with work-home interference

After having explored antecedents and outcomes of work-home interference, this thesis turned to an investigation of strategies used by individuals for coping with interference. Chapter 8 examined the effects of five problem-focused and four emotion-focused coping strategies on levels of work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference. The ability of problem-focused coping to explain variance in work-home interference was compared to that of emotion-focused coping, and the potential for gender to influence the extent to which certain coping strategies were effective in reducing interference was also evaluated. The findings of Chapter 8 are illustrated below in Figure 9.5.

Figure 9.5: Key findings – Effects of coping on work-home interference
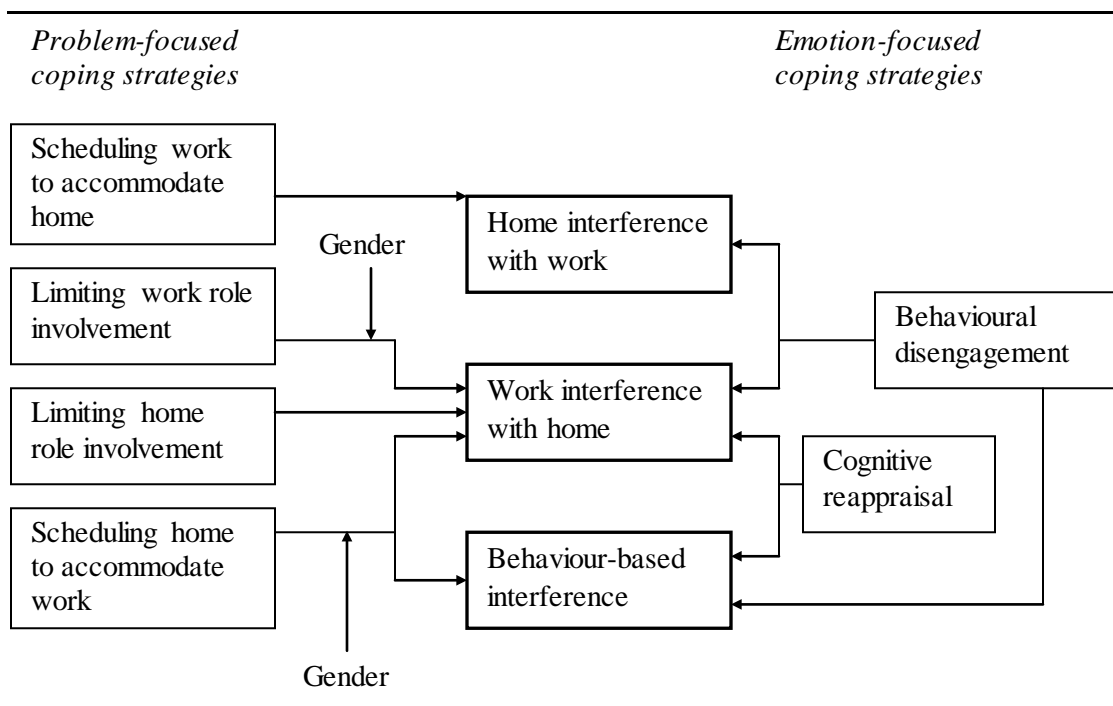
Only one of the coping strategies studied had a demonstrable effect in reducing levels of work-home interference for both men and women participating in the research. Cognitive reappraisal, wherein individuals consciously attempt to reframe demands or alter their attitudes about their work-home situation, was associated with lower levels

of work interference with home and behaviour-based interference. Another technique, limiting work role involvement (which involves cutting back on work-related commitments or setting clear limits for allocation of time and resources to work demands), was effective in reducing interference for women, but not for men.

The majority of the coping strategies investigated were associated with higher, instead of reduced, levels of work-home interference. Individuals who attempted to resolve their work-home interference by scheduling work activities to accommodate their responsibilities at home reported higher levels of home interference with work than did individuals not employing this technique. Limiting involvement in home-related roles, meanwhile, resulted in increased levels of work interference with home. Employees who scheduled their activities at home to accommodate work demands reported more work interference with home, particularly if they were men, and male employees using this strategy were also more likely to experience elevated levels of behaviour-based interference. Behavioural disengagement, a strategy comprising a reduction in efforts made to deal with competing work and home demands, produced higher levels of all three types of interference: work interference with home, home interference with work, and behaviour-based interference.

Problem-focused strategies were responsible for explaining the majority of variance in home interference with work. Emotion-focused coping explained more variance in behaviour-based interference, and neither type of coping was more effective than the other in explaining variance in work interference with home.

9.3 Contribution of the thesis

The main contribution of this thesis is to the field of work-home research. The findings outlined in section 9.2 add substantially to the body of empirical knowledge on work-home interference in the following areas: the factors predicting interference, how interference affects employee behaviour in the workplace, and whether commonly-used coping strategies are effective in reducing interference between work and home. By virtue of its findings on the antecedents of employee behaviour and mediating and moderating influences, the thesis also makes a minor contribution to knowledge of employee performance and contextual behaviour,. This section will first

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describe the original contributions made to the work-home arena, before addressing those made to the field of organizational behaviour more generally.

9.3.1 Contribution to the work-home interference literature

Chapter 2 described the early trend among researchers of work-home interference towards conceptualizing, and therefore measuring, interference as a non-directional phenomenon. The continued tendency in work-home research to ignore the difference between work interference with home and home interference with work has often led to confusion regarding which direction of interference is actually being predicted by empirically established antecedents, or which direction of interference is responsible for predicting outcomes (e.g., Erdwins et al., 2001; Hill et al., 2001; Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). One of the contributions made by this thesis lies in its demonstration that using combined, non-directional measures of work-home interference may mask important differences in antecedents, outcomes, and coping strategies associated with work interference with home and home interference with work. The findings of Chapters 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 clearly showed the conceptual independence of each direction of interference: different factors predicted different directions of interference, work interference with home and home interference with work were responsible for dissimilar outcomes, and they were affected in different ways by a variety of coping strategies. Given these results, the sustained use in the literature of non-directional measures of work-home interference is of questionable merit.

A similar case can be made for the use of work-home interference measures that differentiate among time-based, strain-based, and behaviour-based interference. As was discussed in Chapter 2, the vast majority of work-home interference research employs measures of interference based on time and strain demands only. The findings of this thesis indicate that the antecedents and outcomes of behaviour-based interference are different than those of time- and strain-based interference. For example, Chapter 6 revealed that behaviour-based interference was the only type of work-home interference to affect levels of employee task performance. This demonstrates that a complete understanding of work-home interference cannot be achieved without inclusion of behaviour-based interference, in addition to interference generated by time and strain demands. In addition, this thesis is one of very few

studies to investigate behaviour-based interference, and its findings concerning the predictors and consequences of this neglected type of interference extend current research in the work-home field.

In terms of investigating and establishing antecedents to work-home interference, this thesis has attempted to contribute to existing research. Firstly, the widely held assumption among work-home researchers (discussed in Chapters 2 and 4) that only home-related characteristics predict home interference with work, and work-related characteristics predict work interference with home, has been questioned. The findings of Chapter 4 showed that while work interference with home may be determined solely by work-relevant factors, the degree to which an individual's home life interferes with his or her work is determined not only by the characteristics of the home, but also of the workplace (primarily in the form of work role expectations). As will be discussed in section 9.4 of this chapter, the knowledge that organizations are in some way responsible for the extent to which their employees' personal lives impede their completion of job tasks is of considerable significance. The accountability of the workplace for contributing not only to the interference of work demands with employees' personal lives, but also to the intrusion of employees' personal responsibilities into their place of work, constitutes a major shift in our awareness of how work-home interference is generated.

This thesis examined the effect of personality variables not previously investigated as predictors of work-home interference. Self-esteem, adaptive perfectionism, and maladaptive perfectionism were associated with the three types of work-home interference under study. Compared to the abundance of research into situational predictors of interference, the study of personality as a determinant of the degree to which individuals experience interference between work and home is under-developed. There has been a call for research examining both situational and dispositional factors related to work-home interference, so that a more complete understanding of the foundations of interference can be attained (Bruck & Allen, 2003). This thesis is the first known piece of research to compare situational and dispositional characteristics in their ability to explain variance in work-home interference. Chapter 5's discovery that dispositional factors are superior to situational ones in explaining variance in home interference with work is of considerable

importance, given the prominent role commonly assigned to situational, home-related characteristics in predicting this type of interference.

The findings of this thesis have also added to our understanding of the role of gender in affecting levels of work-home interference. Although researchers have been recommending further investigation of gender differences associated with interference for a number of years (Tenbrunsel et al., 1995; Parker & Hall, 1992), few studies incorporate gender as anything other than a control variable. Chapters 4 and 8 of this thesis have shown that men and women are differentially prone to experience home interference with work as a result of given situational characteristics, and that gender is also capable of influencing the extent to which certain coping strategies are effective in reducing work interference with home and behaviour-based interference. The fact that some factors (e.g., work role expectations) produce interference for men but not women, and that some coping strategies (e.g., limiting work role involvement) are effective for women but not men, is indicative of the continued existence of traditional gender role expectations in the workplace. The persistence of these gender role expectations has substantial implications for organizations, which will be addressed in section 9.4 of this chapter.

Given the embryonic state of the work-home coping literature, the contribution of this thesis to existing research on coping with work-home interference is as follows. The scales created in Chapter 8 to assess the use of individual coping strategies extend current measures of individual coping techniques. Chapter 8's findings regarding the superiority of problem-focused strategies in explaining variance in home interference with work, and the dominance of emotion-focused strategies in explaining behaviour-based interference, also extend existing research. To date, no other evaluations of problem-focused vs. emotion-focused coping strategies has been conducted, and the relative merits of each in predicting levels of work-home interference have not been known. The emergence of particular strategies as predicting either increased or reduced levels of work-home interference also contributes to the existing body of work-home knowledge, in that these strategies (cognitive reappraisal, behavioural disengagement, limiting role involvement, or scheduling activities in one domain to accommodate the other) have not previously been operationalized or tested empirically. Finally, this thesis is the first study to examine gender differences in

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coping with work-home interference, and its findings regarding the differing effectiveness of strategies for men and for women represent a valuable insight into the consequences for employees seeking to manage competing work and home demands.

9.3.2   Contribution to the performance and counter-performance literature

While the original contribution of this thesis lies primarily in the area of work-home research, smaller but nonetheless significant contributions have also been made to the field of organizational behaviour more generally. The findings of this thesis shed new light on our knowledge of several types of employee behaviour in the workplace: organizational citizenship behaviour, task performance, and workplace deviance.

Existing research on organizational citizenship behaviour has concentrated on employees' perceptions of favourable treatment from organizations (usually POS) as the primary determinant of their participation in OCB (e.g., Moorman et al., 1998; Wayne et al., 1997). The present thesis has gone beyond this focus and identified the degree of interference between employees' work and home responsibilities as a predictor of their involvement in citizenship behaviours. In the case of home interference with work and behaviour-based interference, negative effects on participation in OCB were observed, leading one to the conclusion that employers must take employees' personal lives into account if they wish employees to go "beyond the call of duty" for the organization and exceed the requirements of their task performance. With regard to work interference with home, this thesis has demonstrated that even when their work has unfavourable consequences for their personal lives, employees will continue to engage in citizenship behaviours. As will be discussed in section 9.6, this unusual finding merits further research.

Another finding of the thesis with significance for the study of organizational citizenship behaviour is the identification of a situational constraint on OCB other than that of job autonomy, heretofore the only restriction on employees' ability to perform OCB that has been established in the literature (Farh et al., 2002; Gellatly & Irving, 2001). The extent to which employees perceive that they have the opportunity to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours, predicated in some cases by the amount of interference experienced between work and home, was shown to exert a

strong influence on their performance of OCB. The implication of this finding for the study of organizational citizenship behaviour is that known contributors to OCB, such as perceived organizational support or personality characteristics (e.g., Lee & Allen, 2002; Moorman & Blakeley, 1995), may suffer from reduced predictive ability if work-home interference produces low perceived opportunity for OCB among employees.

With regard to task performance, this thesis has identified two additional determinants of employee performance levels: the degree to which employees' behaviours at work and at home are non-interchangeable, and the extent to which management exhibits support for employees' efforts to balance work and home responsibilities. Previous research has established a link between POS and in-role performance (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Wayne et al., 1997), but the findings of the present thesis represent the first time that work-home-specific support from representatives of the employing organization has been shown to influence employees' performance on the job.

This thesis has also contributed to the study of workplace deviance, which has focused largely upon employee perceptions of organizational justice as the chief determinant of deviant behaviours at work (e.g., Aquino et al., 1999; Fox et al., 2001). The findings of Chapter 7 have shown that work-home interference is capable of predicting employee participation in deviant behaviours, above and beyond the effects of organizational justice. This represents a valuable development in our knowledge of employee rationales for engaging in workplace deviance. Another notable contribution of this thesis to existing knowledge of workplace deviance is the revelation that targeted justice perceptions – i.e., justice related to a specific topic, such as organizational work-home options – is important in predicting deviance. Until now, researchers have used measures of justice concerning topics of a less precise nature, such as "general organizational procedures" or information (e.g., Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Skarlicki et al., 1999). Recognition that employee perceptions of issue-specific fairness can predict employee involvement in undesirable workplace behaviour has obvious implications for management, which will be discussed in the following section of this chapter.

9.4 Practical implications

In addition to the contributions to the literature described in the section above, some practical implications can also be drawn from the findings of this thesis. First of all, the negative consequences of employee work-home interference for organizations are more extensive than has previously been thought. The impetus for organizations to formulate policies and practices designed to prevent interference between work and home is therefore greater. Secondly, the origins of work-home interference are now better understood. Knowledge of which factors are likely to contribute to interference may facilitate the design of preventative measures to address the influence of these factors; e.g., training for managers in how to recognize and assist employees experiencing work-home interference may enhance employee perceptions of managerial support, and result in lower levels of interference. Finally, employee perceptions of workplace phenomena related to work-home issues – such as how supportive management and co-workers are towards those managing competing work-home demands, and the fairness of organizational work-home options – are also associated with undesirable outcomes for organizations. Changes in culture and in communication are therefore necessary should organizations wish to avoid these repercussions.

9.4.1 Repercussions of work-home interference for organizations

The results of this study suggest that the consequences of work-home interference for organizations are more numerous than has previously been assumed. In addition to reducing employee attendance and retention (Anderson et al., 2002; Greenhaus et al., 1997), interference between work and home has now been shown to significantly reduce employees' opportunities to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours, and the degree to which employees' responsibilities at home intrude upon the workplace decreases their actual participation in citizenship behaviour. Individuals whose behaviour at work is incompatible with their behaviour at home are more likely to report decreased levels of task performance as well as organizational citizenship behaviour. Interference between work and home has also been linked to higher rates of involvement in workplace deviance, aimed at both individuals and at the organization itself.

These findings indicate that the costs to organizations of employee work-home interference are greater than has heretofore been supposed. Individual task performance and organizational citizenship behaviours have important ramifications for organizational performance (Podsakoff et al., 1997); any phenomenon that hampers employees' contributions to the workplace is a liability for their employer. Workplace deviance, meanwhile, can incur great losses for an organization in terms of reduced productivity, low morale, and legal expenses (Bensimon, 1994; O'Leary et al., 1996). It follows that the work-home interference of an organization's workforce is likely to compromise organizational effectiveness, and that there is considerable incentive for organizations to formulate and implement effective solutions to the problem of interference between their employees' work and home demands.

9.4.2 Preventing work-home interference

The present thesis has identified a number of factors – home-related, work-related, and dispositional – that contribute to work-home interference among employees. Knowledge of these determinants of interference can assist organizations in designing strategies to counteract their negative effects on employee performance. Some of the factors identified cannot be directly manipulated by the organization, such as strain generated from parenting demands, or the number of adult dependants for whom an employee has caregiving responsibilities. In these cases, however, organizational efforts can still be made to lessen the impact of home-related demands. For instance, provision of referrals for eldercare services could help to lessen the burden on employed caregivers and reduce the amount of interference with work generated by the responsibility of caring for adult dependants. Employee assistance programmes offering counselling or a series of parenting seminars may also assist in reducing the degree to which parental strain affects performance on the job.

In the case of work-related factors associated with interference, the ability of organizations to intervene is far greater – as is, perhaps, the moral obligation to do so. The findings of this thesis suggest that work demands made by organizations may have more influence over the degree to which their employees' work and home lives

collide than has previously been assumed, affecting levels of not only work interference with home, but also home interference with work (see Chapter 4). In the face of evidence that organizations are causing the very phenomenon that hurts them, the responsibility of organizations to modify their demands on employees and reduce levels of interference is enhanced.

In Chapter 4, it was shown that working hours and the control employees wield over the timing and location of those hours were important determinants of the degree to which work interfered with home. While it is unlikely that organizations will voluntarily reduce employees' hours, granting individuals greater autonomy over where and when they work those hours may help to reduce interference between work and home. Research has shown that perceived flexibility in timing and location of work predicts lower levels of work-home interference among employees (Hammer et al., 1997; Hill et al., 2001), and organizations that offer flexible working policies stand to reap added benefits: the availability of such policies is associated with greater employee commitment (Roehling et al., 2001; Scandura & Lankau, 1997), and satisfaction with flexible working hours has been linked to reduced intentions to turnover (Aryee et al., 1998).

Aspects of an organization's work-home culture were also shown to play an important part in contributing to employee work-home interference. Chapters 4 and 5 both demonstrated that interference increases when employees perceive that their co-workers, superiors, and the organization in general expect them to put in long hours and assign priority to work over home in order to progress in their careers. Particularly for men, management of such expectations is another area in which organizations can and should play a key role. Current norms still appear to require men to leave their family obligations at home (Wiley, 1991) and assign priority to the work domain. Increasing awareness of unreasonable expectations among supervisors, improving access to work-home options for male employees, and addressing the potentially negative consequences of using these options could all contribute to a shift in workplace culture to acknowledge the importance of men's family roles. This culture change is overdue and entirely necessary should organizations wish to reduce levels of work-home interference amongst their employees.

With regard to dispositional determinants of work-home interference, the results of this thesis would not, upon first examination, appear to have many applications for the workplace. Employers are unlikely to select employees on the basis of their predeliction for adaptive or maladaptive perfectionism, or self-esteem. It is equally unlikely that personality characteristics such as these can be encouraged or discouraged via conventional training procedures. Raising managerial awareness of the influence of personality traits upon the experience of work-home interference may, however, prove useful. It is well documented that managerial support of work-home issues is associated with lower levels of employee work-home interference (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). A manager aware of, for example, the distress caused by a mismatch between an employee's performance and personal standards may provide more effective support than one who assumes interference between work and home is attributable only to situational characteristics.

Implications of the present research can be drawn for individuals as well as for organizations. Employees attempting to manage competing work and home demands by employing one or more of the coping strategies described in Chapter 8 would be well advised to avoid giving up on the situation altogether, as behavioural disengagement has been shown to result in higher levels of all three types of work-home interference when adopted. Problem-focused strategies such as scheduling activities in one domain to accommodate responsibilities in the other (e.g., scheduling work to accommodate home) were revealed as doing little to reduce interference generated in the first domain (e.g., work), while often increasing interference originating from the other (e.g., home), suggesting that adoption of these techniques should be carefully considered and monitored frequently for negative "side effects" once implemented. Men should also take note of the fact that certain coping strategies were much less effective in reducing interference for them than for their female counterparts. Until changes occur to organizational norms regarding the primacy of work and the subordination of home and family concerns in men's lives, men's efforts to accommodate demands from both work and home may be ill-fated.

9.4.3 Work-home culture and communication in organizations

In addition to predicting levels of interference between work and home, aspects of organizational work-home culture have been shown in this thesis to influence employee behaviour in the workplace. The degree of support exhibited by management for employees' work-home concerns affected employee task performance, and the extent to which co-workers displayed resentment of those taking time away from work to deal with personal or family responsibilities predicted employees' involvement in interpersonal helping behaviours. Management training in sensitivity to work-home issues and in techniques for assisting their subordinates to manage competing demands may therefore help to improve employees' performance on the job. Previous research has shown that managerial sensitivity to work-home issues varies wildly and is often contingent upon the manager's own personal circumstances. For instance, female managers and those with greater parental responsibilities have been shown to be more flexible in helping employees meet their work-home needs than have male managers and those with less parental responsibility (Parker & Allen, 2002), and female managers have also been found to grant more subordinate requests for flexible working arrangements than have male managers (Powell & Mainiero, 1999). Assessment of managers' work-home awareness and effectiveness in rendering assistance to affected employees could be incorporated into the performance appraisal process, as a means of strengthening management incentive to work with employees towards a solution to the problem of interference. Increased managerial support for work-home issues may then have a "top-down" effect on improving staff attitudes towards employees taking time off for personal or family reasons. Measures to ensure that absent employees' workloads are not routinely reallocated to remaining employees without some form of compensation or recognition (e.g., extra vacation days) may also help to eradicate co-worker resentment toward those struggling to balance competing work and home demands.

The primary method by which organizations usually seek to reduce employee work-home interference and its negative repercussions for organizational effectiveness is the implementation of work-home options. In the present thesis, we have seen that simply instituting such options is not enough to ward off the effects of work-home interference on workplace deviance: employees must see these options to be

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thoroughly explained and the communications regarding their availability to be completely honest. This may be particularly the case in a workforce composed of employees such as those participating in this study, who reported high levels of work-home option usage. Clear, candid, and complete explanations of the options available may go some way towards ensuring that employees who experience work interference with home and/or home interference with work do not engage in deviant workplace behaviour as a result.

9.5 Limitations of the research

The implications of the present research detailed above should not be overstated due to several methodological reasons. First of all, the reliance of the thesis on a self-report measurement strategy means that the potential for spurious correlations among variables cannot be discounted. Spurious correlations occur when two variables are correlated only because the same unmeasured cause affects both (Spector, 1987). The common sources of bias associated with the survey instrument will be correlated, and may therefore produce spurious results when the genuine relationships among variables are non-existent or weak. Self-report measures have been associated with issues such as method variance and contamination effects (Spector, 1987). Spector and Brannick (1995) characterized method variance as the by-product of both the method of measurement and the intended traits; for instance, responses to items of a personal nature are likely to be influenced by social desirability, while answers to less sensitive items are not. This occurs even though the method for eliciting responses – a self-report questionnaire - is the same in both cases (Spector & Brannick, 1995). While this is undoubtedly a problem which calls for a degree of caution when interpreting data gathered through self-reports, it is not a problem confined to self-reports. Spector (1994) argued that method variance is likely to occur regardless of whether self-report, objective, or behavioural measures are used. In addition, self-report data collection was one of the few options available for the present research. Many of the variables under investigation in this study would be impossible to assess via objective measures, as the variables themselves are not objective (e.g., work-home culture, self-efficacy). The use of behavioural measures is both time- and resource-consuming, and employing them was therefore beyond the means of this study.

A well-known example of contamination effects is social desirability bias, the tendency for respondents to select socially desirable responses to questionnaire items regardless of whether or not those responses are true. Due to this phenomenon, there has been some debate regarding the use of self-reports to measure negative behaviour in particular (Lautenschlager and Flaherty, 1990). It is possible that incidences of deviant workplace behaviour are under-reported in the present study due to social desirability bias, and that peer reports would yield greater variance in the deviance constructs. On the other hand, many of the items assessing organizational deviance require knowledge of behaviours that peers of the target respondent would be unlikely to have. As Howard (1994) has pointed out, there are no alternative methods of measurement that are commonly accepted as being superior to the self-report technique. Evidence does exist to support the accuracy of self-report measures (Spector, 1992), and in many instances, the construct validity of self-reports has been found to be superior to the validity of other measurement approaches (e.g., Cole, Howard, & Maxwell, 1981; Cole, Lazarick, & Howard, 1987).

Any causal implications of the thesis findings should be interpreted with caution due to the threat to internal validity posed by the cross-sectional research design. Internal validity refers to the validity with which statements can be made about whether there is a causal relationship from one variable to another in the form in which the variables were manipulated or measured (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Ambiguity about the direction of causal influence is a problem in many correlational studies that are cross-sectional, and the present thesis is no exception. While longitudinal data collection is clearly preferable in terms of determining direction of causality between variables, limitations of time, access, and resources prevented the use of this approach in the present study. It should also be noted that causal inferences in the social sciences depend more heavily on the underlying theoretical reasoning proposed to support particular hypotheses than on empirical tests of temporal ordering (Karpinski, 1990).

Longitudinal research is necessary to firmly establish the direction of causality in many of the relationships investigated in this thesis (e.g., work interference with home and organizational citizenship behaviours). Interpretation of the thesis findings is also limited by the quantitative nature of the research design; a deeper understanding of

the empirical results may have been obtained had semi-structured or open-ended interviews with survey respondents been conducted in addition to the questionnaire-based collection of data.

The respondent sample used in the thesis research may pose a threat to external validity. External validity refers to the approximate validity with which conclusions are drawn about the generalizability of a causal relationship to and across populations of persons, settings, and times (Cook & Campbell, 1979). According to Cook and Campbell (1979), accidental samples of convenience such as the ones used in the present thesis make it difficult to infer the target population, or to establish what population is actually achieved. Furthermore, even when respondents belong to a target class of interest (e.g., public sector employees in the UK), systematic recruitment factors may lead to findings that are only applicable to those willing to participate in the research – e.g., individuals with a particular interest in the survey topic, those who have nothing else to do, etc. One feasible way of reducing this bias is to make participation in the research as convenient as possible. In the present thesis, convenience for the participants was afforded through the use of self-administered questionnaires that could be completed at the participant's discretion, at the time and location of their choice. The provision of pre-addressed and stamped envelopes for returning the survey made doing so less onerous than would be the case if the participant was required to procure an envelope and purchase and affix a stamp himself/herself.

Because the respondent sample used in the present thesis was composed entirely of public sector employees, it is a matter of debate as to whether the findings obtained can be generalized to other populations, such as individuals employed in the private sector. A number of differences have been shown to exist between public sector and private sector employees with regard to dispositional characteristics, motivators, and job attitudes. For instance, public sector employees have been found to exhibit lower growth needs, a more external locus of control, and a lower sense of competence than private sector employees (Bourantas & Papalexandris, 1999), and at the non-supervisory level, public sector employees have placed more importance on job security and less on pay, status, and prestige than have their counterparts in the private sector (Jurkiewicz, Massey Jr., & Brown, 1998). Public sector employees have also

been shown to perceive less formalization of their jobs and of communications with their supervisors (Kurland & Egan, 1999). These differences may influence the extent to which the relationships among variables found in this thesis are applicable to employees of private sector organizations. For example, self-efficacy may play a greater role in predicting work-home interference for private sector employees, who report a greater sense of competence and a more internal locus of control than individuals employed in the public sector (Bourantas & Papalexandris, 1999).

It is worth noting, however, that while this sample of public sector employees located primarily in the south of England may be quite specific, these employees differ in age, socio-economic status, intelligence, and so on. The predictors and outcomes of work-home interference tested in the thesis can therefore be presumed to exist despite such differences among the survey respondents, rendering generalizability somewhat less of a problem (Cook & Campbell, 1979).

Interpretation of the findings of this thesis would have been made easier had more contextual information been available regarding the organizations from which the survey respondents were drawn. Details of organizational pressures and policies under which employees worked may have illuminated some differences found between Sunnydale Borough Council and Durand College of Technology, for example (see Chapter 6, in which "Organization" was a significant predictor of participation in organizational citizenship behaviour). The significant difference between the two in the mean level of perceived organizational support reported by their employees suggests that the organizational climate at Durand College was less favourable than that at Sunnydale Borough Council. Further exploration of dissimilarities such as these, as well as an investigation of employees' personal circumstances (e.g., job grade, dual-earner vs. dual-career household) may have helped to shed light upon variations in predictors and outcomes of work-home interference among the study participants.

Another limitation of the research was the failure of the multidimensional work-home interference measure to separate into its discrete time-based and strain-based components during factor analysis. While this is by no means an isolated incident in the work-home literature, it may signal a weakness either of the measurement

instrument, or the conceptualization of work-home interference. Items measuring time-based interference and items measuring strain-based interference often load on the same factor (e.g., Geurts, Kompier, Roxburgh, & Houtman, 2003), and previous researchers have sometimes found that their measures of time-based and strain-based interference were highly correlated, indicating significant overlap between the two, and have therefore combined the two scales to form a single composite measure of overall time- and strain-based interference (e.g., Parasuraman et al., 1992; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). It has been suggested by Thompson and Beauvais (2000) that strong correlations between time-based and strain-based interference occur because strain is often a result of time demands. If this is indeed the case, the conceptualization of time-based interference and strain-based interference as independent forms of interference may need to be re-evaluated, and the possibility that time-based interference is an antecedent to strain-based interference considered.

Interpretation of the results of this thesis concerning behaviour-based interference was constrained by the inability to distinguish between behaviour-based work interference with home, and home interference with work. Because behaviour-based interference is so rarely examined in the work-home literature, it is difficult to ascertain whether the failure of the behaviour-based interference measure to divide into its two directional components signifies a fault with the measurement instrument, or whether some underlying flaw in the conceptualization of behaviour-based interference is responsible. As will be discussed in the following section, this represents an important topic for future research.

More broadly speaking, it is open to discussion as to whether questionnaire-based research is the best means by which to investigate work-home interference. There is an argument to be made for work-home interference constituting a state rather than a trait phenomenon and, as such, being better assessed through the use of daily diaries instead of single-use surveys. Work-home interference may fluctuate on a daily basis; for example, a business meeting that runs late may prevent an employed parent from collecting his or her child from daycare on time one afternoon, but the next day he or she may leave the office at the usual hour and experience no interference between work and home demands. Similarly, taking an elderly parent to a medical appointment may disrupt an employee's work that day, but not do so again until the follow-up

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appointment a month later. If work-home interference can indeed be characterized by variability across days, rather than by stability across time, then it may have more immediate consequences than can be identified by examination of cross-sectional or short-term longitudinal data (MacEwen & Barling, 1994). Although there is no disputing the fact that interference between work and home manifests itself on a day-to-day basis, measurements of interference and its antecedents are rarely taken daily in work-home research (Williams & Alliger, 1994). The daily diary approach is, however, consistent with research findings that other role experiences, such as role overload, vary on a daily basis (MacEwen, Barling, & Kelloway, 1992); as such, it may represent a more effective mode of studying work-home interference, its antecedents and its outcomes than the traditional survey-based method used in this thesis.

9.6 Directions for future research

Several relevant directions for future research are worth noting. First, the work-home literature is sorely in need of further investigation of behaviour-based interference. The almost complete lack of empirical or theoretical work on behaviour-based interference renders it a difficult concept to study. Until a more comprehensive underlying theory is developed of what exactly behaviour-based interference comprises, and what its antecedents are, any further inclusion of behaviour-based interference in survey-based research is unlikely to be effective in progressing our knowledge of the construct.

Exploratory, qualitative research among employees performing emotional labour might yield enlightening results regarding the nature and antecedents of behaviour-based work-home interference. Emotional labour is defined as the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions (Morris & Feldman, 1996), and is performed predominantly by workers in the service sector. Employees of service sector jobs that require the display of certain emotions at work (e.g., hotel receptionist, restaurant server, flight attendant) are often subject to more scripted workplace behaviours than are individuals employed in other industries. As a result, there is less potential for employees who perform emotional labour to express their felt emotions and otherwise behave at work

in the same manner as they would do at home. As a population uniquely affected by behaviour-based interference, service sector employees who perform emotional labour may be an ideal group in which to more closely examine the nature of interference between work-related and home-related behaviours.

A second area of interest for future research is derived from the finding in Chapter 6 that individuals reporting high levels of work interference with home appear more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours such as interpersonal helping, loyal boosterism, and civic virtue. If, as was speculated earlier, this is due to a reversal in direction of the proposed arrow of causality between interference and OCB – that in actual fact, participation in organizational citizenship behaviours contributed to increased work interference with home – future research may wish to investigate the role of organizational citizenship behaviour as an antecedent to work interference with home. Work role overload has been established as an important predictor of work interference with home (Major et al., 2002; Fu & Shaffer, 2001). While measures of role overload generally take only task performance-related obligations into account (e.g., Aryee et al., 1999; Wallace, 1999), it may be that employees who feel they have too much to do and too little time in which to do it are including extra-role behaviours in their assessment of the work commitments overburdening them. In future, measures of role overload used in work-home research may wish to incorporate organizational citizenship behaviours alongside more traditional in-role responsibilities.

Thirdly, there is considerable potential to expand on the findings of this thesis regarding the role of dispositional characteristics in work-home interference and its outcomes and associated coping processes. In terms of measurement, future studies may wish to make use of observer ratings of personality rather than rely on self-reports. Previous research has found that personality is a stronger predictor when rated by observers than when it is measured by self-reports (Mount, Barrick, & Strauss, 1994). Obtaining ratings of respondent personality from co-workers and family members may help to explain variance associated with work-home interference; specifically, family reports may explain variance in work interference with home, and co-worker reports may explain additional variance in home interference with work (Bruck & Allen, 2003). Examining dispositional

characteristics from a multi-rater perspective may yield further insight into the relationship between personality and work-home interference.

Previous research examining the relationship between personality and workplace deviance suggests that certain dispositional characteristics, such as Type A and negative affectivity, may contribute to elevated participation in deviant behaviours (Aquino et al., 1999; Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999). There is also some indication that personality characteristics interact with situational variables to predict increased deviance at work (Fox et al., 2001; Henle, 2002; Skarlicki et al., 1999). It is possible that dispositional variables such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, or aggressiveness will affect the degree to which work-home interference predicts workplace deviance; for instance, a highly aggressive individual may be more likely to respond to interference by engaging in deviance than would an individual less predisposed to aggressive acts. Equally, an employee high in self-efficacy may feel more confident of dealing effectively with work-home interference and therefore be less inclined to react with deviant workplace behaviours. Further work addressing the interaction between dispositional characteristics and work-home interference in predicting workplace deviance is advised.

The role of personality in coping with work-home interference is also worth investigating. Previous research in the field of stress and coping has shown that dispositional characteristics are predictive of coping strategy use; for example, individuals high in neuroticism have been found more likely to use emotion-focused coping techniques such as catharsis, role redefinition, or escape-avoidance (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; David & Suls, 1999; McWilliams, Cox, & Enns, 2003), and optimists have been found to adopt more active coping strategies than pessimists (Iwanaga, Yokoyama, & Seiwa, 2004). Expanding on these findings in the field of work-home interference may prove edifying. Do individuals characterized by certain personality traits choose particular strategies for coping with interference? Are some coping strategies more effective for certain individuals than others? For instance, would employees high in negative affectivity garner the full benefits of using cognitive reappraisal to reduce their experience of work-home interference, or might this technique be less effective for them due to their tendency towards emphasizing the negative aspects of any given situation? Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) found that

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efforts to exert self-control were effective in preventing depression for individuals low in neuroticism, but ineffective for those high in neuroticism. The potential for personality to moderate the work-home coping-interference relationship in a similar fashion is an intriguing area for future research.

Finally, a more extensive examination of the process by which coping affects work-home interference is recommended. The present study has conceptualized coping as an action that either prevents or reduces work-home interference directly. Another approach would be to conceptualize coping as an action that either attenuates or intensifies the effect of a stressor on work-home interference (Aryee et al., 1999). Future research on work-home coping might wish to investigate the moderating impact of the strategies established here on the links between situational stressors, such as caregiving responsibilities or organizational time demands, on work-home interference. Given that men and women are differentially affected by certain antecedents to work-home interference (Gignac et al., 1996; Kirchmeyer, 1995), a better understanding of which strategies are effective in reducing the impact of particular stressors would be useful in seeking to alleviate interference for both sexes.

A third perspective on coping with work-home interference conceptualizes coping as an action taken in order to reduce negative consequences of interference; e.g., coping would moderate the relationship between work-home interference and job satisfaction, or strain. While this approach has not met with unqualified success in previous research (e.g., Frone et al., 1995; Parasuraman et al., 1992), the work-home coping literature is so scant that any one approach cannot be completely dismissed based upon existing findings. A test or comparison of all three work-home coping models would be greatly informative. Is coping best described as an antecedent to work-home interference, as a moderator of the link between antecedents and interference, or as a moderator of the link between interference and outcomes? Alternatively, it is possible that work-home interference mediates the relationship between coping and outcomes such as strain, performance, or workplace deviance. Work-home coping is an under-researched topic and would benefit from further investigation.

9.7 Conclusion

As stated in Chapter 1, the aim of this thesis was to contribute to existing knowledge of the causes and effects of work-home interference, in the hope that a better understanding of interference would facilitate its prevention or solutions to the problems that it creates for individuals and organizations. The empirical findings of this research have made a number of original contributions to the body of knowledge on work-home interference, with regard to antecedents, outcomes, and individual coping strategies.

In summary, it has been found that the degree to which certain situational factors affect work-home interference is different for men and for women. It has also been revealed that work demands can affect not only the extent to which an individual's work interferes with home, but also the extent to which home interferes with work; and that an individual's personality influences the degree to which he or she experiences interference between work and home. We have also learned that work-home interference affects more employee behaviours in the workplace than has previously been assumed: task performance, citizenship, and deviance.

Finally, it has been found that the majority of individual coping strategies identified in the work-home coping literature are associated with increased, rather than diminished, levels of work-home interference, and that cognitive reappraisal of the situation may be the only strategy effective in lessening levels of all three types of interference – work-to-home, home-to-work, and behaviour-based. In an echo of the findings derived earlier in the thesis, wherein men's and women's interference was differentially influenced by certain antecedents, we have also discovered that some coping strategies are more effective in reducing work-home interference for women than for men.

These findings have generated several suggestions for preventing work-home interference and its negative consequences on employee behaviour. The provision of organizational work-home options (e.g., eldercare referrals) may help to negate the damaging effects of home-related factors (e.g., dependent care responsibilities) on interference, while granting employees greater autonomy over the timing and location

of their work may help to negate the effects of work-related factors such as long hours and low control on interference. Efforts to modify organizational norms regarding the equation of long hours with commitment and productivity (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999), and the primacy of work over home, would also assist employees (especially men) to more effectively balance their work and home responsibilities, and in so doing, reduce the negative impact of interference on employee behaviours such as performance and deviance. Management training in awareness of work-home issues, and accountability for minimizing subordinates' work-home interference to the best of its ability, is also recommended. Finally, the provision of clear, honest explanations regarding the availability and operation of organizational work-home options may go some way toward lessening the impact of interference on employee participation in workplace deviance.

If these suggestions can be put into action and employee work-home interference reduced, individuals and organizations can only stand to benefit. Employees who experience low levels of interference between work and home experience less psychological strain and burnout, are absent from work less often, and are more satisfied with their marital and family relationships (Anderson et al., 2002; Burke & Greenglass, 2001; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Matthews, Conger, & Wickrama, 1996). Organizations whose environments are perceived as supportive of work-home issues enjoy increased levels of employee commitment, job satisfaction, and retention, and less conflict among employees and between supervisors and employees (Allen, 2001; Kim, 2001; Lyness et al., 1999). Resolution of work-home issues clearly has the potential to enhance quality of life both at work and at home, and to contribute to organizational effectiveness. As such, it is a goal worth pursuing, and one to which the author of the present thesis hopes to have contributed.

Appendix A

Appendix A.1   Survey I

SECTION A

Sex: *Male* ☐   *Female* ☐

Age: _____

Organisation (this information is for data analysis purposes only and will NOT be used to identify you):

_____

Job title or description:

_____

Are you responsible for supervising the work of others?   *Yes* ☐   *No* ☐

Do you have children?   *Yes* ☐   *No* ☐

    If yes, how many? _____

    How old are they? _____

Are you living with a spouse/partner?   *Yes* ☐   *No* ☐

Do you have any relatives who are dependent on you other than your children (e.g., elderly or disabled parents)?   *Yes* ☐   *No* ☐

    If yes, how many? _____

    How old are they? _____

How many hours do you work each week? _____

Which of the following income ranges best describes:

	Your annual salary	Your partner's annual salary
under 10,000	☐	☐
10,000 – 14,999	☐	☐
15,000 – 19,999	☐	☐
20,000 – 24,999	☐	☐
25,000 – 29,999	☐	☐
30,000 – 34,999	☐	☐
35,000 – 39,999	☐	☐
40,000 – 44,999	☐	☐
45,000 – 49,999	☐	☐
50,000 – 54,999	☐	☐
55,000 – 59,999	☐	☐
60,000 – 65,000	☐	☐
over 65,000	☐	☐

Please read the following statements, and then tick the column that best describes how much you agree with each statement.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I'm often tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel that my personal demands are so great that they interfere with my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My superiors and/or peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
By the time I get to the office, I feel emotionally drained.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor has juggled tasks or duties to accommodate my responsibilities at home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor has shared ideas or advice with me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor has held my family responsibilities against me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor has helped me to work out how to solve a problem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor has been understanding or sympathetic towards me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor has switched schedules (hours, overtime hours, holidays) to accommodate my family responsibilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should take on all family-related duties and responsibilities, even though these activities may interfere with their job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should view family as the most important part of their life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should give up or scale back their job responsibilities in order to attend to family.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should not have other activities as important or more important than family.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My family and/or friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family and/or friends.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My job makes it difficult to be the kind of spouse/partner or parent that I'd like to be. (if you are neither a spouse/partner nor a parent, leave blank)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My time off from work does not match my family members' schedules well.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel emotionally drained when I come home from work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor generally listens to my problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor has been critical of my efforts to combine work and a home life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My co-workers and/or superiors expect that people doing a job such as mine should take on additional work-related duties and responsibilities, even though these activities may interfere with their free time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My co-workers and/or superiors expect that people doing a job such as mine should view work as the most important part of their life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My co-workers and/or superiors expect that people doing a job such as mine should finish job-related tasks by staying overtime or bringing work home, even if they are not paid extra to do so.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My co-workers and/or superiors expect that people doing a job such as mine should not have other activities more important than work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

If you have children of school age or younger, please complete this section. If you do not have children, or if you have grown children, please skip this section and go on to Section D.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I worry about how my child(ren) are when I'm working.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My supervisor has shown resentment of my needs as a working parent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find enough time to spend with my child(ren).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am comfortable with the arrangements for my child(ren) while I am working.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Making arrangements for my child(ren) while I work involves a lot of effort.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am worried about my child(ren)'s school performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aspects of my child(ren)'s behaviour are a frequent source of concern to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My spouse/partner does just as much work taking care of our child(ren) as I do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	A lot	Quite a bit	Some	A little bit	Hardly any
How much choice do you have over the amount and quality of daycare available for your child(ren)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much choice do you have over the amount and quality of daycare available for a sick child?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much choice do you have in obtaining adult supervision for your child(ren) before or after school?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much choice do you have in making unanticipated daycare arrangements for children or dependent relatives (e.g., during severe weather or unexpected job delays)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much choice do you have over the amount you pay for dependent care, in terms of sliding fee scales or availability of more than one affordable daycare option?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In general, how much control do you have over your family responsibilities in order to accommodate your job duties?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please tick the column that best describes how much you agree with each statement.

	A lot	Quite a bit	Some	A little bit	Hardly any
How much choice do you have over when you begin and end each workday?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If you work full-time, how much choice do you think you would have in arranging part-time employment?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To what extent can you choose to do some of your work at home instead of your usual place of employment?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much choice do you have over the amount and timing of job-related work you do at home?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much choice do you have over when you take holidays or days off?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much control do you have over when you can take a few hours off work for home or family purposes?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To what extent are you expected to limit the number of times you make or receive personal phone calls while you work?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In general, how much control do you have over your work in order to accommodate your family responsibilities?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION E

If you have care responsibilities for a dependent parent or other grown relative, please complete the questions in this section. Otherwise, please skip this section and go on to Section F.

	A lot	Quite a bit	Some	A little bit	Hardly any
If applicable, how much choice do you have over the amount and quality of daycare available for a dependent parent or other relative?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much choice do you have in making unanticipated daycare arrangements for dependent relatives (e.g., during severe weather or unexpected job delays)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
How much choice do you have over the amount you pay for dependant care, in terms of sliding fee scales or availability of more than one affordable daycare option?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In general, how much control do you have over your dependant responsibilities in order to accommodate your job duties?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate by ticking the appropriate box(es) if you would be interested in using any of the following policies if they were to be offered by your organisation:

☐   Flexible working hours
☐   Teleworking/telecommuting
☐   Voluntary reduced hours
☐   Term-time only working hours
☐   Extended parental leave
☐   Childcare vouchers
☐   Childcare referral service
☐   Career break
☐   Others (fill in the blank):

1._____
2._____
3._____
4._____

If you would not be interested in using any of these policies, please indicate why:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your assistance in completing this survey. Please enclose it in the attached postage-paid envelope and mail it back to me as soon as possible.

SURVEY ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND JOB ATTITUDES

The following items refer to your actions on the job. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I go out of my way to help co-workers with work-related problems.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I volunteer to help new employees settle into the job.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I frequently adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I always go out of my way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I defend my organization when other employees criticize it.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I defend my organization when outsiders criticize it.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I show pride when representing my organization in public.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I actively promote my organization's services to potential users.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I encourage family and friends to utilize my organization's services.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I rarely waste time while I'm at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
At work, I produce as much as I am capable of at all times.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I always come to work on time.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Regardless of the circumstances, I produce the highest quality possible work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I do not meet all the deadlines set by my organization.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I attend voluntary functions at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I attend voluntary meetings at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I keep up with changes in my organization.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I read announcements provided by my organization.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I keep in mind what is best for my organization.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items refer to constraints on your time and energy. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Due to time constraints, I don't have the opportunity to organize or attend voluntary functions at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I have enough time to be able to help out colleagues with work-related problems.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Because of other demands on my time, I don't have the opportunity to always produce the highest quality possible work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I have enough energy to be highly productive at work all the time.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Due to constraints on my energy, I don't have the opportunity to go out of my way to help colleagues with their work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I don't have the energy to organize or attend voluntary functions at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items relate to whether or not your work interferes with your personal life. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My work keeps me from my personal or family activities more than I would like.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family or friends.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
The problem-solving behaviours I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family or social activities/responsibilities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I have to miss family or social activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
The behaviours I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better partner, friend, or parent.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items relate to whether or not your personal life interferes with your work. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The time I spend on personal or family responsibilities often interferes with my work responsibilities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Behaviour that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with personal or family matters at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on personal or family responsibilities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Because I am often stressed from personal or family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
The problem-solving behaviours that work for me at home do not seem to be as useful at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
The time I spend with my family or friends often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Tension and anxiety from my personal or family life often weakens my ability to do my job.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
The behaviours that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

Using the scale below as a guide, please respond to each of the following questions by circling the appropriate number next to each question.

Me			Equally both			My organization
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Whom do you feel is primarily responsible for any interference from your work to your personal life – you, or your organization?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Whom do you feel could best have prevented any interference from your work to your personal life – you, or your organization?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

Whom do you feel is primarily responsible for any interference from your personal life to your work - you, or your organization?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Whom do you feel could best have prevented any interference from your personal life to your work - you, or your organization?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items refer to your organization's attitudes towards employees' personal or family responsibilities. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In general, managers in this organization are quite accommodating of personal or family-related needs.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Higher management in this organization encourages supervisors to be sensitive to employees' personal and family concerns.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Managers in this organization are sympathetic toward employees' child care responsibilities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
In the event of a conflict, managers are understanding when employees have to put their family or personal needs first.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
In this organization, employees are encouraged to strike a balance between work and their personal lives.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Managers in this organization are sympathetic toward employees' elder care responsibilities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
This organization is supportive of employees who want to switch to less demanding jobs for family or personal reasons.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Many employees are resentful when men in this organization take leave to care for newborn or adopted children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Many employees are resentful when women in this organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
In this organization, employees who work part-time are viewed as less serious about their career than those who work full-time.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
To turn down a promotion for personal or family-related reasons will seriously hurt one's career progress in this organization	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
To get ahead at this organization, employees are expected to work more than 50 hours a week, whether at the workplace or at home.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Employees are often expected to take work home at night and/or on weekends.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their personal lives or families.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
To be viewed favourably by top management, employees in this organization must constantly put their jobs ahead of their families or personal lives.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

*The following items refer to stress. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how often you have experienced each of the following sensations **in the past six months** by circling the appropriate number next to each item.*

Never	Almost never	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly	A lot	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often have you felt that things in your life made you upset?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How often have you felt that things in your life made you frustrated?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How often have you felt that things in your life made you tense?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How often have you felt that things in your life placed you under strain?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How often have you felt that things in your life placed you under a lot of stress?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How often have you felt that things in your life made you jumpy and nervous?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How often have you felt that you carried your problems with you wherever you went?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How often have you felt that things in your life put you under a lot of pressure?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How often have you felt that things in your life made you "blue" or depressed?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How often have you felt that things in your life made you tired or "worn out"?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items refer to the arrangements you make at work or at home in order to balance your job with your personal life. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I try not to take on additional responsibilities at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to reduce my involvement in non-essential work activities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to establish limits on the number of hours I spend at work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to limit the amount of work I do on weekends and evenings.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to arrange my work hours to fit around personal activities or my family's schedule.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to reschedule my work in order to attend to personal or family circumstances (e.g., work from home if I need to look after a sick child or wait for a plumber).	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to make arrangements at work to accommodate my family or personal needs.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to restructure my hours at work in order to be at home at certain times.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try not to take on additional responsibilities in my personal or family life.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to restrict the number of social or leisure activities I participate in.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to limit my involvement in non-essential social or family activities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to arrange my personal or family activities to fit around my work schedule.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to ensure that my schedule at home accommodates the demands of my work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to schedule my personal or family activities to accommodate my work requirements.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items relate to your performance at work. Using the scale below as a guide, please respond to each of the following questions by circling the appropriate number next to each question.

Very poor	Poor	Below average	Average	Above average	Good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How would you rate your own work performance?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
How would your manager rate your work performance?	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items relate to the coping strategies you use to balance your responsibilities at work and at home. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I try to examine the standards I have of myself regarding work and my personal life, to decide which standards are important to maintain and which ones can be relaxed a bit.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to get used to the idea that this is the way things are.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to work harder in order to get everything done.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I do relaxing things like going for a walk, practising yoga or taking a long bath.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I talk to someone to find out more information about what can be done to improve my situation.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I admit to myself that I can't deal with it, and reduce the amount of effort I'm putting into achieving work-life balance.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to modify the standards I have of myself in areas I feel are less important than my central goals.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I talk to someone who could help me out with my responsibilities at work or at home.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to put more energy into dealing with activities at work and at home.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I ask for help with my responsibilities at work or in my personal life.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I talk to someone about how I feel.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I just give up trying to reach the goal of work-life balance.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to get emotional support from friends or family.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I look for something good in what is happening.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I give up the attempt to achieve balance between work and my personal life.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to look upon the experience as a learning opportunity.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I accept that this is the way things are and that they aren't going to change anytime soon.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to establish which aspects of my life are the most important ones to attend to right now, and which ones don't matter as much.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I listen to music or do exercise to get rid of tension.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I talk to people who have had similar experiences about what they did to cope.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I learn to live with the way things are.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to put more effort into getting everything done.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I discuss my feelings with someone who provides sympathy and understanding.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to take time to relax and de-stress.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items refer to the general impressions you have of your organization. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My organization really cares about my opinions.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My organization really cares about my well-being.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My organization strongly considers my goals and values.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favour.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items relate to your expectations of yourself. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I have high standards for my performance at work or in life.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I am an orderly person.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Neatness is important to me.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
If you don't expect much out of yourself, you will never succeed.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My best just never seems to be good enough for me.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I think things should be put away in their place.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I have high expectations for myself.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I like to always be organized.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Doing my best never seems to be enough.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I set very high standards for myself.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I am never satisfied with my accomplishments.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I expect the best from myself.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My performance rarely measures up to my standards.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I try to do my best at everything I do.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I am seldom able to meet my own high standards for performance.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I am hardly ever satisfied with my performance.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I hardly ever feel that what I've done is good enough.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I have a strong need to strive for excellence.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items refer to the general procedures used in your organization, e.g., for making job decisions, conducting performance appraisals, determining pay raises, etc. Using the scale below as a guide, please respond to each of the following questions by circling the appropriate number next to each question.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I have been able to express my views and feelings during the procedures used here.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I have had influence over the outcomes (e.g., performance appraisals, pay raises) arrived at by these procedures.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
These procedures have been applied consistently.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
These procedures have been free of bias.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
These procedures have been based on accurate information.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I have been able to appeal the outcomes arrived at by these procedures.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
These procedures have upheld ethical and moral standards.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager has thoroughly explained to me the procedures used in this organization.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager's explanations regarding these procedures have been reasonable.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager been candid with me in communications.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager has communicated work-related information in a timely manner.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager has seemed to tailor communications to individuals' specific needs.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager treats me in a polite manner.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager treats me with dignity.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager treats me with respect.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager refrains from making improper remarks or comments.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My pay reflects the effort I put into my work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My pay is appropriate for the work that I do.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My pay reflects what I contribute to the organization.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My pay is justified, given my performance.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

*The following items refer to your conduct on the job. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how often you have engaged in each of these behaviours **in the last year** by circling the appropriate number next to each item.*

Never	Almost never	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly	A lot	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Behaviour	Scale
Made fun of someone at work	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Said something hurtful to someone at work	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Cursed at someone at work	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Acted rudely toward someone at work	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Taken property from work without permission	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Come in late to work without permission	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Neglected to follow your supervisor's instructions	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Discussed confidential work-related information with an unauthorized person	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Put little effort into your work	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items relate to the attitudes you hold about yourself. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate how much you agree with each statement by circling the appropriate number next to it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Statement	Scale
I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I believe I can succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I certainly feel useless at times.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
At times I think I am no good at all.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

*Please help us to analyse the results of the survey by providing some general information about yourself on the following page. The information you provide will be **completely confidential**.*

One more page to go… please turn over

Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐

Age: _____

Job grade / classification: _____

Job title or description: _____

How long have you worked for Durand College? _____

On average, how many hours do you work each week? _____

Are you living with a spouse or partner? Yes ☐ No ☐

     If yes, is s/he also employed? Yes ☐ No ☐

Do you have children? Yes ☐ No ☐

     If yes, what is the age of your youngest child? _____

     Do you use the College's childcare centre? Yes ☐ No ☐

Do you have caregiving responsibilities for any adults, e.g., elderly parents or disabled children? Yes ☐ No ☐

     If yes, how many? _____

Which of the following income ranges best describes:

	Your annual income	Your partner's annual income
Under £10,000	☐	☐
£10,000 – £19,999	☐	☐
£20,000 – £29,999	☐	☐
£30,000 – £39,999	☐	☐
£40,000 – £49,999	☐	☐
£50,000 – £59,999	☐	☐
£60,000 – £69,999	☐	☐
Over £70,000	☐	☐

Thank you for your assistance in completing this survey. Please enclose it in the attached postage-paid envelope and mail it back to us as soon as possible.

Appendix A.3   Organizational justice items for Sunnydale Borough Council version of Survey II

The following items refer to the procedures used to allocate work-life options (e.g., flexitime, job sharing, reduced hours, working from home) in your organisation. Using the scale below as a guide, please respond to each of the following questions by circling the appropriate number next to each question.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I have been able to express my views and feelings during these procedures.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I have influence over the outcome arrived at by these procedures.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
These procedures are applied consistently to all employees.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
These procedures are free of bias.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
These procedures are based on accurate information.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
I am able to appeal the outcome arrived at by these procedures.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
These procedures uphold ethical and moral standards.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items refer to your organisation's communications regarding the availability of work-life options (e.g., flexitime, job sharing, reduced hours, working from home). Using the scale below as a guide, please respond to each of the following questions by circling the appropriate number next to each question.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My organisation has explained its work-life options thoroughly.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My organisation's explanations of its work-life options are reasonable.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My organisation has been candid in its communications with me regarding the availability of work-life options.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My organisation has communicated details of its work-life options in a timely manner.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My organisation seems to tailor its communications regarding work-life options to individuals' specific needs.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items refer to the availability of work-life options (e.g., flexitime, job sharing, reduced hours, working from home) in your organisation. Using the scale below as a guide, please respond to each of the following questions by circling the appropriate number next to each question.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My access to work-life options reflects my need for such benefits.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My access to work-life options is appropriate for my personal or family situation.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My access to work-life options reflects my desire to use them.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My access to work-life options is justified, given my personal or family circumstances.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

The following items refer to interactions with your manager or immediate supervisor. Using the scale below as a guide, please respond to each of the following questions by circling the appropriate number next to each question.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My manager treats me in a polite manner.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager treats me with dignity.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager treats me with respect.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7
My manager refrains from making improper remarks or comments.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 – 7

Appendix B

Appendix B.1

Cover letter – Rayleigh Council

WORK-LIFE SURVEY

This survey is a PhD project for the London School of Economics (LSE). It is designed to investigate work-life balance, and to identify the contributing factors to feelings of conflict between work and home responsibilities.

Please answer every question as honestly as possible. When you are finished, please mail the completed survey back to me in the enclosed postage-paid envelope. You do not need to affix a stamp.

Your responses will be **completely confidential**. Your name will not appear anywhere on the survey, and by returning the completed survey directly to me, none of your responses will be seen by others in your organisation.

If you have any questions regarding the survey and would like to contact me (Alexandra Beauregard), I can be reached by:

- phone: 07890 645 935
- fax: (020) 7955 7919
- post: c/o Dept. of Industrial Relations
  London School of Economics
  Houghton Street
  London WC2A 2AE
- e-mail: A.Beauregard@lse.ac.uk

Thank you for your assistance.

Appendix B.2

Cover letter – Sunnydale Borough Council

<div style="border:1px solid black; text-align:center;">

Survey on Work-Life Balance and Job Attitudes

</div>

This is an independent survey conducted by researchers at the London School of Economics, which will collect information from a number of different organisations. Sunnydale Borough Council have very kindly agreed to participate as one of those organisations and agreed that we can approach you to participate in this survey. Sunnydale Borough Council have also agreed to distribute this survey on our behalf, and we would like to assure you that we have not been given any of your personal details.

We want to know your views on work-life balance and your opinions of working for Sunnydale Borough Council. The information collected from this survey will contribute to the completion of a doctoral dissertation project.

There are no right or wrong answers. Your first answer is likely to be a good reflection of your feelings so there is no need to dwell on any one question. Please answer every question as honestly as possible. When you are finished, please mail the completed survey back to us in the enclosed postage-paid envelope. You do not need to affix a stamp.

Your responses will be **completely confidential**. The only people to see the completed questionnaire will be the researchers at the London School of Economics. **No one in your organisation** will see any of your responses.

The full findings of the survey will be available to all interested participants. If you have any questions regarding this survey, please contact Alexandra Beauregard at the Industrial Relations Department, London School of Economics, Houghton Street, London WC2A 2AE, or by e-mail at a.beauregard@lse.ac.uk.

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

Appendix B.3

Cover letter – Durand College of Technology

<div style="border:1px solid black; text-align:center;">

**Survey on Work-Life Balance
and Job Attitudes**

</div>

This is an independent survey conducted by researchers at the London School of Economics. We realize this may not be the only questionnaire you have been asked to answer in the last few weeks; however, we would appreciate it if you could spare 15 – 20 minutes of your time to answer it.

The findings of this survey will be used in developing Durand College of Technology's response towards employee work-life balance. *It is important for you to make your views and opinions on this subject heard, so that you can benefit from the resulting policies and practices*. We want to hear from as many people as possible, regardless of their job or family status. This will help Durand College of Technology to be aware of different needs and preferences throughout the organisation, and make possible the development of policies and practices that are useful and effective for you and your colleagues.

There are no right or wrong answers. Your first answer is likely to be a good reflection of your feelings so there is no need to dwell on any one question. Please answer every question as honestly as possible. When you are finished, please mail the completed survey back to us in the enclosed postage-paid envelope. You do not need to affix a stamp.

Your responses will be **completely confidential**. We hope to repeat the survey, using the same questionnaire, in future years. This will allow us to monitor changes in employee opinions. It is for this reason alone that a number has been written on the enclosed questionnaire. The number will enable us to match the questionnaire this year with those you may complete in subsequent years. The only people to see the completed questionnaire will be the researchers at the London School of Economics. **No one in your organization** will see any of your responses.

The full findings of the survey will be available to all interested participants. If you have any questions, please contact Alexandra Beauregard at the Industrial Relations Department, London School of Economics, Houghton Street, London WC2A 2AE, or by e-mail at a.beauregard@lse.ac.uk.

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

Appendix B.4

Reminder letter – Sunnydale Borough Council and Durand College of Technology

<div style="border:1px solid black; text-align:center;">

Survey on Work-Life Balance and Job Attitudes

</div>

Dear Participant,

I am writing to remind you about the work-life balance and job attitudes survey sent out a couple of weeks ago [last month[*]]. If you haven't yet filled out the questionnaire, I would like to take this opportunity to encourage you to do so. It only takes about 15 minutes to complete, and will provide me with the data I need to finish my PhD degree (thus earning you my lifelong gratitude).

Please remember that your responses will be **completely confidential**. No one at Sunnydale Borough Council [Durand College of Technology[*]] will see any of your responses.

If you have any questions, or would like another copy of the questionnaire and postage-paid envelope, please contact me at the address below, or by e-mail at a.beauregard@lse.ac.uk.

If you have already returned your completed questionnaire, thank you very much!

Alexandra Beauregard
Industrial Relations Department
London School of Economics and Political Science
Houghton Street
London WC2A 2AE

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[*] Words in brackets are those used in the reminder letter sent to employees of Durand College of Technology.

Appendix C

Appendix C.1: Complete factor loading matrix for Family role expectations, Parental strain, Control over childcare arrangements, Work role expectations, Control over work hours, and Supervisor support scales

Item	Factor								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
How much choice do you have over the amount and quality of daycare available for a sick child?	**.88**	.00	-.14	.04	-.02	-.02	.00	.11	-.04
How much choice do you have in making unanticipated daycare arrangements for children (e.g., during severe weather or unexpected job delays)?	**.87**	-.03	-.10	.14	.03	-.01	-.06	-.04	.03
How much choice do you have in obtaining adult supervision for your child(ren) before or after school?	**.83**	.04	-.11	.04	-.17	.03	-.06	.00	-.05
How much choice do you have over the amount you pay for dependent care, in terms of sliding fee scales or availability of more than one affordable daycare option?	**.82**	.06	-.08	.14	.14	-.02	-.08	-.02	.13
How much choice do you have over the amount and quality of daycare available for your child(ren)?	**.80**	.13	.01	.11	-.14	.04	.01	.00	-.09
In general, how much control you do have over your family responsibilities in order to accommodate your job duties?	**.60**	.02	-.04	.22	.08	.18	-.08	-.04	.14
My supervisor has helped me to work out how to solve a problem.	.00	**.78**	-.06	.06	-.02	.06	.00	-.07	.16
My supervisor has shared ideas or advice with me.	.02	**.78**	-.05	.12	.05	.14	-.03	-.01	.09
My supervisor has switched schedules (hours, overtime, holidays) to accommodate my family responsibilities.	.15	**.75**	-.03	.12	-.03	-.04	-.06	.06	-.26
My supervisor generally listens to my problems.	.02	**.74**	-.05	.08	-.17	.23	.15	.01	.21
My supervisor has been understanding or sympathetic to me.	.16	**.71**	-.04	.03	-.10	.38	.07	.12	.06
My supervisor has juggled tasks or duties to accommodate my responsibilities at home.	-.08	**.69**	-.06	.22	.03	-.07	-.04	.11	-.32
My co-workers and/or superiors expect that people doing a job such as mine should finish job-related tasks by staying overtime or bringing work home, even if they are not paid extra to do so.	-.11	-.08	**.87**	.00	.07	-.12	.09	.02	.10

Item	Factor								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My co-workers and/or superiors expect that people doing a job such as mine should view work as the most important part of their life.	-.11	-.11	**.81**	-.12	.15	-.18	.14	.02	-.07
My co-workers and/or superiors expect that people doing a job such as mine should take on additional work-related duties and responsibilities, even though these activities may interfere with their free time.	-.10	.00	**.81**	.01	.00	-.06	.02	-.03	.07
My co-workers and/or superiors expect that people doing a job such as mine should not have other activities more important than work.	-.14	-.06	**.76**	-.06	.12	-.30	.10	-.05	-.04
How much choice do you have over when you begin and end each workday?	.20	.14	.02	**.72**	.14	.18	.09	-.13	.10
How much control do you have over when you can take a few hours off work for home or family purposes?	.27	.12	-.23	**.69**	-.15	.16	-.06	.20	-.07
To what extent can you choose to do some of your work at home instead of at your usual place of employment?	.15	.11	.13	**.68**	.01	.02	-.02	-.16	.34
How much choice do you have over the amount and timing of job-related work you do at home?	.05	.15	.03	**.67**	-.22	.07	-.19	.00	.01
In general, how much control do you have over your work in order to accommodate your family responsibilities?	.46	.15	-.20	**.63**	-.09	.11	-.06	.23	-.06
How much choice do you have over when you take holidays or days off?	.01	.08	-.41	**.53**	-.11	.11	.02	.34	-.01
My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should give up or scale back their job responsibilities in order to attend to family.	-.02	-.02	.07	-.03	**.85**	-.20	.08	-.02	-.06
My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should not have other activities as important or more important than family.	-.04	-.14	.17	-.12	**.84**	.00	.12	-.07	-.03
My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should view family as the most important part of their life. *	.01	.07	.19	-.21	**.56**	.20	.34	.44	.06

Appendix C.1, continued

Item	Factor								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My supervisor has shown resentment of my needs as a working parent. (reverse-scored)	.15	.20	-.22	.19	-.16	**.75**	-.06	.03	-.08
My supervisor has held my family responsibilities against me. (reverse-scored)	.00	.22	-.26	.10	.05	**.72**	-.17	.06	.03
My supervisor has been critical of my efforts to combine work and a home life. (reverse-scored)	-.01	.12	-.28	.26	-.09	**.60**	.81	-.11	-.13
Aspects of my child(ren)'s behaviour are a frequent source of concern to me.	-.12	-.02	.07	-.05	.04	-.12	**.79**	-.19	-.08
I am worried about my child(ren)'s school performance.	-.07	.09	.13	-.04	.16	-.12	**.54**	-.01	.06
My family and/or friends expect that people with family responsibilities such as mine should take on all family-related duties and responsibilities, even though these activities may interfere with their job.	-.05	-.06	.22	-.11	.24	.15	**.54**	.52	-.03
To what extent are you expected to limit the number of times you make or receive personal phone calls while you work? [†]	-.03	-.11	.11	-.10	.09	.07	.24	-.75	-.14
If you work full-time, how much choice do you think you would have in arranging part-time employment?	.04	.05	.06	.18	-.06	-.12	-.03	.15	**.81**
Eigenvalue	7.51	3.57	3.23	2.25	1.78	1.31	1.25	1.18	1.02
Percent of variance explained	22.77	10.81	9.79	6.83	5.38	3.98	3.79	3.57	3.09
Total percent variance explained	70.00								

† Item dropped as factor loading less than .40.
* Item dropped as loaded highly on more than one factor.

Appendix C.2: Complete factor loading matrix for Perfectionism, Self-efficacy, and Self-esteem scales

Item	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
I am hardly ever satisfied with my performance.	**.85**	-.03	-.11	.24	.03
I am seldom able to meet my own high standards for performance.	**.85**	.01	-.15	.19	.00
My performance rarely measures up to my standards.	**.83**	.01	-.10	.19	-.08
I hardly ever feel that what I've done is good enough.	**.73**	-.02	-.11	.30	.05
I am never satisfied with my accomplishments.	**.73**	.12	-.04	.18	-.12
My best just never seems to be good enough for me.	**.72**	.23	-.15	.15	-.04
Doing my best never seems to be enough.	**.70**	.11	-.13	.16	-.02
I have high expectations for myself.	.06	**.85**	.13	-.07	.08
I expect the best from myself.	-.01	**.84**	.07	.00	.10
I set very high standards for myself.	.12	**.82**	.02	-.07	.12
I have high standards for my performance at work or in life.	-.03	**.70**	-.01	-.18	.22
I have a strong need to strive for excellence.	.11	**.70**	.14	-.02	.14
I try to do my best at everything I do.	-.06	**.54**	.15	-.09	.31
If you don't expect much out of yourself, you will never succeed.	.12	**.41**	.11	-.03	.02
When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.	-.13	.06	**.81**	-.14	.18
I believe I can succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind.	-.16	.14	**.77**	-.23	.32
I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.	-.17	.22	**.75**	-.12	.35
I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.	-.17	.08	**.68**	-.19	-.02
In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.	-.14	.14	**.68**	-.25	.24
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	.24	.02	-.14	**.67**	-.08
At times I think I am no good at all.	.27	-.11	-.07	**.65**	-.13
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	.29	-.07	-.15	**.65**	-.14
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	.20	-.07	-.12	**.62**	-.11
I certainly feel useless at times.	.20	.01	-.16	**.60**	-.18
I take a positive attitude toward myself. [†]	-.20	.19	.30	-.56	.22
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. [†]	-.21	.23	.32	-.50	.30
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	.05	.19	.04	-.38	**.70**
I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	-.03	.21	.07	-.40	**.66**

Item	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.	-.09	.24	.35	-.07	**.61**
Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.	.03	.14	.26	-.05	**.60**
I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.	-.06	.22	.52	-.12	**.59**
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	-.05	.07	.12	-.12	**.54**
Eigenvalue	9.63	5.36	2.44	2.01	1.48
Percent of variance explained	30.10	16.76	7.62	6.29	4.62
Total percent variance explained	65.39				

† Item dropped as factor loading less than .40.

Appendix C.3: Complete factor loading matrix for Work-home culture scale

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
In the event of a conflict, managers are understanding when employees have to put their family or personal needs first.	**.84**	-.28	-.04
Higher management in this organization encourages supervisors to be sensitive to employees' personal and family concerns.	**.76**	-.32	.02
In general, managers in this organization are quite accommodating of personal or family-related needs.	**.74**	-.25	-.04
Managers in this organization are sympathetic toward employees' childcare responsibilities.	**.74**	-.16	-.16
This organization is supportive of employees who want to switch to less demanding jobs for family or personal reasons.	**.66**	-.34	-.13
Managers in this organization are sympathetic toward employees' elder care responsibilities.	**.64**	-.16	-.21
In this organization, employees are encouraged to strike a balance between work and their personal lives.	**.64**	-.40	-.12
Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their personal lives or families.	-.38	**.85**	.08
To be viewed favourably by top management, employees in this organization must constantly put their jobs ahead of their families or personal lives.	-.35	**.85**	.14
Employees are often expected to take work home at night and/or on weekends.	-.25	**.81**	.09
To get ahead at this organization, employees are expected to work more than 50 hours a week, whether at the workplace or at home.	-.28	**.80**	.17
To turn down a promotion for personal or family-related reasons will seriously hurt one's career progress in this organization. *	-.26	**.40**	.31
Many employees are resentful when women in this organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children.	-.05	.05	**.81**
Many employees are resentful when men in this organization take leave to care for newborn or adopted children.	-.07	.10	**.72**
In this organization, employees who work part-time are viewed as less serious about their career than those who work full-time. *	-.18	.34	**.41**
Eigenvalue	7.11	1.81	1.48
Percent of variance explained	47.41	12.04	9.89
Total variance explained	69.34		

* Item dropped as loaded highly on more than one factor.

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