WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AMONG WOMEN FROM

A COLLECTIVISTIC CULTURE

ANNE NASAMBU WAFULA

A minithesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of Magister Artium in the Department of Industrial Psychology,

University of the Western Cape

Supervisor: Dr. Petrus Nel

May 2010

WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AMONG WOMEN FROM A COLLECTIVISTIC CULTURE

Anne Nasambu Wafula

UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

ABSTRACT

WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AMONG WOMEN FROM A COLLECTIVISTIC CULTURE

A.N Wafula

MA minithesis, Department of Industrial Psychology, University of the Western Cape

Despite the attention on the issue regarding work and family balance among women, there is little research on the experience of Work-Family Conflict among teachers, and within a Collectivistic culture. This study investigated how Work-Family Conflict was related to Role Salience and Job level (investigated in terms of the amount of job demand and job control associated with different job levels) among women from a Collectivistic culture. A sample of 65 teachers was used. Although the results of the study showed no correlations between Work-Family Conflict and both role salience and job level, this was attributed to the high data skewness, thereby reducing the chances of detecting correlations. The high positive data skewness was possibly caused by the floor effect, which was the situation that the sample consisted of only female teachers from a Collectivistic culture. The high negative data skewness was possibly caused by the ceiling effect, which is the situation that the women in this sample have a Collectivistic cultural orientation, and are therefore highly likely to consider their home role as more salient. Moreover, correlations between Work Family Conflict and Job demand have been found to be higher in Individualistic cultures compared to Collectivistic cultures. There also seems to be no differences in job control among teachers occupying different job levels, and hence, no correlations were detected. Further analyses depicted that the teachers within this sample considered their home role as more salient. Moreover, despite their commitment to both their home role and occupational role, the data indicated that the sample experienced low levels of Work Family conflict. This finding confirmed that individuals may experience lower levels of Work-Family Conflict when they participate in roles that they value The mean differences also indicated

that the teachers from the previously disadvantaged population were more committed to their occupational role, compared to the White teachers. This was attributed to the possibility that due to the high unemployment rate among African women, those who were employed placed a high value in their occupation. These findings are discussed.

May, 2010

DECLARATION

I declare that *Work-Family Conflict among Women from a Collectivistic Culture* is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Anne Nasambu Wafula

May 2010

Signed: ....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

God.

To daddy: as a result of your death, I emerged. Thank you.

To Mr. Peter Scarborough: you believed in me.

To Dr. Petrus Nel: it is argued that Ubuntu (the concept of caring) is an African concept, so either you have really acculturated into the African culture, or Ubuntu may be a universal concept.

To Dr. Themba Mjoli: you may not have co-supervised me to the end, but you gave me a strong foundation.

Table of Contents

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1   Introduction

This study was conducted to explore the experiences of women from a Collectivistic culture as they try to juggle their work role and their family role. Coping with family roles and work roles has been found to produce interrole conflict. This interrole conflict has been labelled Work-Family Conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This chapter introduces the reader to the variables that this study considered while exploring the issue of Work-Family Conflict among female teachers in Cape Town. The chapter therefore starts by briefly discussing the issue around women entering the workforce. Further on, the chapter discusses the issues regarding the teaching profession and the experience of Work-Family Conflict among teachers. Work-Family Conflict is then discussed in more detail, and the variables that were found to be relevant to the investigation of Work-Family Conflict within this study, i.e. role salience and job level, are pointed out and briefly discussed. In addition, the issue regarding the culture specificity of the experience of Work-Family Conflict is discussed. This is because Work-Family Conflict has been found to manifest itself differently in Collectivistic cultures and Individualistic cultures (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Spector, *et al.*, 2004). This is why the researcher decided to consider the cultural orientation of the sample in this study. Finally, the problem statement that guided the study is stated and an outline of the thesis is provided.

1.2   Women at Work

The issue regarding women trying to achieve balance between their work role and family role seems to be a global phenomenon. According to role theory, women, regardless of the culture, are likely to experience strain when trying to meet their traditionally assigned role as a home caretaker and their modern role as employee. Role theory argues that groups usually form norms which members are expected to conform to. Members usually conform to these norms due to the rewards attached to conformity and the punishments attached to non-conformity (Carlson, Kacmar & Stepina, 1995). Gender role theory argues that there are certain roles assigned to each gender. These roles form part of the identity for the individuals. Women's social identity is more closely linked to their family roles (Grandey, Cordeiro & Crouter, 2005). As a result, it can be argued that when women feel like their work role is preventing them from fulfilling their home role, they may experience strain.
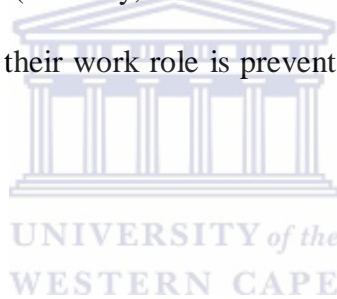
Although Western cultures may claim otherwise, a closer look at these cultures proves that role expectations are still prominent. In an article appropriately titled ''It's All an Illusion'', Simone Schweber, a mother and an assistant professor of education and Jewish studies at the University of Wisconsin in the USA, explains her experience that made her conclude that the concept of a mother achieving work-family balance is just but a mere illusion. She further explains that she rather accepts to be viewed as a bad academic for being a mother, than a bad mother for being an academic (Schweber, 2005).

1.3   Work-Family Conflict Among Teachers

Cinamon and Rich (2005) state that although there has been an appeal for more investigation into the relationship between the work life and family life among teachers, most research on WFC has neglected to study this group. According to Cinamon and Rich (2005), it is widely assumed that teaching is a traditional profession mainly occupied by females**.** Women in managerial positions and non-traditional professions are more likely to consider both their work and family roles as important. On the contrary, female teachers are highly likely to consider only the family role as most important. According to this train of thought, the teaching profession is characterised by shorter work hours as well as no work during school holidays or summer. Consequently, most teachers are able to perform both their work roles and their home roles with minimum interruption. Therefore, it is likely that they experience lower levels of WFC. Cinamon and Rich (2005) also point out that it is also assumed that the roles in the teaching profession have characteristics that are similar to the roles in the family domain, and because of this, female teachers may tend to experience lower levels of WFC.

However, it has been argued that juggling work and family roles as a teacher is also challenging (Claesson & Brice, 1989). Some researchers (Hakanen, Bakker & Schaufeli, 2006; Prieto, Soria, Martinez, & Schaufeli, 2008) have argued that this profession has been internationally recognised as one of the most stressful occupations. According to Bilken (1995) and Thomas and O'Brien (1984), working with schoolchildren was found to be quite draining, that one lacks energy to be both a good mother and a good teacher. This finding may be an example of strain based interrole conflict which is a form of Work-Family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This may also explain the bi-directional nature of Work-Family conflict in that when work

interferes with the fulfilment of roles in the home domain, this may cause stress to the individual, and this stress may consequently affect the fulfilment of the work role (Hill, Yang, Hawkins, & Ferris, 2004). These issues are discussed later on in this chapter.

Moreover, in response to the argument that female teachers are likely to consider their family role as most important, Blase and Pajak (1989) found that teachers usually favour performing their role as a teacher more efficiently than their role as a mother. Bilken's (1995) and Thomas and O'Brien's (1984) studies also depicted that teachers considered their work role to be important to their identity.
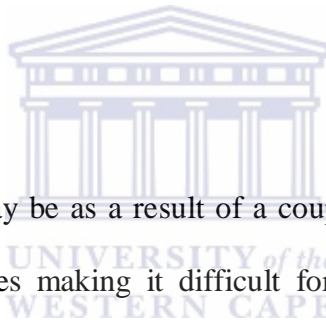
The work load among teachers may be as a result of a couple of factors, including restrictions due to increased formal procedures making it difficult for teachers to plan their own work. Moreover, besides enhancing their pupils' knowledge, teachers are also responsible for the social-emotional development of their pupils, thereby increasing the demands of the teaching profession (Peeters & Rutte, 2005). This depicts that although the teaching profession may be quite demanding, there seems to be a lack of job control due to the high amount of formal procedures characterised by the teaching profession. As argued by the demands-control theory of strain (Karasek, 1979), this situation is highly likely to increase the strain experienced by an individual.

Investigating the issue of Work-Family conflict among individuals from this occupation seems to be of importance. As argued above, teachers are not only responsible for ensuring that the youth are educated, but also that they acquire characteristics necessary to develop into a responsible person in society. Although this profession is regarded as demanding, the lack of job control increases the possibility of experiencing strain. However, most people assume that the characteristic of the teaching profession make it easier for teachers to balance their work role and their family role. Despite these conflicting views, most research on Work-Family conflict has neglected to focus on this occupation. This makes it beneficial to gain more insight into this profession. This information may advice the necessary interventions required to alleviate the strain experienced by individuals within this profession.

1.4   Work-Family Conflict (WFC)

1.4.1 Introduction

The strain experienced when trying to meet both work roles and family roles has been labelled Work-Family Conflict (WFC) (Greenhaus& Beutell, 1985). The definition of WFC adopted by this study is as follows: WFC occurs when a person's performance of roles in the family domain is hindered by the performance of his/her role in the work domain (Akintayo, 2006; Britt & Dawson, 2005; Haar, 2004; Hill *et al*., 2004; Noor, 2004; Tatman, Hovestadt, Yelsma, Fenell, & Canfield, 2006; Wallis & Price, 2003).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) state that WFC is a form of interrole conflict. Interrole conflict occurs when the pressures from roles in one domain have a negative effect on the fulfilment of roles in the other domain. WFC is a form of interrole conflict whereby pressures from roles in the work domain hinders the effective performance of roles in the family domain. This interrole conflict takes three forms, namely time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behaviour-based conflict. Time-based conflict is present when one invests time in a role from one domain (in this case, the work domain), such that the individual is left with little or no time to spend performing roles in the other domain (in this case, the family domain). Strain-based conflict occurs when the strain suffered in one domain (in this case, the work domain) negatively affects the fulfilment of roles in the other domain (in this case, the family domain). Behaviour-based conflict occurs when certain behaviour may be suitable in one domain and not the other (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).
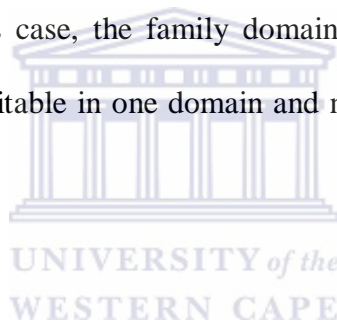
Time-based conflict and strain-based conflict are similar to the concept of role overload as classified by Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (1964). According to them, role overload occurs when the demands from different roles are too much such that it is impossible for an individual to meet these demands due to a lack of enough time and energy. As a result, the roles are either inadequately fulfilled or not fulfilled at all.

The study of WFC has been based on what has been termed as the scarcity approach. This approach argues that human beings have limited energy in that when they use this energy in the enactment of a role from one domain, they will be left with less energy for the enactment of a

role in a different domain. As a result, the role in the latter domain may not be sufficiently fulfilled. Additionally, within this approach, time is also viewed as something that is scarce. When one spends time fulfilling a role from one domain, a limited amount of time is left for the fulfilment of a role in the other domain. As a result, the role in the latter domain may not be sufficiently fulfilled (Marks, 1977).

1.4.2 Theories of Work-Family Conflict

Researchers have developed theories that attempt to explain the interaction between family roles and work roles. An example of the theories includes the segmentation theory which states that work and family are distinct domains at different places. Both of these domains demand an individual's time, energy, attitudes, feelings and behaviour. When these are applied in one domain, the other domain might be neglected. The second theory, the compensation theory, suggests that individuals will seek in one domain that which they do not get from the other domain. For example, when an individual feels that their values are not fully expressed within one domain, they might seek to invest their energy in the domain within which their values are expressed (Kabanoff, 1980). It can be argued that the compensation theory is similar to the issue regarding role salience. It is argued that although individuals have different roles in their lives, some roles are more salient to the individual than others. Roles that are closely linked to the individual's identity and provide a reward that is valued by the individual tend to be salient to the individual. As a result, the individual prefers performing these roles (Amatea, Cross, Clark & Bobby, 1986, Noor, 2004; Thoits, 1995).

In an article examining theory and research concerning the relationship between work and leisure, Kabanoff (1980) reviewed, among others, the Segmentation and Compensation theories. He found that most of the research investigating both the compensation theory and the segmentation theory had a number of methodological and conceptual problems that affected the validity of the research. He summarised his review by stating that more research is still needed on these theories of WFC.

The third theory that explains the interaction between family roles and work roles is the spillover theory. According to this theory, attitudes and behaviour from one domain will be carried over to the other domain (Kabanoff, 1980). Kossek and Ozeki, (1998) point out that the spillover theory could be termed as the most predominantly used theory in the literature on WFC. Balmforth and Gardner (2006) discuss that work-family spillover occurs when attitudes, emotions, skills and behaviour from these different domains flow into each other. This spillover can be either positive, when the effects of the spillover are beneficial, or negative, when the effects of the spillover are harmful. However, Van Hooff, Geurts, Kompier, and Taris (2006) point out that research has demonstrated that work-family spillover has mostly harmful effects than beneficial ones.

Leiter and Durup (1996) argue that the two domains, work and family, are very closely dependent on each other that strain experienced in one domain is likely to affect the other domain. Research depict that work experiences are more likely to impact on the family domain.

This has been attributed to the lack of structure in the family domain rendering it more susceptible to interference (Leiter and Durup, 1996).

1.4.3 Work-Family Conflict vs. Family Work Conflict

Scholars differentiate WFC from Family-Work Conflict (FWC). According to them, WFC is present when work-related issues, for example irregular working hours, job stress, and work overload interfere with family role performance. On the other hand, FWC occurs when family responsibilities, for example, young children and elderly relatives, interfere with effective performance at work (Patel, Govender, Paruk and Ramgoon, 2006). Patel *et al*. (2006) argue that the study of WFC (i.e. investigating how performing work roles affect the performance of family roles) may be beneficial to social inquiry, while the study of FWC (i.e. investigating how performing family roles affect the performance of work roles) may be beneficial to organisational stakeholders.

However, it has been argued that WFC is bidirectional in nature proposing that WFC and FWC positively influence each other (Hill *et al*., 2004). The distress that one may experience when one is unable to fulfil their family roles may consequently affect the fulfilment of his/her work roles. For example, as identified earlier in this chapter, a study conducted by Bilken (1995) and Thomas and O'Brien (1984) found that working with schoolchildren was quite draining, that one lacked the energy to be both a good mother and a good teacher.

Grandey *et al*., (2005) discuss that although WFC may be bidirectional in nature, research has focused more on how work interferes with the family, compared to how family interferes with work. They argue that work interferes with family more frequently than family interfering with work. They attribute this to the lack of structure and formality in family roles, making family roles more susceptible to interference. Moreover, it has been recognized that studies that focus on the bidirectional nature of WFC are not as effective as those that focus on the direction of the conflict (Patel *et al.,* 2006). Based on this view, this study focuses on how the performance of the work role interferes with the performance of the family role.

1.5   Variables Affecting the Experience of Work-Family Conflict

1.5.1 Introduction

Amatea *et al*., (1986) and Hartung (2002) point out that research has identified that the conflict that occurs among many individuals is as a result of the nature of their work and their family role expectations. According to Amatea *et al*., (1986), individuals hold beliefs and attitudes regarding the performance standards of a particular role, the degree of relevance of the role, and how personal resources (e.g. time and energy) should be distributed among the roles. Moreover, as argued by the compensation theory, when one feels that his/her values are not fully expressed within roles from one domain, one might seek to invest energy and time in the roles from the domain within which the values are expressed (Patel *et al.,* 2006). They thus argue that WFC research should consider role expectations in order to effectively explain WFC. Moreover, Carlson and Kucmar (2000) point out that the value that one attaches to a role is an important factor that should be considered together with environmental factors in order to make WFC research more accurate.

Based on this argument, the current study also investigates the influence of role salience on the experience of WFC. Role salience is defined and discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

In addition, as discussed above, it has been argued that organisational variables determine the experience of WFC (Patel *et al.*, 2006). With regard to the teaching profession, it has been argued to be among the most demanding professions. Teachers are responsible not only for ensuring that individuals acquire knowledge, but also that they develop into responsible people. Despite the demanding characteristics of the teaching profession, there seems to be a lack of job control among teachers due to the high restrictions following increased formal procedures making it difficult for teachers to plan their own work (Cinamon & Rich, 2005). As argued by the demands-control theory of strain (Karasek, 1979), the high demand and low control is likely to increase the experience of WFC.

By investigating the relationship between job level and WFC, the current study also investigates how the interaction between job demand and job control influence the experience of WFC. This is explained in subsequent paragraphs.

1.5.2 Role Salience

Role salience has been defined as 'the importance an individual places on a life role' (Perrone & Civileto, 2004; p.105). For example, individuals may view either their work role or their family role as more important. According to Niles and Goodnough (1996), different roles provide

different things to the individual. "An important value not sought in work might reveal its importance in being sought in homemaking, community service, etc" (Niles & Goodnough, 1996; p. 67). When that 'thing' that a role provides to an individual is viewed as valuable to the respective individual, the role is highly likely to be deemed as salient by the individual. Therefore, the individual may favour performing the role. This view is similar to the compensation theory which argues that individuals may seek to invest their resources in roles within which they can express their values.

Roles form part of one's identity. People usually have different roles and hence different identities (Thoits, 1995). These identities, however, have different levels of salience to oneself (Noor, 2004). Amatea *et al.,* (1986) argue that individuals are more likely to participate in, and be committed to a role that gives them the most reward and that which is more in line with their identity. Conflict occurs when more than one role is valued (e.g. both work and family roles). This conflict occurs as a result of the pressure one experiences to invest resources in both roles. Consequently, as argued by the scarcity approach (Marks, 1977), either one role or both roles may be inadequately fulfilled due to a limited amount of energy and time that an individual affords. Major, Klein and Ehrhart (2002) also argue that individuals with high work role salience tend to be more psychologically committed to their job and even spend more energy and hours in their job, leaving them with less of these resources to invest in the family role. In this study, it is expected that the women who consider their occupational role as salient will experience higher levels of WFC compared to women who consider only their family role as salient.

Role salience can be measured on two dimensions, behavioural and affective. The behavioural dimension is concerned with participation, and refers to the amount of time an individual spends in a particular role. The second dimension, affective, is concerned with commitment and value expectations. Commitment defines how important a particular role is to the individual's self-concept while value expectations indicate the degree to which one can express his/her personal values in a particular role (Amatea *et al.,* 1986). However, it is argued that personal expectations are a better predictor of strain as opposed to the time an individual spends in a role (Marks, 1977; Perrone & Civiletto, 2004). Marks (1977) argues that an individual may be spending time in a role, but may not necessarily be committed to that role, or obtain any value from enacting that particular role. Following this argument, the amount of time an individual spends in a role may not necessarily dictate the level of salience of that role to the individual. This study considers personal expectations from a role as a determinant of role salience.
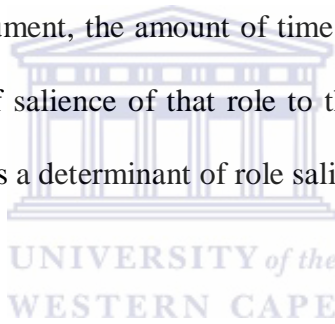
1.5.3 Job Level

After reviewing a number of studies on WFC (e.g. Aryee, Luk, Leung & Lo, 1999; Balmforth & Gardner, 2006; Bird, Bird & Scruggs, 1984; Frone & Rice, 1987; Luk & Schaffer, 2005; Van Hoof *et al*., 2006), it seems that most literature has not investigated the direct relationship between job level and WFC, which might be an important relationship to be investigated. However, there are a great number of studies conducted on the relationship between job demand and job control, and WFC (e.g. Anderson, Coffey, Liu & Zhao, 2008; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, Burke & Greenglass, 1999, Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). Therefore, it was decided to investigate the relationship between job level and WFC in terms of the level of job demand and job control associated with different job levels.

Groenlund (2007a) and Schieman, Whitestone and Gundy (2006) argue that different job levels are associated with different degrees of job demand and job control. They argue that individuals occupying higher job levels tend to have more job demand and more job control. In the current study, it is assumed that teachers occupying a higher job level in the school (for example, the school principal), will have more job demand and more job control compared to teachers occupying lower positions (for example, class teacher).

The current study uses the views of the demands-control theory of strain to investigate the relationship between job level and WFC. This theory argues that two sets of job characteristics interact and determine the level of strain experienced by employees. These two job characteristics are job demand and job control. According to this theory, job demand may increase the strain experience by employees only when job control is low, but not when job control is high. When job control is high, high job demand does not necessarily increase the strain experienced by employees (Karasek, 1979).

However, researchers are unclear as to which variable affects the experience of strain. There seems to be a lack of clarity as to whether it is the high job demand that leads to an increase in strain, or it is the low job control that leads to an increase in the strain (Doef & Maes, 1999). Moreover, while some research has demonstrated that low job control may increase the strain experienced by employees (e.g. Groenlund, 2007b: Jansen, Kant, Kristensen, Nijhuis, 2003), other researchers have argued that high job control is associated with higher responsibility and obligation thereby increasing the experience of strain (Groenlund, 2007a, & Schieman *et al.*,

2006). Based on these uncertainties, this study seeks to investigate the relationship between WFC, job demand and job control by looking at how individuals occupying different job levels differ in their experience of WFC. In this study, it is expected that those occupying higher job levels will differ from those occupying lower job levels in terms of the experience of WFC.

1.6   Work-Family Conflict and Culture

Research on WFC has mainly focused on Western countries and most studies that have been done in non-Western cultures have been based on perspectives from studies done in the Western culture (Hill *et al*., 2004; Luk & Shaffer, 2005). It is argued that the experience of WFC is culture specific and not global. The insight gained from research on WFC in Western cultures may not be applicable in the non-Western cultures. For this reason, there is a need for more research to be conducted in non-Western cultures (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Spector *et al*., 2004).
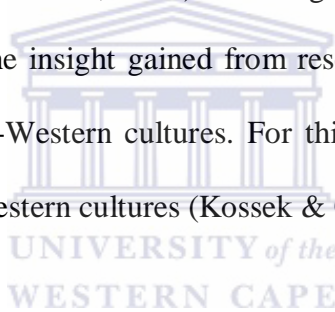
Literature has distinguished between two types of cultures, namely Collectivistic and Individualist. Jetten, Postmes and Mcauliffe (2002) and Trandis and Gelfand (1998) identify certain attributes that distinguish Individualistic and Collectivistic cultures, e.g. goals. In Collectivistic cultures, in-group goals seem to take precedence over personal goals while in Individualistic cultures, personal goals take precedence. Another attribute is the significance of attitudes and norms. In Collectivistic cultures, group norms are more important than personal attitudes while in Individualistic cultures, personal attitudes take precedence. Moreover, one defines him/herself in terms of a group in Collectivistic cultures while in Individualistic cultures, one is viewed as an individual.

In a Collectivistic culture, the group is highly identified by its norms. As group members interact, a common way of thinking, feeling or behaving that is accepted by all arises and is perceived as the proper way and thus a norm is created. Members who want to gain a positive identity are forced to adhere to the group norms. (Jetten *et al.*, 2002; Luk & Shaffer, 2005).

In Collectivistic cultures more than in Individualistic ones, the norm is that women take up the role of home caretaker while the men take up the role of provider (Patel *et al*., 2006). Women are expected to stay at home and manage all the home related tasks, while the men are expected to work and provide for the family in monetary terms.
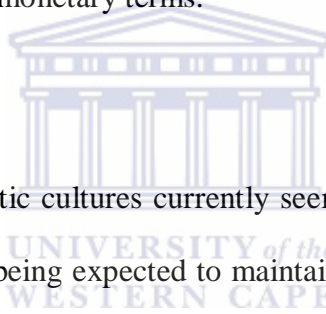
However, women from Collectivistic cultures currently seem to be taking up a new role, as an employee, while at the same time being expected to maintain their traditionally assigned role of home caretaker. Luk and Shaffer (2005) state that research in Hong Kong (in which the culture is considered to be Collectivistic) shows that although there has been an increase in the number of married women in the work force, expected traditional roles have not shifted. Women are still expected to be the primary caregivers and to take care of the household. In order to gain a positive identity, these women may be forced to adhere to this role.

Another difference between Individualistic and Collectivistic cultures is the attitude towards work and family. Collectivistic cultures worry less about work activities interfering with family activities. They see work as contributing to the family, as opposed to competing with it. Work is

viewed as serving the needs of the family and individuals who devote most of their time and effort in work are supported by the family. Such individuals are viewed as making a sacrifice to the family (Spector, *et al*., 2007). On the other hand, in Individualistic cultures, work is seen as efforts towards personal achievement and development. Within these cultures, individuals who devote most of their time and effort in work are viewed as selfish and unconcerned about their families (Spector *et al*., 2007).

The group of countries that are viewed as individualistic are the Anglo and European countries (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier, 2002) while those viewed as collectivistic include the Asian and African countries (Triandis, 1989).

Based on these cultural differences, researchers (e.g. Spector *et al.,* 2007) have noted the importance of considering cultural orientation while investigating WFC. This study investigates the experience of WFC by female teachers within a collectivistic culture.

1.7   Problem Statement

A problem statement is of utmost importance to a scientific study as it informs the reason for conducting a scientific investigation. Following the discussion above, the following problem statement is formulated: "How does Work-Family Conflict manifest itself among female teachers from a Collectivistic culture?"

To provide a more valuable answer to this problem statement, this study will seek to answer two questions. These two questions came about from the discussion above, which provided the variables that would be beneficial while investigating the issue of WFC among female teachers. These two questions are as follows:

1. What is the relationship between WFC and role salience among female teachers from a Collectivistic culture?

2. What is the relationship between WFC and job level among female teachers from a Collectivistic culture?

1.10 Summary

In summary, this study seeks to explore how WFC manifests itself among female teachers from a Collectivistic culture in comparison with the Individualistic culture. This is in response to requests for more studies on WFC to be conducted on teachers and within Collectivistic cultures. In this study, WFC is investigated in terms of its relationship to role salience and job level. WFC is defined in terms of the amount of strain experienced by women as they try to meet their family role and their work role. Role salience is defined as the role that an individual considers as most important to them, and is investigated in terms of the level of commitment to a role and the value reward obtained from a role. Job level is determined by one's position in the school, for example, head of department or school principle, and is investigated in terms of the amount of job demand and job control that comes along with a specific job level.

In the subsequent chapters, chapter two will provide a more in depth literature review regarding the variables of this study and how they are related to the experience of WFC. Further on, chapter three will define the research methodology, informing the reader about the purpose of this study, the hypotheses and the research methodology used to obtain the objectives of this study. The results of the study are also discussed in chapter three. Finally, chapter four will provide the conclusions for the study giving possible explanations for the results obtained. Limitations of this study as well as recommendations for future studies are also provided in chapter four.

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to review some of the literature that deals with the issues of WFC in relation to role salience and job level. Firstly, the definitions of the variables investigated in this study are provided. The literature on the relationship between WFC and role salience, and WFC and job level are then presented. Lastly, a summary of the chapter is provided.

2.2   Definitions of Variables

WFC is present when the performance of roles in the work domain hinders the performance of roles in the family domain, or vice versa (Akintayo, 2006; Britt & Dawson, 2005; Haar, 2004; Hill *et al*., 2004; Noor, 2004; Tatman *et al*., 2006; Wallis & Price, 2003). Grandey *et al*., (2005) argued that the family domain is less structured compared to the work domain, a factor that makes the family domain more susceptible to interference. Hammer, Saksvik, Nytrø and Torvatn (2004) argue that organisation norms (e.g. longer working hours) that emphasise job performance, attendance and organisation commitment may force employees to consider their work roles a priority to their non-work roles. Therefore, employees may end up spending most of their time and energy on fulfilling work roles. Consequently, employees may experience strain from the feeling of being unable to fulfill their family roles. The current study will focus on how the work role interferes with the family role.

Role salience is described as the importance of a life role to an individual. This construct can be measured either using the behavioural dimension, which is concerned with the amount of time an individual spends in a particular role, or the affective dimension, which is concerned with personal expectations, i.e. commitment and value expectations (Perrone & Civileto, 2004). The scale used in this study measures the affective dimension of role salience, hence, role salience is viewed in terms of personal expectations from a role, i.e. role commitment and value expectations. This follows the argument that personal expectations are a better definition of role salience as opposed to the time an individual spends in a role (Perrone and Civiletto, 2004).

In this thesis, job level refers to one's position in the school, such as class teacher or school principle. Job level is discussed in relation to job demand and the amount of control that one has in their job. Control is viewed as the ability to control the pace at work, having a say in how work is done as well as a say in policy decisions (Groenlund, 2007a). Job demand is viewed in terms of excessive workload and time pressure at work (Yildirim & Aycan, 2008).

2.3   *Literature on Work-Family Conflict and Role Salience*

2.3.1   Brief Introduction to Role Salience and Work-Family Conflict.

Amatea *et al*., (1986) and Hartung (2002) state that it has been acknowledged that the stress that many employees experience is not only due to the nature of their work, but also the importance they attach to a particular role. They thus urge researchers to consider role salience in the study of WFC.

According to Amatea *et al.,* (1986), individuals are more likely to participate and be committed to a role that gives them the most reward. Conflict occurs when more than one role is valued (e.g. both work and family roles). This conflict occurs as a result of the pressure one experiences to invest resources in both roles. Cinamon and Rich (2005) also argue that individuals with high work salience may experience higher levels of WFC. These individuals may invest more time and energy in their work, leaving them with less time and energy to invest in their home roles.

Other researchers have argued that being committed to multiple roles not only has negative results, but may bring some form of reward to an individual. The reasoning behind this argument is that different life roles may produce positive outcomes such as increased life satisfaction as well as increased self esteem (Holahan & Gilbert, 1979).
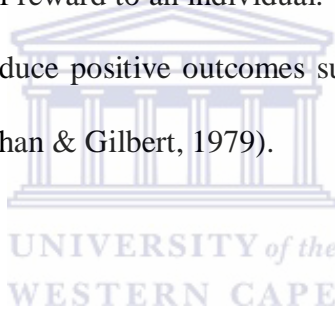
2.3.2 Description of Literature on the Effect of Role Salience on Work-Family Conflict

While going through the literature on the effects of role salience on WFC, it is noted that role salience has been found to have a direct effect, an indirect effect and a moderating effect on the experience of WFC. Some studies have also shown that high work salience as well as both high work and family salience increase the experience of WFC. The following paragraphs describe the different studies that have been conducted to investigate the different relationships between role salience and WFC.

2.3.2.1 Studies Showing a Direct Positive Relationship Between Work Salience and Work-Family Conflict

Nuosce (2007) sought to investigate the experiences of WIF (Work Interfering with Family) and FIW (Family Interfering with Work) among women with high work salience, both high work and family salience and high family salience. Her sample consisted of single and married women with or without children living at home and holding middle or upper management positions within their organisations. In order to measure role salience, she used the Salience Inventory developed by Super and Nevill (1986). This scale measures role salience in terms of value expectations, commitment to and participation in five major life roles namely student, worker, homemaker, leisurite and citizen. To measure WFC, she used the Work-Family conflict Scale developed by Kelloway, Gottlieb and Barham, (1999). This is a 22-item scale measuring the direction and nature of WFC.
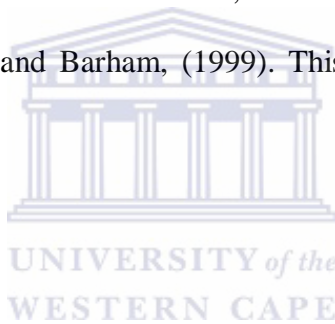
Her results indicated that the women managers with high work salience and both high work and family salience reported higher levels of WIF compared to women managers with high family role salience. She attributed this to the view that the family domain may be more permeable to interference for women with high work role salience and both high work and family role salience. Additionally, she found no significant differences among the women with regards to FIW. According to Grandey *et al*. (2005), this may be due to the fact that compared to the family domain, the work domain has more structure and formality, making it less susceptible to interference.
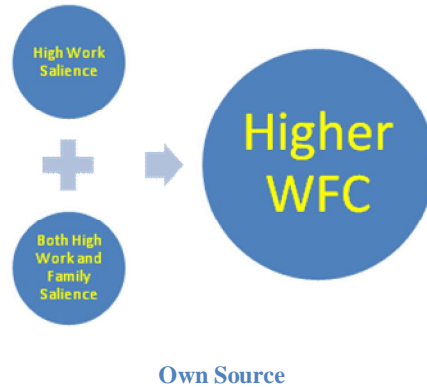
Figure 2.1:   High Work salience, and both High Work and Family Salience Alleviate the experience of WFC

Hammer, Allen and Grigsby (1997) investigated the effects of career salience and family salience on WFC in a sample of 399 couples. WFC was measured with a 16-item Likert-type scale by Goff, Mount, and Jamison (1990) measuring spillover from work to family as well as from family to work. Work salience was measured with 4 items measuring work involvement, while family salience was measured using the same scale used for work salience, but replacing the word 'work' with 'family'. Their results showed that high work salience was related to higher levels of WFC. They also found that high family salience was related to higher levels of WFC for females only. They attributed this to the assumption that although the men seemed to take up the family tasks and accomplish them, the women were responsible for the overall management role of the home domain, as opposed to merely getting tasks done, which they may have found difficult to accomplish.
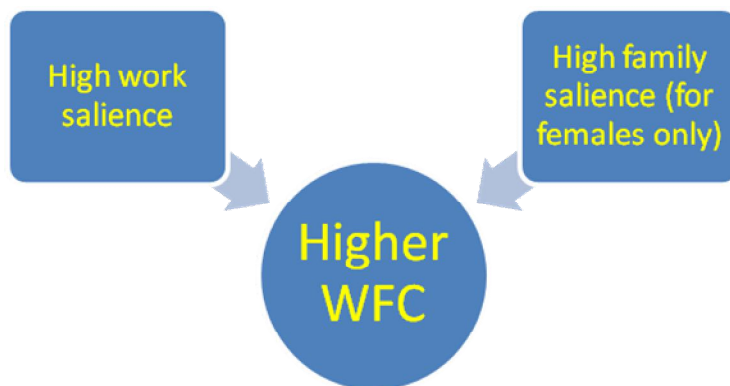
Own Source

Figure 2.2:   High Family Salience for Females Only Alleviates the Experience of WFC

Other studies that have found that individuals with high work salience and both high work and family salience experience higher levels of WFC include Bakker, Demerouti and Burke (2009); Cinamon and Rich (2002); Evans and Bartolomé (1984); Frone, Russell and Cooper (1992) and Luk and Schaffer (2005).
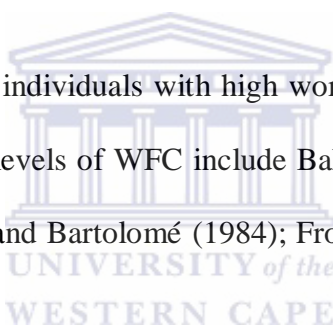
2.3.2.2   Studies Showing a Moderating Influence of Role Salience on Work-Family Conflict

Although it has been argued that role salience also has a moderating influence on WFC (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), very few researchers have investigated this relationship (Day & Chamberlin, 2006). Among these few researchers are Fox and Dwyer (1999), who used a sample of 113 nurses to investigate the moderating influence of both work salience and family salience. They hypothesised that role salience would moderate the relationship between job stressors and WFC. They viewed role salience in terms of the time and energy spent in a particular role. Work time and involvement was measured using the Job Involvement Scale developed by Lodahl and

Kejner (1965) while family time and involvement was measured by summing up the total hours that the participants spent performing household chores, child care chores, shopping/errands and yard/home maintenance. Conflict was measured by asking participants to report the frequency and amount of distress felt on a single question, asking whether the participant missed family/work activities or obligations because of work/family related responsibilities.

The results demonstrated that role salience acted as a moderator between work stressors and WFC. Nurses with higher family salience experienced more WFC when job stress was high; while those with lower family salience experienced lower WFC when job stress was high. The nurses who had higher work salience experience higher WFC when job stress was high, while those with low work salience experienced lower WFC when job stress was high.
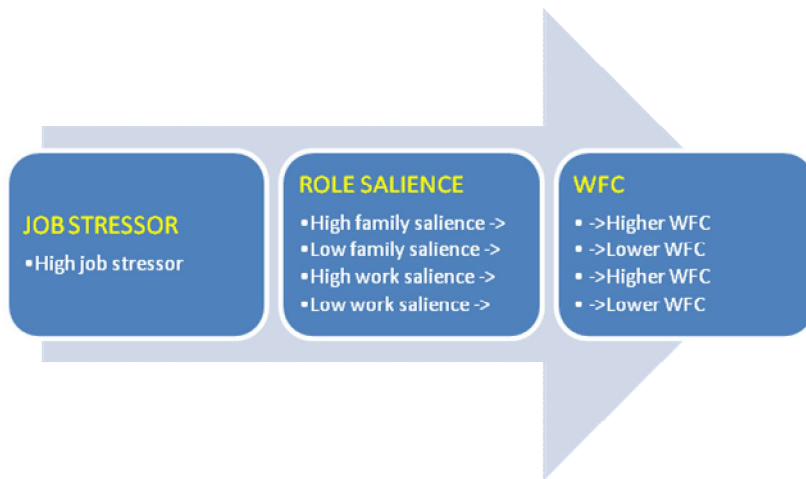
Own Source

Figure 2.3:   Moderating Effect of Role Salience Between Job Stressor and WFC

Day and Chamberlin's (2006) research also found a moderating effect of role salience on the relationship between working hours and WFC. They found that among the individuals with high job commitment, irregular working hours did not result to increased conflict, while irregular working hours did result in conflict for those with low job commitment. They argued that individuals with high job commitment were not affected by irregular shifts as they viewed this as a necessary part of their work. On the other hand, individuals with low job commitment viewed irregular working schedules as an inconvenience and a time consuming factor that drove them away from their other roles.

Own Source
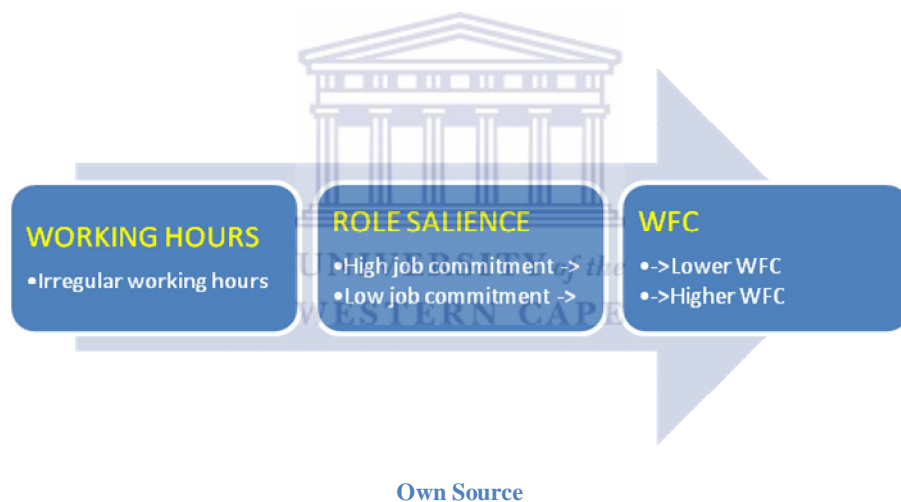
Figure 2.4: **Moderating Effect of Role Salience Between Working Hours and WFC**

From the studies described above, it is clear that different work characteristics may produce different effects on the experience of WFC depending on role salience. For example, in the study by Fox and Dwyer (1999), a stressful event at work was associated with high WFC among individuals with high work salience. On the contrary, in the study by Day and Chamberlin (2006), irregular working hours was associated with low WFC among individuals with high

work commitment. It can be argued that a stressful event at work may interfere with the effective fulfillment of the work role, and therefore, an individual with high work salience may experience strain which may spill over into the family domain, thereby interrupting with the effective fulfillment of a family role. On the other hand, irregular working hours may not necessarily interfere with the effective fulfillment of a work role, and may therefore not cause strain.

2.3.2.3 Studies Showing an Indirect relationship Between Role Salience and Work-Family Conflict

Other research has found that role salience does not have a direct relationship to WFC. Biggs and Brough (2005) conducted a study with the purpose of investigating the influence of gender on role salience and WFC. Their sample consisted of 130 students from an Australian university. They decided to use university students as a response to literature that asks researchers to shy away from only focusing on work and family responsibilities in the study of WFC and include non-work roles such as community and tertiary studies.

Among others, they hypothesised that family salience would predict family-work conflict, while work salience would predict work-family conflict. They measured student demands using the 17-item Student Stress Scale (Frame & Brough, 2002) which measures common student demands such as pressure from examinations as well as coping with work load. To measure family demands, they adopted questions from the three-item Parental Demand Scale (Aryee *et al*., 1999) whereby a question such as 'How often do you feel you have too much work to do as a parent' was changed to 'How often do you feel you have too much family related work to do'. Conflict was measured using the 10-item measure of bi-directional work-family conflict (Netemeyer,

Boles & McMurrian, 1996). The items were also adapted to measure family-university conflict as well as university-family conflict. Role salience was measure using the Life Role Salience Scale by Amatea *et al*., (1986). The items of this scale were also adopted to suit this study.

Their results showed no direct relationship between role salience and WFC. However, they found that gender influenced the relationship between family role salience and both directions of conflict, WIF and FIW. The female participants with high family role salience experienced more conflict (both WIF and FIW) compared to the male participants. They attributed their finding to the argument that females derive their identity from the family role, and as a result, they experience higher role conflict compared to the males.
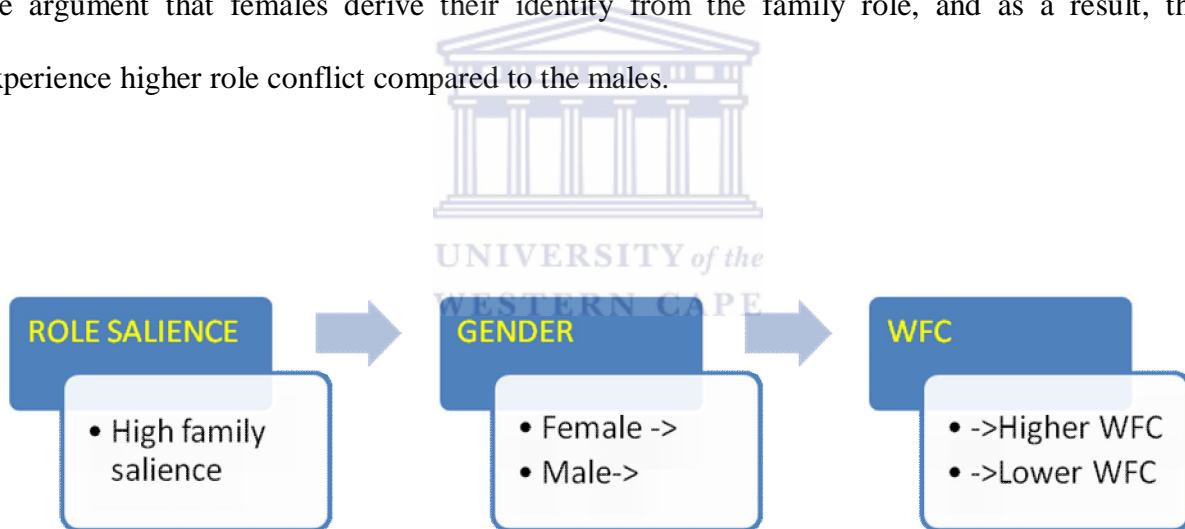
Own Source

Figure 2.5:   Gender as an Influence on the Relationship Between Role Salience and WFC

Another study that found an indirect relationship between role salience and WFC is one conducted by Major, Klein and Ehrhart (2002). They investigated the indirect relationship of career salience to work family conflict. Their sample consisted of 513 employees from a

company. They hypothesised that career salience was positively related to work hours and that work time would be positively related to time-based WIF. They used Lobel and St. Clair's (1992) five-item scale to measure career salience. This scale contained items such as 'The major satisfactions in my life comes from my job' (Major *et al*., 2002: p. 429). WIF was measured with a six-item scale adopted from Netemeyer *et al*. (1996). Their results demonstrated that career salience had an influence on hours at work, which had an effect on WIF. Individuals with high career salience spent more hours at work, resulting in higher WIF. They argued that it was not career salience itself that led to an experience of WIF, but the career commitment which led individuals to spend longer hours at work.
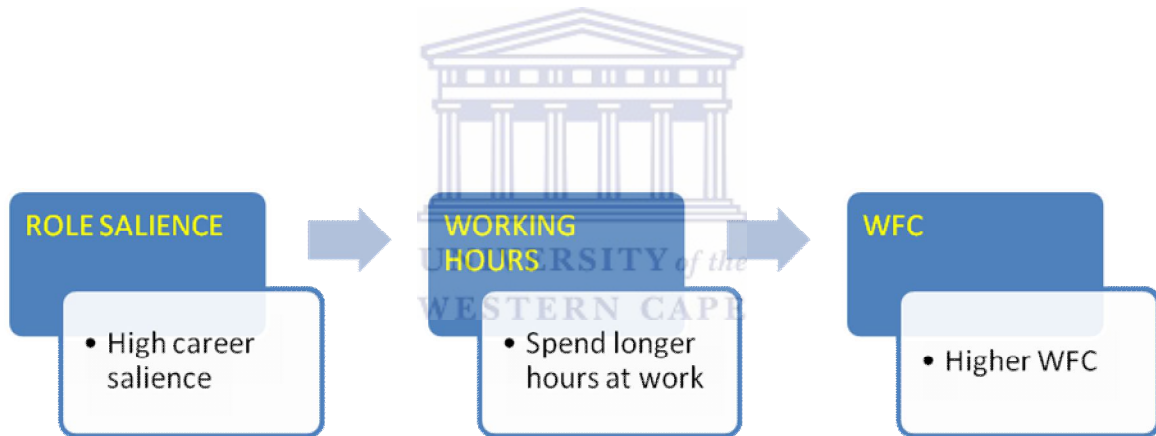
Own Source
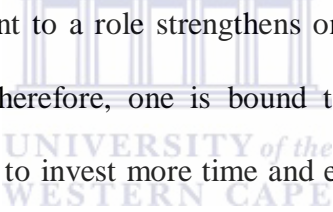
Figure 2.6:   Career Salience Dictates Working Hours which Influences WFC

Other studies that have found an indirect relationship between role salience and WFC include Cinamon and Rich (2002); Frone and Rice (1987); Greenhaus and Beutell (1985).

2.3.3 A Deeper Look at Role Salience and Work-Family Conflict

2.3.3.1   Role Commitment and Work-Family Conflict

The issue regarding what aspect of role salience is important in predicting the experience of WFC has been raised. Marks (1977) argues that role strain comes about due to commitment to multiple roles. Greenhaus *et al*., (1989) argued that high psychological involvement in work may lead individuals to neglect their family roles, resulting in higher experiences of WFC. Perrone and Civiletto (2004) also argued that what mattered was neither how much role tasks one did nor how much value one acquired from a role, but the level of psychological investment that influenced the experience of WFC.

It has been argued that commitment to a role strengthens one's feelings of identity as derived from participating in that role. Therefore, one is bound to invest more resources into that particular role. One will be willing to invest more time and energy into that role, because it is a source of their identity. When this commitment is applied in multiple roles, it may produce strain due to a lack of enough resources to invest in the roles (O'Neil & Greenberger, 1994). For example, when one derives their identity from both their work role and their family role (and therefore, committed to both), strain may occur as a result of not being able to fulfill both roles adequately due to a lack of enough resources.

O'Neil and Greenberger (1994) also point out that when one is psychologically committed to their family role, they may experience strain when they feel that their work role demands most of their resources, leaving them with less resources to invest in the role from which they derive their identity.

Perrone and Civiletto's (2004) research investigating the relationships among life role salience, role strain, coping efficacy and life satisfaction used 125 men and women as a sample. These individuals were all trying to balance different life roles such as worker, student, parent, and leisurite. They used the Salience Inventory (Super & Nevill, 1986) to measure role salience. Role strain was measured using the Job-Family Role Strain Scale (Bohen & Viveros-Long, 1981) which measures the stress levels and emotions such as pressure emanating from multiple role obligations. They found that only role commitment, an aspect of role salience, made a significant contribution to role strain. They further explained that it is not participating in, or value expectations about a role that contribute to role strain, but how psychologically committed one is to a role.

A deeper look into the effect of role commitment on WFC produces more insight into this relationship. Day and Chamberlain (2006) sought to find out if role commitment has a direct effect on WFC which was viewed as role conflict, while controlling for job stressors. They also sought to investigate whether role commitment acted as a moderating factor between job stressors and WFC. They measured WFC using two 13-item scales measuring work-spouse inter-role conflict and work-parent inter-role conflict. These scales were developed based on items

from other general WFC scales. With regard to role commitment, they focused on the worker, spouse and parent role.

They found that a high job and spouse commitment was related to low work-parent conflict, high parent commitment was related to high work-parent conflict, high spouse commitment was related to low work-spouse conflict while high parent and job commitment was not significantly related to work-spouse conflict. They attributed the different impacts of commitment on conflict to the fact that commitment to different roles may have different meanings. Moreover, the experience of conflict between roles may be different. They further point out the importance of not only focusing on the level of commitment, but the nature of this commitment. They argue that different role commitments may demand different responsibilities and stressors.
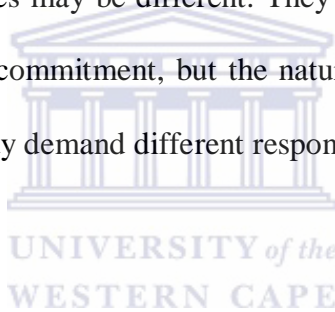
2.3.3.2   Value Expectations and Work-Family Conflict

Perrewe and Hochwarter (2001) discuss the relationship between role values and WFC. They argue that WFC is experienced only when there is incongruence between the values of an individual and another family member, or between the values of an individual and the organisation within which he/she works. They state that individuals with similar values interpret things similarly. This enhances communication between the individuals and hence, a positive interaction. Moreover, organisations that support the attainment of individual values, such as one's use of his/her spare time to coach their child's sport team, contribute to the experience of lower levels of WFC.

2.3.4 Summary of Literature on Work-Family Conflict and Role Salience

In summary, it has been argued that research on WFC should also consider the effects of role salience, because it has been found to influence to the stress experienced by employees (Amatea *et al*., 1986 & Hartung, 2002). The studies described above show that role salience can either have a direct effect, moderating effect or indirect effect on the experience of WFC.

It has been argued that role commitment may be the most influential variable in predicting WFC in relation to role salience. This is because commitment to a role reinforces the identity that one derives from that role, and therefore one is bound to invest most of their resources to that role. The experience of WFC occurs when one's identity is defined by multiple roles and does not have enough resources to invest in both roles. WFC may also occur when one identifies himself/herself with one role, yet they are forced to spend their resources on a different role. In addition, if one is able to express their values in a role from a different domain, the experience of WFC is lowered.

2.4   Literature on Job Level and Work-Family Conflict

2.4.1 The Demands-Control Theory of Strain

According to the demands-control theory of strain, certain job characteristics affect the experience of strain. This theory states that there are two sets of job characteristics that interact resulting in strain and stress. The first one is labeled job demands, which are essentially the nature of work, for example, work load, repetitiveness, arbitrary supervision and hours of work. The second set, decision latitude, consists of the required skill level and decision authority (amount of control in a position) (Karasek, 1979). Job control and decision latitude are terms that

can be used interchangeably, as they both refer to one's ability to control his/her activities at work. Another term that is commonly used to refer to the same construct is job autonomy. In the current study, the term that will be used is job control. According to this theory, job control acts as a moderator variable between job demand and strain in that, when job control is high, high job demand creates less strain. On the other hand, when job control is low, high job demand creates more strain (Karasek, 1979).

Butler, Grzywacz, Bass and Linney (2005) state that, although the demands-control model is mainly a model of occupational stress, it can also be used in the study of the spillover from work to family which is experienced by employees. This is so because the job characteristics used by this model, namely job demand and job control, can also be used to predict the experience of WFC. Doef and Maes (1999) also point out that although both aspects of control, namely skill level and decision latitude, were earlier combined in one measure, current research has moved into a differentiated measure of these two aspects of control.

According to the demands-control theory of strain, jobs can be categorized as indicated:

Table 2.1:   Job Categorization according to the Demands-control Theory of Strain

		Job Demand	
		Low	High
Job Control	High	Low-strain work	Active work
	Low	Passive work	High-strain work

Source: Groenlund (2007b)

Doef and Maes (1999) further explain that there are two hypotheses emanating from the demands-control model, the strain hypothesis and the buffer hypothesis. The strain hypothesis investigates whether the greatest strain is experienced by employees in the high-strain jobs, i.e. jobs with high demand. However, research on the strain hypothesis is still unclear as to whether the strain caused should be attributed to the high demand or the lack of control. The buffer hypothesis on the other hand states that control acts as a moderator between job demand and strain experienced as a result of job demand. This buffer hypothesis could be regarded as a specification of the strain hypothesis. Based on this uncertainty, this study seeks to investigate the relationship between job demand, job control and WFC.

2.4.2 Job Demand, Job Control and Job Level

Groenlund (2007a) and Schieman *et al*., (2006) argued that high-status work conditions may increase the experience of what they termed as work-home conflict. High status work is usually associated with higher job demand and higher levels of autonomy. They argued that autonomy means more responsibility and obligation which might increase one's level of stress, and hence increasing the chances of experiencing WFC. They also argue that people occupying higher status at work are usually more devoted to their work and may see their job as a source of identity compared to people with lower status at work. Individuals occupying high status jobs are usually expected to be more dedicated to their work role, sometimes to the disadvantage of their home role. They are expected to have a more exclusive relationship with their job.

In the current study, job level is defined as the position one holds within the school, for example, class teacher or school principle. The relationship between job level and WFC will be discussed in relation to the amount of demand as well as control that one has in their job. As argued by Groenlund (2007a) and Schieman *et al*., (2006), status at work defines the amount of demand and control that an employee has in their job. Following from this, the current study assumes that teachers occupying a higher position in the school (for example, the school principal), will have more job demand and job control compared to teachers occupying lower positions (for example, class teacher).
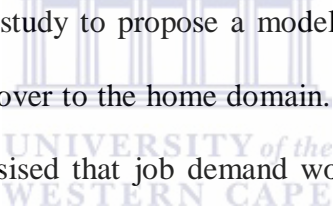
2.4.3 Literature on Work-Family Conflict and Job Demand

Voydanoff (2005) describes role demands as 'structural or psychological claims associated with role requirements, expectations, and norms to which individuals must respond or adapt by exerting physical or mental effort (p. 491).

Voydanoff (2004) views job demands in two forms, time-based and strain-based. Time-based job demand is related to longer working hours while strain-based job demand is related to the amount of workload that may cause stress to the individual as they try to effectively meet these demands. Time-based job demand may lead to an increased experience of WFC in that the individual may not be left with enough time to meet their roles in the family domain. Strain-based job demand may lead to an increased experience of WFC in that employees may end up experiencing higher levels of negative emotions, stress and fatigue. These may spill over from the work domain into the family domain. The individual may experience negative emotional

arousal, interpersonal withdrawal, lack of energy and stress, which may have a negative impact in the accomplishment of the family role.

Viewing job demand in terms of excessive work load and time pressure, a definition that the current study adopts. Yildirim and Aycan (2008) argue that job demand has been found to be one of the strongest predictors of WFC. All the studies reviewed for the purpose of the current study show a positive relationship between job demand and WFC. Below is a description of some of the studies that have found such a relationship.

Bakker et al., (2008) conducted a study to propose a model that showed how the job demand experienced by individuals spilled over to the home domain. Their study was conducted on 168 dual-earner parents. They hypothesised that job demand would be positively related to WFC. They measured work overload using a short Dutch version of the Job Content Questionaire developed by Karasek (1985). Emotional demand was measured using six items that measure whether employees deal with emotionally charged situations. These six items were developed by Van Veldhoven, De Jonge, Broersen, Kompier, and Meijman (2002). WFC was measured using two items that inquired for the extent to which the participant's work negatively influenced the home situation. These two items were adapted from the Dutch questionnaire Survey Work Home Interference. Their results indicated that job demand was positively related to WFC.

Butler *et al*., (2005) surveyed a sample of 91 participants in non-professional occupations for 14 consecutive days on their job characteristics and work to family experiences. WFC was measured using three items that were developed primarily for this study. These items inquired about how the participants' experiences at work effected the fulfillment of their home roles. Job demand was measured using a single item inquiring whether the participant had a lot of demand at work on that particular day. Their results showed that high job demand was positively related to WFC.

Yildirim and Aycan (2008) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between job demand and WFC. They investigated 243 nurses in Turkey. In their study, job demand was viewed in terms of longer working hours, work overload, overtime work and uncomfortable work schedules. Work overload was measured using an 11-item scale developed by Duxbury and Higgins (1994). Participants were asked to indicate how many hours they worked in a week. With regards to work schedule, participants were asked to indicate whether they had regular, partially regular or irregular work schedules. Finally, participants were also asked to indicate whether they had overtime work. WFC was measured using the seven-item scale developed by Netemeyer *et al*., (1996). Their results demonstrated that work overload and irregular work schedules were positively related to WFC.

While investigating the effect of hospital restructuring and downsizing on the experience of WFC, Burke and Greenglass (1999) also sought to investigate how the increase in workload during this process would relate to the experience of WFC. They used a sample of 686 hospital

based nurses, of whom 97% were women. They measured WFC using a four-item scale developed by Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk and Beutell (1996). Increased workload was measured using four items developed by themselves. These items inquired about the amount of workload the nurses had. Their results showed that variables emanating from organisational restructuring, such as increased workload, had strong and consistent positive relationship with WFC.

Higgins, Duxbury and Johnson (2000) conducted a study to investigate the influence of part time work on WFC on a sample of 22, 836 women in Canada. Their study found that part time work did alleviate the experience of WFC among women in both career and earner positions. They argued that this may be because it is easier to manage time for both domains as a part time worker. However, compared to women in earner positions, career women found it more difficult to balance the work domain and family domain due to the higher work load among these women. Another study that found part time work to alleviate the experience of WFC was conducted by Van Rijswijk, Bekker, Rutte and Croon (2004).

In her study to investigate the relationship between job and community demands and resources on Work Family Facilitation and WFC, Voydanoff (2004) used a sample of 2,507 bank employees in the United States. WFC was measured using four Likert-type items that inquired how often within the past four years the respondent's work interfered with fulfilling their home roles. Job demand was measured in terms of the average working hours of the employee as well

as four Likert-type items inquiring about the workload experienced by the employee. The results of the study did indicate a strong positive correlation between job demand and WFC.

Other studies that have demonstrated a positive relationship between job demand and WFC include Bakker and Geurts (2004); Frone, Yardley and Markel (1997); and Grzywacz and Butler (2005).

2.4.3.1 Arguments Explaining the Positive Relationship Between Job Demand and Work-Family Conflict.

Yildirim and Aycan (2008) argue that work overload and long working hours demand time and resources from and individual such that they are not left with enough to invest into the family domain. The personal resources perspective agrees with the argument above by arguing that when job demand is high, employees have to devote most of their resources to meet these demands, leaving them with fewer resources for them to fulfill their family roles (Frone *et al*., 1997).

Hammer *et al*., (2004) argue that organisation norms (e.g. longer working hours) that emphasize job performance, attendance and organization commitment may force employees to consider their work roles a priority to their non-work roles. Therefore, employees may end up spending most of their time and energy on fulfilling work roles. Consequently, employees may experience strain from the feeling of being unable to fulfill their family roles.

Frone *et al*. (1997) also argue that high job demand means that individuals have a lot of tasks to accomplish in a limited amount of time. As a result, an individual may be psychologically preoccupied with uncompleted tasks even as they try to fulfill the tasks of the other role. On the other hand, high job demand may cause both physical and psychological exhaustion which may lead to less motivation or ability for an individual to meet the demands of other roles.

2.4.3.2   Job Demand, Work-Family Conflict and Culture

Research has also shown that the influence of job demand on WFC may be culture-specific. Spector *et al*., (2007) investigated managers' experience of WIF. They compared individualistic cultures (Anglo) to collectivistic cultures (Asia, East Europe and Latin America). Their investigation found that culture acted as a moderator of how job demands related to strain-based WIF, in that the relationship between job demand and WIF was stronger in individualistic cultures.

However, the research conducted by Young, Chen, Choi and Zou (2000) found a stronger correlation between Work demand and WFC in China (considered a collectivistic culture). They attributed this to the fact that work demand is greater in China. On the contrary, Spector *et al*., (2004) investigated clusters of individualistic and collectivistic cultures and found that the relationship between work demand and WIF was stronger in individualistic cultures compared to collectivistic cultures. They attributed this to the fact that in individualistic cultures, longer working hours is frowned upon because this is perceived as family neglect. On the other hand, in

collectivistic cultures, longer working hours are appreciated, as they are seen as self-sacrifice and contribution to the family.

Spector *et al.,* (2007) explain that the flaw in Young *et al*.'s (2000) research is that they used WFC as a measure, as opposed to WIF. They argue that using WFC as a measure does not capture the direction of the conflict.

This further demonstrates that the study of WFC is culture specific and not global, and the variables influencing the experience of WFC may have different impacts depending on the culture. Researchers have called for more studies on WFC to be conducted in collectivistic cultures in order to understand WFC in its respective context. Hence, the focus of this study is on a collectivistic culture.

2.4.4 Literature on Work-Family Conflict and Job Control

2.4.4.1   The Meaning of Control

Mauno, Kinnunen & Ruokolainen (2006) define job control as involving the freedom to determine how one's work gets done, setting one's own goals and using one's skill at work, and having the opportunity to contribute to decision making. Groenlund (2007a) defines the construct as the ability to control the pace of work, having a say in how work is done as well as a say in policy decisions.

2.4.4.2   Inconsistency in Literature on Work-Family Conflict and Job Control

Doef and Maes (1999) and Flechter and Jones (1993) argue that the effects of job demand and job control on WFC is not entirely clear. Researchers are still unsure as to whether it is job demand, or job control, or an interaction of both that affect the experience of WFC. A review of the literature on job control and WFC shows that this is not the only area of uncertainty. Other studies have shown no significant relationship between job-control and WFC (Moen & Yu, 1999). Moreover, while some research has found that job control increases the experience of WFC, other researchers have found job control to alleviate experience of WFC. These studies are described below.

Studies Showing a Positive Relationship Between Job Control and Work-Family Conflict

Groenlund (2007b) argued that control at work with regards to freedom to identify goals, set priorities and define work and non-work activities, may also increase rather than alleviate the experience of WFC. This may be so especially in vaguely defined jobs or among women. She adds that organisations that are insufficiently staffed or constantly changing may force individuals to work overtime, work during leisure time or even work while they are sick.

Butler *et al*., (2005) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between job control and WFC, as well as the moderating influence of control between job demand and WFC. They conducted the survey on 91 participants in non-professional occupations for 14 consecutive days. WFC was measured using three items that were developed primarily for this study. These items

inquired about how the participants' experiences at work effected the fulfilment of their home roles. Job control was measured using two items that inquired whether the participants had a say regarding what they did at work and how they did it. This suggests that they viewed job control in terms of decision authority. Lastly, job demand was measured using a single item inquiring whether the participant had much demand at work on that particular day. Their survey showed that high control was related to a decreased level of WFC. However, they also found that WFC was greater when both job demand and job control were high.

Schieman *et al.*'s (2006) study consisted of 1,393 participants. To measure work-home conflict, they used a scale that measured the frequency, rather than the level of WFC experienced. Job autonomy was measured using five constructed items that inquired how much autonomy the participant had at work. Job demand was measured using two items that inquired how much work the participant had compared to his/her colleagues while job authority was measured using two items that asked participants whether they had employees working for them or whether they supervised anyone. Their results indicated that individuals with higher autonomy experienced higher levels of work-home conflict. However, they point out that it is difficult to say that more job control was the direct cause of work-home conflict. The increased experience of work-home conflict may be due to the higher job demands or longer working hours associated with high status jobs that afford the individual more job control.

In summary, although some studies have shown that job control may increase the experience of WFC, it is not clear which variable causes the increase in the experience of WFC: job demand or job control? This study aims to investigate the relationship between job demand, job control and WFC.

Studies Showing a Negative Relationship Between Job Control and Work-Family Conflict

Groenlund's (2007b) study hypothesized that job control alleviated the experience of WFC among women, but only to a certain level. In this study, WFC was measured using four questions that inquired how often respondents felt their work deterred them from fulfilling their home tasks. She measured job control by asking respondents to rate on a scale of one to ten, to what extent their job allowed them to organize their daily work, influence policy decisions and control their pace of work. Job demand was measured by two items that inquired about the respondents' work load and time pressures. Her results did not support her hypothesis. Instead, she found that control did alleviate the experience of WFC among women, more especially when the control was fairly high.

Other researchers have found a direct relationship between control and WFC. Jansen *et al*., (2003) found a direct relationship between job control and WFC. Using a sample of 12,095, they conducted research that investigated some risk factors, including decision latitude, which could result in WFC. They measured WFC using a single question inquiring whether participants were able to combine work and family life adequately. Participants were asked to answer either yes or no. Decision latitude was measured using the Job Content Questionnaire derived from a Dutch

questionnaire on Work and Health. Their results showed that higher job control was associated with decreased experience of WFC.

Other researchers who have found a direct negative relationship between job control and WFC include Grzywacz and Marks (2000) who found that job control reduced negative spillover and increased positive spillover from work to family, and Duxbury *et al*., (1994) who found that individuals with low perceived control over their life experienced higher levels of WFC. In addition, Anderson *et al*., 2008; Grzywacz and Butler, 2005; Thomas and Ganster, 1995 and Frone *et al*., 1992 also found a negative relationship between job control and WFC.

Studies on the Moderating Effect of Job Control

The demands-control model was originally a model of occupational stress (Butler *et al*., 2005). Doef and Maes (1999) argued that the literature on the moderating effect of control on demand and psychological well being is inconsistent. Since this model can also be applied in the study of spillover from work to family (Butler *et al*., 2005) literature has found that job control has both a direct relationship and a moderating relationship to WFC, while other literature has found job control to have a direct relationship, but not a moderating relationship to the experience of WFC.

For example, Groenlund (2007a) investigated the relationship between job demand, job control and WFC on a sample of 800 Swedish employees. She measured WFC using four questions that inquired how often respondents felt their work deterred them from fulfilling their home tasks. Job demand was measured by two items that inquired about the respondents' work load and time

pressures. With regard to job control, respondents were asked to rate, on a scale of one to ten, to what extent their job allowed them to organize their daily work, influence policy decisions and control their pace of work. With respect to the direct effect of job-control on WFC, she found that high job control was related to a low level of WFC, while low job control was related to high WFC. With regard to the moderating effect of job control on the relationship between job demand and WFC, she found that job control did indeed lessen the experience of WFC when job demand was high.

Discussing job control in terms of flexibility and working hours, Wallace (2005) hypothesized that job demand would be positively related to WFC, job control would be negatively related to WFC, and that job control would moderate the relationship between job demands and WFC. Her sample consisted of 1,201 married lawyers who were working full time. WFC was measured using the Work Family Conflict Scale by Netemeyer *et al.*, (1996). Control over flexibility was measured using one Likert item that inquired how easy it was for the individual to take time off to meet off-job demands. Control over work hours was also measured using one Likert item that inquired how much control the individual had over their working hours. Job demand, in terms of work overload, was measured using four Likert-type items developed by Caplan, Cobb and French (1975). Work hours in the office and at home were measured by asking respondents to average the amount of hours they worked both in the office and at work.

Her results supported only two hypotheses. She found that job control directly influenced the experience of WFC in that high job control was significantly related to low experiences of WFC. She also found a strong positive correlation between job demand and WFC. However, her results did not find job control to moderate the relationship between job demand and WFC.

The studies described above imply that the relationship between job demand, job control and WFC is unclear, hence, the motivation for this study to investigate this relationship.

2.4.4.3   Job Control, Work-Family Conflict and Culture

Research on the effects of job control on WFC has been shown to be useful in advising organizations to implement culture specific interventions that will help alleviate the experience of WFC among their employees. Lu, Kao, Chang, Wu & Cooper, (2008) argued that certain organisational efforts undertaken to reduce the experience of WFC, such as childcare centres, may be irrelevant in collectivistic cultures such as China. This was attributed to the fact that domestic help in most of these cultures is cheap and easy to find. In these cultures, one can easily obtain such help from extended family members. They argued that in China, employees rarely have the freedom to exercise control over their work. On the basis of their study that found a negative correlation between autonomy with regard to flexibility and WFC, they suggested that more autonomy at work would be more helpful within this context.

2.4.5 Summary on Literature on Work-Family Conflict and Job Level

In summary, it is argued that high status jobs are associated with higher job demand and job control. Individuals occupying such jobs are usually expected to be more committed to their job, sometimes to the disadvantage of their family (Groenlund, 2007a; Schieman *et al*., 2006). Following this argument, the current study assumes that higher job levels come with higher job demand as well as higher job control.

The literature that has been reviewed for the purpose of this study shows that researchers are unclear as to whether the high demand associated with high status jobs leads to an increased experience of WFC, or the job control associated with high status jobs leads to a decreased experience of WFC (e.g. Butler *et al*., 2005; Schieman *et al*., 2006).
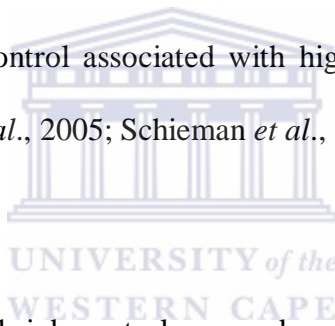
Some studies have shown that high job control may reduce the experience of WFC in a direct manner or a moderating way (e.g. Groenlund, 2007b; Jansen *et al*., 2003). However, as Groenlund (2007a) and Schieman *et al*., (2006) have argued, too much job control associated with higher responsibility and obligation might cause an increased experience of strain, resulting to a higher experience of WFC. The present study seeks to investigate the relationship between job control and WFC.

Research has also demonstrated the importance of studying the experiences of WFC within a cultural context. The different variables affecting the experience of WFC may have different impacts within different cultural contexts. Research has demonstrated that high job demand may

increase the experience of WFC in an individualistic culture as opposed to a collectivistic culture (Spector *et al*., 2004). Additionally, certain organisational interventions aimed at reducing the experience of WFC among their employees may have different impacts depending on the culture (Lu *et al*., 2008). This study investigates the experiences of WFC within a collectivistic culture.

2.5   Summary

Chapter two offered a detailed review of the literature on WFC, explaining the relationship between WFC and role salience, as well as the relationship between WFC and job level. The chapter indicated that WFC has been found to have either a direct effect, moderating effect or indirect effect on WFC. With regards to job level (with regards to the job demand and job control associated with different job levels), there seems to be a lack of clarity regarding how job demand and job control contribute to the experience of WFC. The importance of considering cultural orientation in the study of WFC was also emphasised with the argument that job demand has a different effect on WFC in Individualistic cultures compared to Collectivistic cultures.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

3.1 Introduction

Chapter three discusses the research methodology and the results of the study. The topics that will be covered include rationale for the study, the objective of the study, hypotheses, sample (including sampling procedure and the characteristics of the sample) and measuring instruments used in the current study. The ethical considerations undertaken while conducting this study will also be stated. Data analysis and results are discussed and a summary for the chapter is provided.

3.2 Rationale for the Study

The study of WFC helps organisations decide on the interventions that should be implemented to reduce the strain experienced by employees. As a result, productivity may be increased (Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, & Rosner, 2005).

Most research on WFC has concentrated on Western cultures while neglecting non-Western cultures (Hill *et al.*, 2004; Luk & Shaffer, 2005). The investigation of WFC from the perspective of different cultures informs organisations and helps them implement interventions that are relevant within the specific culture. For example, while the provision of childcare facilities within the company may help alleviate WFC among employees from Individualistic cultures, such interventions are not particularly helpful within collectivistic cultures as it may be easier and cheaper to obtain childcare help, for example, from extended family (Lu *et al.*, 2008).

Moreover, although researchers have appealed for more investigation into the relationship between the work life and family life among teachers, most research on WFC have neglected to study how the relationship between work and family applies within this group of professionals (Cinamon & Rich, 2005).

While investigating the issue of WFC, researchers have identified the importance of investigating the influence of role salience on this construct (Amatea *et al*., 1986 and Hartung, 2002). In addition to role salience, job level may also be considered an important variable in the study of WFC. However, while going through literature on WFC, there was not enough research investigating how job level influences the experience of WFC. Following from the above, the objectives of this study are as stated below.
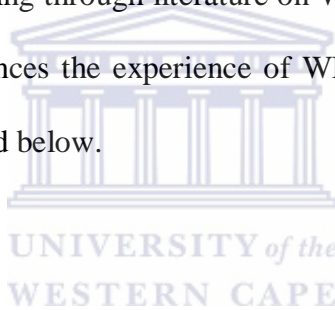
3.3   *Research Objectives*

This study was conducted to investigate:

i.   The relationship between WFC and role salience among female teachers from a collectivistic culture.

ii.   The relationship between WFC and job level among female teachers from a collectivistic culture.

3.4 Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Major *et al*., (2002) argue that individuals with high work role salience tend to be more psychologically committed to their job and even spend more energy and hours in their job, leaving them with less of these resources to invest in the family role. Following from this, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H0   Participants with a high work role salience will not experience higher levels of WFC

       compared to those with high family role salience.

H1   Participants with a high work role salience will experience higher levels of WFC

       compared to those with high family role salience.
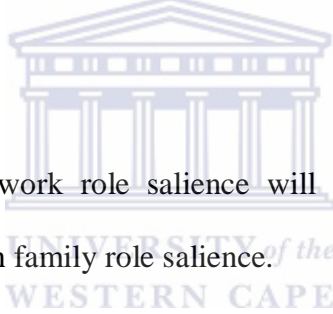
Hypothesis 2

Jobs with high status are usually associated with higher levels of autonomy/control (Groenlund, 2007a; Schieman *et al*., 2006). According to the demands-control theory of strain, job control moderates the relationship between job demand and strain in that, when job control is high, high job demands creates less strain (Karasek, 1979). However, according to the literature reviewed for the purpose of this study, researchers are unclear as to the exact impact of these variables, job demand and job control, on the experience of WFC (e.g. Butler *et al*., 2005; Schieman *et al*.,

2006). Therefore, it is expected that job level will be correlated to WFC, but the direction of the correlation is unclear. Following from this, the following hupothesis is formulated:

H0   Individuals occupying higher job levels will not differ from those occupying lower job levels in terms of the degree of WFC they experience.

H1   Individuals occupying higher job levels will differ from those occupying lower job levels in terms of the degree of WFC they experience.

3.5   *Sample*

3.5.1 Sampling Procedure

Convenience sampling, which is based on non-probability sampling, was used. Schools located in the suburbs and the townships of Cape Town were selected from the Western Cape Education Department website. The questionnaires were hand delivered to these schools. The female teachers completed the questionnaires at their convenience and handed the questionnaires back to their school's secretary.

Convenience sampling is easy and inexpensive. However, this technique is not appropriate when one intends to generalize the study findings. Conclusions drawn from studies using convenience sampling procedure should only be applicable to the sample and the readers should be cautioned with regards to the generalisation of the results of the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

3.5.2 Ethical Considerations

Research establishments have created ethical codes that researchers should abide to in a bid to protect the welfare and rights of research participants. Participants are considered an essential and valuable part of the research process. A fair criterion should be used to select participants and the relevant social, cultural and historical background of the participants should be considered and recognised during the planning and conducting of research (De Beer, Bekwa, Cilliers, Coetzee & Joubert, 2005).

The principle of voluntary participation demands that participants are not forced into participating in research. This especially applies to situations where researchers rely on participants in confined places such as universities or prisons. Participants also have the right to change their mind and withdraw from the research at any stage and without giving any reason (De Beer *et al.*, 2005).
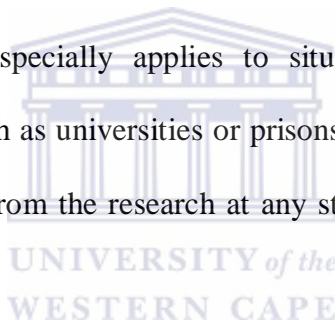
Another ethical principle, informed consent, demands that potential participants be fully informed about the procedures and risks involved in the specific research and must give their consent to participate. Problems with regard to this ethical code mostly arise in cases where the research involves naturalistic observation. (De Beer *et al*., 2005).

Researchers are also prohibited from placing participants in situations where their participation may harm them, both physically and psychologically, in anyway. This risk of harm can be avoided in two ways. Firstly, researchers should ensure that information obtained from

participants remains private and confidential, i.e. this information should not be made available to anyone who is not directly involved in the study. Secondly, researchers should ensure that their participants remain anonymous throughout the study (Terre Blanche &Durrheim, 1999).

On the first page of the questionnaire used in this study, the participants were assured that the questionnaire was anonymous, and the results would be dealt with as such. It was further explained to them that anonymity implied that:

i.   Names of respondents were not called for in the questionnaire and thus would not be used in the study or any publication that may ensue.

ii. No details would appear in such documents that may lead to reveal the identity of the respondent (e.g. names of schools).

The first page of the questionnaire also assured the respondents that their responses would be private and confidential and would only be seen by the researcher.

3.5.3 Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 65 female teachers from schools in Cape Town, who were used as the unit of analysis. Out of the 65 teachers, 39 came from the schools in the suburbs while 26 came from schools in the townships. The tables below describe further the distribution of the sample in terms of different biographical characteristics.

Table 3.1:   **Descriptive Statistics**

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	24	65	44	9.9
Years worked in current position	1	42	13.2	9.1
Hours of work per week	6	52	30.6	12.8

The mean age in the sample is approximately 44. The years worked in the current position ranged from 1 year to 42 years. The maximum hours worked per week was 52 hours.

Table 3.2:   **Religion**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Christian	51	78.5	89.5	89.5
	Moslem	2	3.1	3.5	93.0
	Hindu	1	1.5	1.8	94.7
	Other	3	4.6	5.3	100
	Total	57	87.7	100	
Total	Values not Identified	8	4.3		
Total	N	65	100		

Most individuals within this sample are Christians, who formed 89.5% of the sample. The other religions formed the rest 10.5% of the sample.

Table 3.3: **Marital Status**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Married	33	50.8	52.4	52.4
	Never Married	22	33.8	34.9	87.3
	Divorced	8	12.3	12.7	100
	Total	63	96.9	100	
Total	Values not identified	2	3.1		
Total	N	65	100		

Most of the individuals in the sample were either married (52.4%) or never married (34.9%). Only a few of them, 12.7% of those who responded to this item, were divorced.
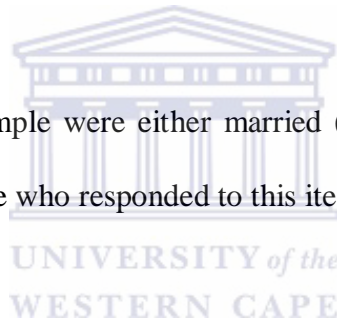
With regards to number of dependents, only about 20% of the individuals who responded to this item did not have children. Most of the individuals in this sample either had one child (25.4%), two children (35.6%) or three children (15.3%), with the majority reporting that they had two children. 3.4% of the individuals in the current sample had four and five children.This is depicted in table 3.4.

Table 3.4: **Number of Dependants**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	12	18.5	20.3	20.3
	1	15	23.1	25.4	45.8
	2	21	32.3	35.6	81.4
	3	9	13.8	15.3	96.6
	4	1	1.5	1.7	98.3
	5	1	1.5	1.7	100
	Total	59	90.8	100	
Total	Values not identified	6	9.2		
Total	N	65	100		

Most individuals in this sample had a qualification above a Matric Certificate. The majority had a College/Technikon certificate (33.9%), followed closely by individuals with a postgraduate degree (32.3%). Twenty five percent of the respondents had a Bachelor's degree. This is depicted in table 3.5.

Table 3.5:   Highest Qualification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Matric Certificate	5	7.7	8.1	8.1
	College/Technikon certificate	21	32.3	33.9	42
	Bachelor's degree	16	24.6	25.8	67.8
	Postgraduate degree	20	30.8	32.3	100
	Total	62	95.4	100	
Total	Values not identified	3	4.6		
Total	N	65	100		
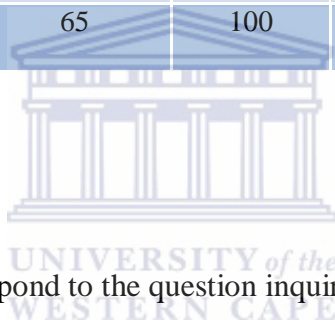
Of the 58 teachers that chose to respond to the question inquiring about their race, the majority were individuals from the African race (39.7%) and the White race (37.9%). 20.7% of the teachers were from the Coloured race. The least represented race was Asian, with only one person. This is depicted in table 3.6.

Table 3.6:   **Race**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	African	23	34.4	39.7	39.7
	Asian	1	1.5	1.7	41.4
	Coloured	12	18.5	20.7	62.1
	White	22	33.8	37.9	100
	Total	58	89.2	100	
Total	Values not identified	7	10.8		
Total	N	65	100		

As depicted in table 3.7, the majority of teachers within the current sample came from public schools, representing 78.7% of the 61 individuals that responded to this item.

Table 3.7:   **Sector of Employment**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Public	48	73.8	78.7	78.7
	Private	13	20.0	21.3	100
	Total	61	93.8	100	
Total	Values not identified	4	6.2		
Total	N	65	100		

Of the 63 teachers that responded to this item inquiring whther or not they had another job other than that of a teacher, only one of them had another job. All the other teachers indicated that they did not have another job.

Table 3.8:   Other Jobs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	1	1.5	1.6	1.6
	No	62	95.4	98.4	100
	Total	63	96.9	100	
Total	Values not identified	2	3.1		
Total	N	65	100		

Out of the 58 teachers that responded to the question inquiring what grade they taught, most of them fell within the group of teachers teaching either grades one to three (22.4%), grades four to grades six (25.9%), and grades ten to grades twelve (27.6). The least represented were pre-school teachers (10.3%) and teachers teaching grades seven to nine (13.8%).

Table 3.9: **Grades Taught**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Pre-School	6	9.2	10.3	10.3
	Grade 1-3	13	20.0	22.4	32.8
	Grade 4-6	15	23.1	25.9	58.6
	Grade 7-9	8	12.3	13.8	72.4
	Grade 10-12	16	24.6	27.6	100
	Total	58	89.2	100	
Total	Values not identified	7	10.8		
Total	N	65	100		

Sixty three out of 65 teachers that made up the sample responded to the question regarding their position in the school. The majority of them reported that they were class teachers (57.1%). The others were either school principles (7.9%), deputy school principles (3.2%), head of departments (7.9%), or other (20.6%) which indicated a position that was not mentioned in the questionnaire. In total, teachers who occupied positions above class teacher made up 42.9% of the sample.

Table 3.10:   Position in School

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Principle	5	7.7	7.9	7.9
	Dept. Principle	2	3.1	3.2	11.1
	Head of Department	5	7.7	7.9	19
	Grade Head	2	3.1	3.2	22.2
	Class Teacher	36	55.4	57.1	79.4
	Other	13	20.0	20.6	100
	Total	63	96.9	100	
Total	Values not identified	2	3.1		
Total	N	65	100		

The following section will focus on the measuring instruments used in the current study.

3.6   *Measures*

3.6.1 **Work Family Conflict (WFC)**

Work family conflict was measured using the Interactive Strain Scale (Parry & Warr, 1980). This scale measures the strain that working mothers experience as they try to fulfil their home roles while meeting their work role at the same time. This scale is consistent with the definition of WFC adopted by this study, which is that WFC occurs when a person's performance of roles in the family is hindered by the performance of his/her role in the work domain (Akintayo, 2006;

Britt & Dawson, 2005; Haar, 2004; Hill *et al*., 2004; Noor, 2004; Tatman *et al*., 2006; Wallis & Price, 2003).

The Interactive Strain Scale is a 12-item scale with five items reverse scored. An example of the items in this scale is 'The hours at work make it very difficult to look after the children.' It uses a three-point Likert-type response scale where 1=untrue, 2=don't know and 3=true. The scores are then obtained across the items and summed. High scores represent high work-family conflict. This scale has been found to have an internal consistency of 0.77 (Noor, 2002). The researcher chose it because it has a good reliability and the items are directly related to the researcher's definition of work-family conflict. In the current study, the reliability of the scale was found to be 0.76.
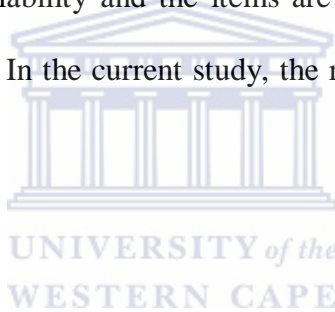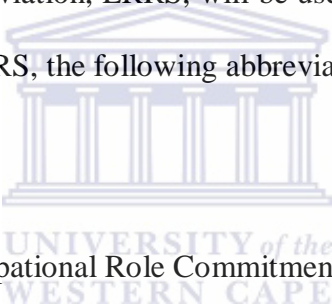
3.6.2 Role Salience

Role salience was measured using the Life Role Salience Scales, which measure the affective component of role salience, which is concerned with commitment and value expectations. Commitment defines how important a particular role is to the individual's self-concept while value expectations indicate the degree to which one can express his/her personal values in a particular role (Amatea *et al.*, 1986). These scales assess four major life roles, namely occupational, marital, parental, and homecare. These life roles are each assessed on the two affective dimensions of role salience, the value of the role reward, and commitment to the role. This scale comprises 40 items that use a five-point Likert-type response scale where 1= disagree, 2=somewhat disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=somewhat agree and 5=agree.

The items are further divided into eight attitudinal sub-scales each measuring role value and role commitment on each of the four major life roles (occupational, marital, parental, and homecare). Items in the role reward value dimension are characterized by statements that require the individual to either agree or disagree that a role is an important aspect of the individual's identity. Items in the role commitment level dimension are characterized by statements that assess the individual's willingness to do whatever it takes to ensure the success of a role (Amatea *et al*., 1986).

For the rest of this paper, the abbreviation, LRRS, will be used to refer to the Life Role Salience Scales. For the subscales of the LRRS, the following abbreviations will be used:

ORC   -   Occupational Role Commitment

ORRV   -   Occupational Role Reward Value

MRC   -   Marital Role Commitment

MRRV   -   Marital Role Reward Value

PRC   -   Parental Role Commitment

PRRV   -   Parental Role Reward Value

HRC   -   Homecare Role Commitment

HRRV   -   Homecare Role Reward Value

Reliability coefficients for the scale have been found to be above 0.7 on the subscales (Amatea *et al.*, 1986; Bhatnagar & Rajadhyaksha, 2002). The researcher chose this scale because it has a good enough reliability and the items are directly related to the researcher's definition of role salience. For the reliability coefficients for the subscales of the Life Role Salience Scale as calculated in the current study, please refer to table 3.11.

3.6.3 Collectivism

Collectivism was measured using a collectivism scale developed by Yi (2004). This scale has six items that use a five-point Likert-type response scale where 1= disagree, 2=somewhat disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=somewhat agree and 5=agree. An example of the items include "Without the help of others who love and care about me, I would not be where I am and what I am today". This scale has an internal consistency of 0.72. However, in the current study, the reliability coefficient for this scale was found to be 0.417.

3.6.4 Job Level

On the questionnaire, participants were asked to indicate what position they held in the school. This included principal, deputy principal, head of department, grade head, class teacher or other.

3.6.5 Item Analysis

To ensure that each of the above-mentioned scales provided with the highest reliability possible, the Interactive Strain Scale, the sub-scales of the Life Role Salience Scale, and the Collectivism

scale were subjected to item analysis. The purpose of item analysis is to identify items that have a negative impact on the reliability and to remove them (Weathersby & Freyberg, 2008).

Table 3.11 (continued on the next page) provides information regarding the obtained reliability in the current sample after the removal of poor items. As portrayed in that table, some scales had no poor performing items. These scales are the Interactive Strain Scale and some subscales of the Life Role Salience Scale, specifically, the Occupational Role Reward Value, the Marital Role Reward Value and the Home Role Commitment.

Table 3.11:   Item Analysis of Scales and Sub-Scales

Variable	Reliability	Number of Items	Number of Items Removed
ISS Scale	0.757	12	None
LRSS Sub-dimensions			
ORRV	0.696	5	None
ORC	0.811	4	1 (ORC1)
PRRV	0.711	4	1 (PRRV2)
PRC	0.559	3	2 (PRC1 & PRC4)

MRRV	0.839	5	None
MRC	0.795	4	1 (MRC2)
HRRV	0.780	4	1 (HRRV5)
HRC	0.758	5	None
COL Scale	0.417	3	3 (COL1, COL5, & COL6)

NOTE: ISS = Interactive Strain Scale, LRSS = Life Role Salience Scale, ORRV = Occupational Role Reward Value, ORC = Occupational Role Commitment, PRRV = Parental Role Reward Value, PRC = Parental Role Commitment, MRRV = Marital Role Reward Value, MRC = Marital Role Commitment, HRRV = Homecare Role Reward Value, HRC = Homecare Role Commitment, COL = Collectivism.

The majority of the scales have acceptable reliabilities with the Parental Role Commitment sub-scale and the Collectivism scale (COL) with lower than accepted reliabilities. Due to its very low reliability, the COL scale was excluded while performing the data analysis for this study.

The following sections will highlight the techniques used to analyse the data in the current study.

3.7   Data Analysis

Besides the descriptive statistics indicated above that show the characteristics of the sample with regards to their biographical details, items analysis was conducted for all the scales used in this thesis. More descriptive statistics were conducted on the scores on the Interactive Strain Scale and the Life Role Salience Scales and Mann-Whitney tests were conducted to investigate for differences among individuals occupying different job levels and also to compare the mean scores among the different racial groups. Correlation coefficients for the variables were also examined.

3.7.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were conducted for the scores on the Interactive Strain Scale and the sub-scales of the Life Role Salience Scale. These included minimum and maximum scores, means, standard deviations and skewness.

3.7.2 Mann-Whitney Tests

To investigate for differences among individuals occupying different job levels and for the mean differences among the different races in the sample, Mann-Whitney tests were conducted on the mean scores of the Interactive Strain scale, the sub-scales of the Life Role Salience scale as well as the Collectivism scale. Mann-Whitney tests tend to be very robust and can be used even when the data is skewed (Weathersby & Freyberg, 2008).

3.7.3 Correlation Coefficients

It is of utmost importance to note that correlation does not mean causation. The fact that variable A is correlated to variable B does not mean that variable A causes variable B to occur, or that variable B causes variable A to occur. Correlations infer that changes in the values of variable A/B causes changes in the values of variable B/A (Weathersby & Freyberg, 2008). In the current study, correlation coefficients were calculated to investigate the correlation among the scores on the Interactive Strain Scale and the scores on the sub-scales of the Life Role Salience scale.

3.8   Results

The descriptive statistics, Mann-Whitney tests and correlation coefficients for the variables of this study are indicated in the tables on the next pages.
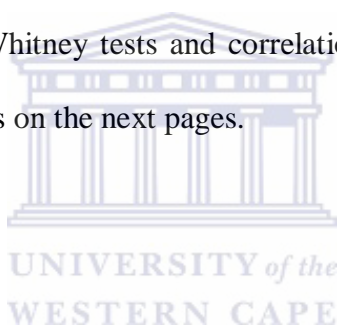
3.8.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 3.12 on the next page provides information regarding the descriptive statistics of the scores on the Interactive Strain Scale and the Life Role Salience Scale. From the descriptive statistics, we can see that the standard deviations from the mean are low. This is especially so for the Parental Role Reward Value, Parental Role Commitment, Marital Role Commitment and Home Role Reward Value subscales. The table also shows that the scores on the Interactive Strain Scale were positively skewed, while those from the Life Role Salience Scale were negatively skewed. The Life Role Salience Scale subscales measuring role salience for the home domain, the Parental Role Commitment, Parental Role Reward Value, Home Role Commitment and Home Role Reward Value, showed the highest degree of negative skewness.

Table 3.12: **Descriptive Statistics for the Interactive Strain Scale and the Life**

Role Salience Scale

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
ISS TOTAL	12	34	22.4222	5.75045	0.241	0.354
ORRV TOTAL	5	25	19.2623	4.54936	-0.839	0.306
ORC TOTAL	4	20	14.5161	4.5186	-0.521	0.304
PRRV TOTAL	8	20	18.3443	2.76818	-1.906	0.306
PRC TOTAL	7	15	13.4833	2.19778	-1.359	0.309
MRC TOTAL	4	20	13.2982	3.08779	-0.679	0.316
HRRV TOTAL	8	20	17.1311	3.12237	-1.039	0.306
HRC TOTAL	5	25	20.8833	4.17048	-1.219	0.309
MRRV TOTAL	5	25	16.6481	6.07549	-0.367	0.325

NOTE: ISS = Interactive Strain Scale, ORRV = Occupational Role Reward Value, ORC = Occupational Role Commitment, PRRV = Parental Role Reward Value, PRC = Parental Role Commitment, MRC = Marital Role Commitment, HRRV = Homecare Role Reward Value, HRC = Homecare Role Commitment, MRRV = Marital Role Reward Value.

3.8.2 Mann-Whitney Tests

Mann-Whitney tests were also conducted to investigate for differences among individuals occupying different job levels and to compare the means on the scores of the Life Role Salience Scale and the Interactive Strain Scale between the African sample and the White sample. Table 3.13 (continued on the following page) shows that there were no differences detected among individuals occupying different job levels within the schools. Table 3.14 (continued on the following page) indicates that the African sample had a significantly higher mean on the Occupational Role Commitment and the Occupational Role Reward Value compared to the White sample. The White sample, on the other hand, had a higher mean on the Parental Role Commitment scale compared to the African sample.

Table 3.13:   Mann-Whitney Test Results for Job Level

	Recode Position in School	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney u-value	Significance (p-value)
ISS_TOTAL	Higher levels	11	18.41	136.500	0.973
	Class Teacher	25	18.54		
ORRV_TOTAL	Higher levels	13	24.23	224.000	0.935
	Class Teacher	35	24.60		
ORC_TOTAL	Higher levels	14	26.46	224.500	0.648
	Class Teacher	35	24.41		
PRRV_TOTAL	Higher levels	14	22.29	207.000	0.516
	Class Teacher	33	24.73		
PRC_TOTAL	Higher levels	13	21.58	189.500	0.410

	Class Teacher	34	24.93		
MRC_TOTAL	Higher levels	12	27.04	137.500	0.146
	Class Teacher	32	20.80		
HRRV_TOTAL	Higher levels	13	22.54	202.000	0.546
	Class Teacher	35	25.23		
HRC_TOTAL	Higher levels	14	19.79	172.000	0.129
	Class Teacher	34	26.44		
MRRV_TOTAL	Higher levels	10	26.40	101.000	0.100
	Class Teacher	31	19.26		
COL_TOTAL	Higher levels	12	25.83	176.000	0.453
	Class Teacher	34	22.68		

NOTE: ISS = Interactive Strain Scale, ORRV = Occupational Role Reward Value, ORC = Occupational Role Commitment, PRRV = Parental Role Reward Value, PRC = Parental Role Commitment, MRC = Marital Role Commitment, HRRV = Homecare Role Reward Value, HRC = Homecare Role Commitment, MRRV = Marital Role Reward Value, COL = Collectivism Questionnaire.

Table 3.14: **Mean Differences between the Designated Group Sample and the White Sample on the Interactive Strain Scale and the Life Role Salience Scale**

	Recode_Race	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney u-value	Significance (p-value)
ISS_TOTAL	Designated Group	22	21.89	167.500	0.406
	White Group	18	18.81		
ORRV_TOTAL	Designated Group	34	34.68	164.000	0.000

	White Group	22	18.95		
ORC_TOTAL	Designated Group	34	33.41	207.000	0.005
	White Group	22	20.91		
PRRV_TOTAL	Designated Group	34	28.57	337.500	0.699
	White Group	21	27.07		
PRC_TOTAL	Designated Group	32	24.34	251.000	0.048
	White Group	22	32.09		
MRC_TOTAL	Designated Group	32	24.19	254.000	0.177
	White Group	21	29.90		
HRRV_TOTAL	Designated Group	34	28.93	325.500	0.576
	White Group	21	26.50		
HRC_TOTAL	Designated Group	32	28.45	321.500	0.586
	White Group	22	26.11		
MRRV_TOTAL	Designated Group	30	23.37	236.000	0.313
	White Group	19	27.58		
COL_TOTAL	Designated Group	32	27.22	343.000	0.867
	White Group	22	27.91		

NOTE: ISS = Interactive Strain Scale, ORRV = Occupational Role Reward Value, ORC = Occupational Role Commitment, PRRV = Parental Role Reward Value, PRC = Parental Role Commitment, MRC = Marital Role Commitment, HRRV = Homecare Role Reward Value, HRC = Homecare Role Commitment, MRRV = Marital Role Reward Value, COL = Collectivism Questionnaire.

3.8.3 Correlations

The correlation table 3.15 (continued on the following page) provides information regarding the correlation coefficients found for the different variables in the study. From the correlation table, we can see that no significant correlation was found between the Interactive Strain Scale and the Life Role Salience Scale. Also, no significant relation was found between job level and Interactive Strain Scale. We can also see that there were significant correlations among the relevant subscale of the Life Role Salience Scale. This means that in the Occupational domain, Occupational Role Commitment was significantly correlated to Occupational Role Reward Value, in the home domain, Parental Role Commitment was significantly correlated to Parental Role Reward Value, Homecare Role Commitment was significantly correlated to Homecare Role Reward Value, and finally, Marital Role Commitment was significantly correlated to Marital Role Reward Value.

Table 3.15:   Correlations

		ISS TOTAL	ORRV TOTAL	ORC TOTAL	PRRV TOTAL	PRC TOTAL	MRC TOTAL	HRRV TOTAL	HRC TOTAL	MRRV TOTAL
ISS TOTAL	*Pearson Correlation*	1.000	-.188	.008	.031	.136	.186	-.116	-.077	.261
ORRV TOTAL	*Pearson Correlation*	-.188	1.000	.633**	.067	-.218	-.247	.296*	.073	-.248
ORC TOTAL	*Pearson Correlation*	.008	.633**	1.000	.190	-.220	-.098	.270*	.008	-.087
PRRV TOTAL	*Pearson Correlation*	.031	.067	.190	1.000	.387**	.138	.097	.332*	.216
PRC TOTAL	*Pearson Correlation*	.136	-.218	-.220	.387**	1.000	.035	.028	.314*	.070

MRC TOTAL	*Pearson Correlation*	.186	-.247	-.098	.138	.035	1.000	.081	.132	.460[**]
HRRV TOTAL	*Pearson Correlation*	-.116	.296[*]	.270[*]	.097	.028	.081	1.000	.338[**]	.262
HRC TOTAL	*Pearson Correlation*	-.077	.073	.008	.332[*]	.314[*]	.132	.338[**]	1.000	.133
MRRV TOTAL	*Pearson Correlation*	.261	-.248	-.087	.216	.070	.460[**]	.262	.133	1.000
	**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)								
	*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)								

NOTE: ISS = Interactive Strain Scale, ORRV = Occupational Role Reward Value, ORC = Occupational Role Commitment, PRRV = Parental Role Reward Value, PRC = Parental Role Commitment, MRC = Marital Role Commitment, HRRV = Home Role Reward Value, HRC = Home Role Commitment, MRRV = Marital Role Reward Value.
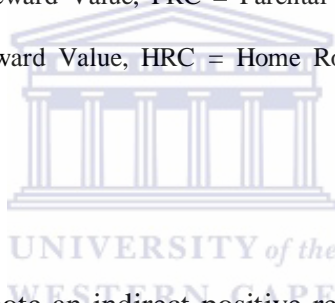
However, it is also interesting to note an indirect positive relationship between two dimensions of role salience according to the Life Role Salience Scale used to measure role salience in this study. Occupational Role Commitment (which belongs in the occupational domain) had an indirect positive relationship to Homecare Role Commitment (which belongs in the home domain). These two variables were indirectly positively related through the fact that they both had a significant positive correlation to Homecare Role Reward Value (HRRV). This is depicted in the table below that shows the variables that are correlated to Occupational Role Commitment and Home Role Commitment.

Table 3.16: **Indirect Relationship between ORC and HRC**

Sub-scales with a Positive Correlation to **ORC** (A variable in the occupation domain)	Sub-scales with a Positive Correlation to **HRC** (A variable in the home domain)
ORRV	*HRRV*
HRRV	PRRV
	PRC

NOTE: ORC = Occupational Role Commitment, HRC = Homecare Role Commitment, ORRV = Occupational Role Reward Value, HRRV = Homecare Role Reward Value, PRRV = Parental Role Reward Value, PRC = Parental Role Commitment.
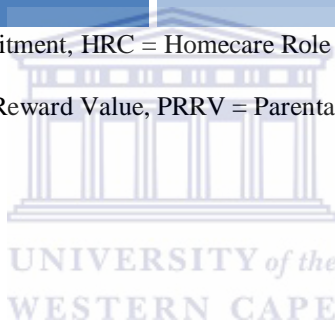
As depicted in the table above, Homecare Role Reward Value provided the link between Occupational Role Commitment (from the occupational domain) and Homecare Role Commitment (from the home domain), thereby depicting an indirect positive relationship between the occupational domain and the home domain.

3.9 Summary

Chapter three explained the purpose of the study, its objectives and the research hypotheses. This chapter also outlined the approach used by the study to achieve the stated research objectives. Data analysis and the results of the study were also outlined.

Among the characteristics of the sample, the ages ranged from 24 years to 65 years old. Both the years worked in the position and the hours of work per week were also quite varied. The years worked in the current position ranged from one year to 42 years. The hours worked per week ranged from six to 52. Most of the respondents were Christian (52.4%) had two children (35.6%), and had a College/Technikon certificate (33.9%). The African teachers formed 39.7%, the White teachers formed 37.9% while the Coloured teachers formed 20.7% of the sample. Most of the teachers worked in the public sector and only one had an extra job. The majority of the teachers taught grades 10-12 (27.6%). With regards to job level, class teachers formed 57.1% of the sample while teachers occupying a job level above class teacher formed 42.9% of the sample.

The scales used in this study were subjected to item analysis, which showed that the Collectivism scale to have a poor reliability. The data were analysed by conducting descriptive statistics as well as calculating correlation coefficients. Mann-Whitney tests were also conducted to test for differences in the means among the different racial groups and between individuals occupying different job levels in the sample. This analysis revealed that the African sample had high means on the Occupational Role Commitment and the Occupational Role Reward Value compared to the White sample, who had a higher mean on the Parental Role Commitment compared to the African sample. No differences were picked up on the experience of WFC among individuals occupying the different job levels. Although no correlations were found between the scores on the Interactive Strain Scale and the Life Role Salience Scale, further correlation calculations revealed significant positive correlations among the sub-scales of the Life Role Salience Scales.

CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1   Introduction

Chapter four aims at commenting on the study by providing an explanation on the findings of this study. Firstly, the reader is reminded about the purpose of the study and the research hypotheses. Further on, the results of the study are discussed in more detail. The limitations of the study and recommendations for future research on the topic are stated and a summary and conclusion for the thesis is provided.

4.2   Purpose of the Study

The current study was conducted to investigate the relationship between WFC and role salience among female teachers from a collectivistic culture, and to find out how WFC is related to job level within the same sample. WFC was defined in terms the negative influence that the fulfilment of the work role has on the fulfilment of the family role (Akintayo, 2006; Britt & Dawson, 2005; Haar, 2004; Hill *et al*., 2004; Noor, 2004; Tatman *et al*., 2006; Wallis & Price, 2003). Role salience was defined in terms of the role that one perceived to be most important to them (Perrone & Civileto, 2004). Job level was investigated in terms of the intensity of job demand and job control that is brought about by one's job level in the school, and how these may affect the experience of WFC.

Following arguments from the literature reviewed in this thesis, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H1   Participants with a high work role salience will experience higher levels of WFC compared to those with high family role salience.

H2   Individuals occupying higher job levels will differ from those occupying lower job levels in terms of the degree of WFC they experience.

4.3   Discussion of Results

4.3.1 Item Analysis

From the item analysis conducted on the scales used in this study, it was found that the Collectivism scale had a low reliability. Hence, the Collectivism scale was excluded from this study. Instead, the researcher chose to adopt the argument that the group of countries that are considered to have an Individualistic culture are the Anglo and European countries (Oyserman *et al*., 2002) while those viewed as to have a Collectivistic culture include the Asian and African countries (Triandis, 1989).

The setback with the Collectivism scale used in the current study may be that the items inquired about how the respondent would relate to members from different groups within the respondents life. Rhee, Uleman and Lee (1996) argued that in-groups and out-groups exist within a cultural

type. For example, in Collectivistic cultures, there might be members who are viewed as members of the in-group, and others viewed as members of the out-group. In Individualistic cultures, one earns membership to an in-group, for example, by holding similar attitudes. On the other hand, in Collectivistic cultures, in-group membership is assigned, for example, as a result of being a family member. Even within Collectivistic cultures, these members of the out-group may be treated in an individualistic manner (Rhee *et al*., 1996). Moreover, 'a person may be very collectivistic in some relationships and much less so in others' (Rhee *et al*., 1996; p. 1038).

The items in the Collectivism scale used in this study inquired about how the respondent would relate to parents, relatives, friends and strangers. It may be that the respondents relate differently to the above people, as they belong to different groups. For example, while parents and relatives may belong to the family in-group, friends and strangers do not belong to this in-group, and therefore, the respondent may relate to them differently. Hence, it may be that the Collectivism scale used in this study did not manage to effectively capture the cultural orientation of the sample used in this study. Rhee *et al*., (1996) identified a need for Collectivism scales that measure collectivism on the basis of a specific in-group. They further advice that the items of these scales should be specific to a relevant in-group, for example, family, in order to effectively measure the cultural orientation of an individual.

4.3.2 Correlation Between Work-Family Conflict and Role Salience

The results obtained by the current study did not provide direct support for the hypotheses of this study. There was no correlation between WFC and role salience. The results also showed no correlation between WFC and job level.

The fact that this study found no correlation between WFC and role salience may be due to statistical reasons. It may be that the current study did not have enough statistical power, which is the ability to avoid a Type II error. A Type II error occurs when the researcher overlooks an actual pattern in the data when there is really one. Factors that may decrease the statistical power of a study include a small sample size (as is the case with the current study, which had a sample size of 65), a restricted range (for example, when the data is skewed) or when the variables do not show obvious differences (Nolan & Heinzen, 2007). Correlation coefficients that are calculated from data from a restricted range may not reflect a true relationship between the variables (Nolan & Heinzen, 2007).
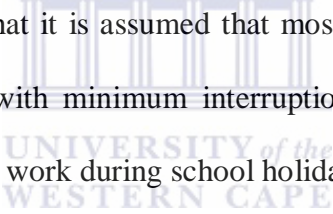
Skewed data occur when most participants have scores falling on either the right hand side or the left hand side of the distribution graph. When the majority of the scores for a variable fall on the right hand side of the distribution graph, this is known as a negative skewness. Negative skewness happens mostly when there is a ceiling effect, which is a situation that causes most variables to take higher values (Nolan & Heinzen, 2007).

The scores on the Life Role Salience Scales were negatively skewed. However, the subscales of the Life Role Salience Scales measuring role salience in the home domain, the Parental Role Commitment, Parental Role Reward Value, Homecare Role Commitment and Homecare Role Reward Value, showed the highest degree of negative skewness, indicating that the participants scored highest on these variables. This may indicate that the participants of this study considered their roles in the home domain as more salient. Due to the skewness of the data in this study, correlations may not have been detected.

Triandis (1989) argued that values are shaped by culture. For example, it is the norm that women from Collectivistic cultures take up the role of home caretaker while men take up the role of provider. Women are expected to stay at home and manage all the home related tasks, while the men are expected to work and provide for the family in monetary terms (Patel *et al*., 2006). The current study found that the women in this sample considered their roles in the home domain as more salient, thereby supporting the argument by Triandis (1989). Therefore, it may be argued that the ceiling effect that caused the negative skewness of these scores is the situation that the women from this sample came from a country that is considered to have a collectivistic culture, and therefore, most of them had high scores on the scales that measured role salience in the home domain. As a result, correlations were not detected. Consequently, the researcher could not compare the experience of WFC between those who considered the work role as more salient and those who considered the family role as most salient.

When the majority of scores for a variable fall on the left hand side of the distribution graph, this is known as positive skewness. Positive skewness happens mostly when there is a floor effect, which is a situation that causes most variables to take lower values (Nolan & Heinzen, 2007).

The scores on the Interactive Strain Scale were positively skewed, indicating that most of the participants scored low on the Interactive Strain Scale. This depicts that most of the participants in the current sample experience low levels of WFC. It may be that due to the skewness of the data in this study, correlations were not detected.

Cinamon and Rich (2005) stated that it is assumed that most teachers are able to perform both their home roles and work roles with minimum interruption. This has been attributed to the shorter working hours as well as no work during school holidays or summer. As a result, teachers may experience lower levels of WFC. Moreover, it is argued that when an occupation allows an individual to express their values, this individual is less likely to experience WFC (Hartung, 2002). As argued by Triandis (1989), the women from this sample may have considered their home role as most salient because they are from a country that is considered a collectivistic culture. Due to the similarity between the roles in the teaching profession and the roles in the family domain (Cinamon & Rich, 2005), the teachers in this sample may be able to express their values within their occupation. As a consequence, they reported lower levels of WFC. It may be that the floor effect that caused the positive skewness of the scores on the Interactive Strain Scale is the situation that the sample consisted of only female teachers from a country that is considered to have a collectivistic culture. The culture of these women requires them to value

their home role. Their occupation allows them to express this value. Therefore, most of the teachers had low scores on the Interactive Strain Scale

The case may have been different if male teachers were included. This is because, as Triandis (1989) argued, males from collectivistic cultures tend to consider their work role as most salient, because their role is to provide for the family.

4.3.3 Correlation Between Work-Family Conflict and Job level

As stated above, this study found no correlation between WFC and job level among this sample. As stated earlier, job level was investigated in terms of job demand and job control associated with different job levels. With regards to job demand, the findings of this study in relation to these variables is similar to the finding by Spector *et al*. (2007) who found that job demand only had a strong correlation to WFC in Individualistic cultures compared to Collectivistic cultures. With regards to job control, the reason why no correlations were detected may be the argument concerning a lack of job control within the teaching profession, as discussed below. It may be that there are no major differences with regards to the level of job control experienced among the teachers in this sample, and therefore, no correlation was detected.

According to Barnabé and Burns (1994), the teaching profession is characterised by a lack of job control especially in the general design of work. A study conducted by Chapman and Hutcheson (1982) found that individuals who left the teaching profession did so because they assigned greater value to job control, and were seeking a chance to contribute to important decisions by

pursuing other professions. Brenninkmeijer, Vanyperen and Buunk (2001) also point out that among the major problems that cause the burnout experienced by most teachers is role ambiguity and a lack of participation in decision making. Education administrations usually 'enforce clearly defined, narrow, measurable goals for academic achievement on the teachers' (Brenninkmeijer *et al.*, 2001, p. 260).

It can be argued that although there are different job levels within the teaching profession, for example, school principle, deputy principle and head of department, these job levels do not mean that the individuals occupying them have more job control than those occupying lower job levels. The main task for teachers is to impart knowledge to pupils, and as literature argues, they seem to lack job control in terms of deciding how this task is done. As Chapman and Hutcheson (1982) state, teachers are expected to follow a certain curriculum that has already been set by another party, in terms of what and how much material they should cover in a particular period of time, choice of text books, etc.

4.3.4 Correlations among Personal Expectation of Roles

In the current study, significant positive correlations were found between personal expectations (i.e., role reward value and role commitment) of roles that fall within the same domain. This is, in the occupational domain, Occupational Role Commitment (ORC) was positively correlated to Occupational Role Reward Value (ORRV). In the homecare domain, Homecare Role Commitment (HRC) was positively correlated to Homecare Role Reward Value (HRRV). In the Parental domain, Parental Role Reward Value (PRRV) was positively correlated to Parental Role

Commitment (PRC). Finally, in the marital domain, Marital Role Commitment (MRC) was positively correlated to Marital Role Reward Value (MRRV).
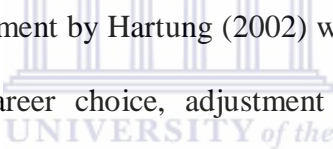
It is expected that the personal expectations (i.e. Role Reward Value and Role Commitment) of variables that fall within the same domain be correlated because research has demonstrated that when one finds value in a role, one tends to be committed to that role. This is because the respective roles act as a means in which the individual can express their values (Amatea *et al*., 1986; Kabanoff, 1980; Marks, 1977; Niles & Goodnough, 1996; Patel *et al*., 2006; Perrewe & Hochwarter, 2001).

The interesting finding in the current study is the significant positive correlation between Occupational Role Commitment and Homecare Role Reward Value. This finding is interesting because these two variables belong in different domains. Occupational Role Commitment falls in the occupational domain, while Homecare Role Reward Value falls in the homecare domain. Despite the fact that these two variables belong in different domains, they were found to be positively correlated.

This positive significant correlation between Occupational Role Commitment and Homecare Role Reward Value in this study may be so because the teaching profession allows the teachers in this sample to express their value of care giving, and because of this, they are also committed to their occupation. Cinamon and Rich (2005) point out that it is assumed that the teaching

profession has traits that are similar to the family domain. The homecare role involves care giving towards a partner, children, or elderly. The teaching profession is also characterised by care giving towards the pupils. The similarity between the teaching profession and the homecare role may explain the positive significant relationship between Occupational Role Commitment and Homecare Role Reward Value because the teaching profession allows the teachers within this sample to express their values of care giving. This finding supports the argument that if an individual finds value in a role, he/she tends to be committed to the respective role (Amatea *et al.*, 1986; Kabanoff, 1980; Marks, 1977; Niles & Goodnough, 1996; Patel *et al.*, 2006; Perrewe & Hochwarter, 2001).

This finding also supports the argument by Hartung (2002) who stated that career theories assert that values may dictate one's career choice, adjustment and satisfaction. Hartung (2002) explained that individuals tend to be committed to a career that allows them to express their values. Hence, values are seen as a better predictor of career choice. 'Individuals and groups use values to explain, justify and coordinate behaviour' (p. 19).

4.3.5 Scores on the Interactive Strain Scale

The scores on the Interactive Strain Scale which was used to measure WFC were positively skewed, indicating that most of the participants scored low on this scale. This depicts that most of the participants in the current sample reported that they experienced low levels of WFC.

This may be explained by the arguments by Luk and Shaffer (2005), who stated that the experience of WFC is culture specific. They argue that while it may be a norm for individuals from Individualistic cultures to consider the family domain and the work domain as separate, Collectivistic cultures view these as integrated domains. In China, an example of a collectivistic culture, they assign more importance to work time as this helps in meeting one's sole responsibility of maintaining and providing for the family. Therefore, spending less time in roles within the family domain is not frowned upon.

This argument is supported by the results of the current study, which found an indirect positive relationship between Occupational Role Commitment (ORC, a variable from the occupational domain) and the Homecare Role Commitment (HRC, a variable from the home domain). These two variables were indirectly positively related through the fact that they both had a significant positive correlation to Homecare Role Reward Value (HRRV). This is depicted in the diagram below.
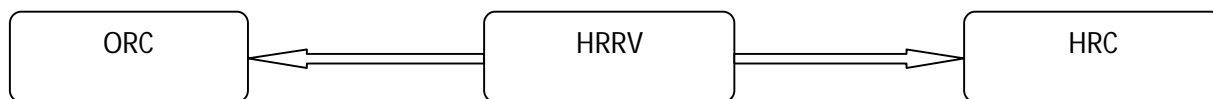
NOTE: ORC = Occupational Role Commitment, HRRV = Homecare Role Reward Value, HRC = Homecare Role Commitment.

**Figure 4.1:   Indirect Relationship Between ORC and HRC**

The teachers from the sample in the current study seem to be committed to both their occupational role and their home role, yet, they did not report that they experienced high levels of WFC. This finding supports the argument by Luk and Shaffer (2005) stated above, that people from Collectivistic cultures assign more importance to work time as this helps in meeting one's sole responsibility of maintaining and providing for the family. It may be that the teachers from this sample view their role in the work domain as something that helps them meet their roles in the home domain, as opposed to a deterrent in meeting their role in the home domain. It may be that they do not consider spending less time and resources in their home role as something negative. The teachers in this sample may view their occupation as a means of earning income and thus enabling them to provide for their family financially, thereby enabling them to meet their home role. It may be that because they are committed to their home role, they feel that it is mandatory that they are also committed to their occupational role as this is a means that enables them to perform an aspect of their home role, which is to meet the financial needs of the home.
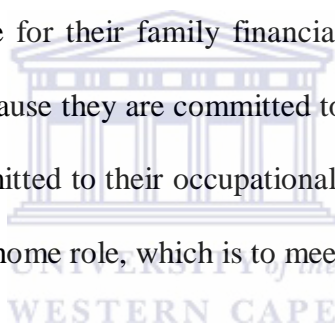
It is important to note that the sample used in this study consisted of White teachers as well, who made 37.9% of the sample. It can be argued that the White sample may not be oriented towards a Collectivistic culture, compared to the African sample. However, the sample consisted of 89.5% Christians. This religious orientation may have Collectivistic tendencies.

Fitzgerald and Weitzman (1992) also argue that companies rarely have policies that lessen the burden for women trying to juggle both roles. Individuals may feel that altering the performance in the different roles may be too difficult or costly, and therefore, individuals may end up choosing careers that allow them to fulfil multiple roles.

Some scholars have argued that there is a similarity between the task for teachers at work and their task at home as both tasks involve aspects of care giving. It has also been argued that the teaching profession also involves leaving work earlier as well as longer holidays (Cinamon and Rich, 2005). Following the argument that individuals may choose careers that allow them to fulfil multiple roles, it may be that the participants in this study reported low levels of WFC because their profession allowed them to juggle multiple roles.
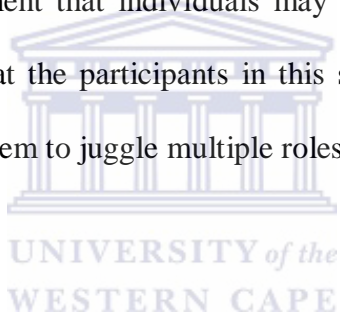
Another explanation as to why the participants reported low levels of WFC is an argument by Marks (1977). According to what Marks (1977) identifies as the scarcity approach (the view that the physiology of humans allows them limited energy and time), the indirect positive correlation between Occupational Role Commitment and Homecare Role Comitment may lead to and experience of WFC due to a scarcity of time and energy for humans to invest in both roles effectively. According to Marks (1977), this approach assumes that humans have a limited amount of time and energy to effectively juggle multiple roles. However, he argues that this assumption is faulty as opposed to a hard fact. He supports his view by listing a number of studies that have found that some individuals have managed to juggle multiple roles. He further explains how the physiology of the human body produces energy and concludes that unless the

bodily energy producing systems have failed to function, the human being has abundant energy at any given moment.

On the other hand, what Marks (1977) terms as the energy expansion approach of human energy is an argument that states that some roles may not cause any net loss of energy and may even create energy. This argument is based on Durkheim's (1953) view that " to live is above all things to act, to act without counting the cost and for the pleasure of acting" and that sometimes human beings feel "far more enriched and vitalized" after performing these acts (Marks, 1977: p.926). Marks (1977) summarised Durkheim's view by stating that acting may not necessarily lead to a loss of energy, but may also give an individual more energy to participate in another role.
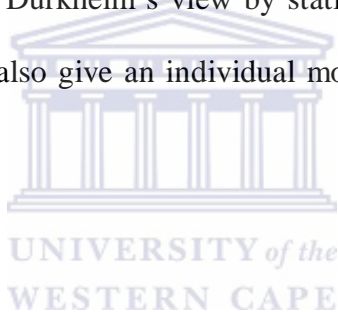
However, Marks (1977) agrees that both these approaches are valid. There are studies that have found some to experience less energy due to juggling multiple roles, and there are also those participants that did not report that they experienced less energy due to juggling multiple roles. Marks (1977) argues that one may feel invigorated after performing activities that they are committed to (as argued by the expansion approach to human energy), thus leaving them with ample energy to perform another activity. However, he argues that commitment to an activity and thus performing this activity may expand one's energy only when one finds these activities as valuable, worthy and important to them.

The results from the current study support this argument. This study found a positive correlation between Occupational Role Commitment (ORC) and Homecare Role Reward Value (HRRV). As argued above, due to the similarity between the teaching profession and the homecare role, the occupational role may also allow the teachers from the current sample to express their values, hence the positive correlation between Occupational Role Commitment and Homecare Role Reward Value. As a result, following Marks'(1977) arguments, the participants in the current study may experience lower levels of WFC because their occupational role does not deplete their energy, but invigorates them to perform their homecare role.

In addition is the concept of work-family spillover. Balmforth and Gardner (2006) explain that this spillover occurs when attitudes, emotions skills and behaviour from the different domains flow into each other. This spillover not only has to be negative, but may also be positive. Positive spillover occurs when these attitudes, emotions, skills and behaviours from the work domain have a positive influence in the family domain. If one considers skills, for example, due to the fact that teachers have to deal with the pupils at work, it may be that they become more skillful in dealing with their children at home. Moreover, a Maths teacher may offer help to her child at home with their Maths homework. As a result, positive work-family spillover happens. This may lower the experience of WFC among the teachers in this sample

4.3.6 Differences Between the Designated Group Sample and the White Sample with regards to Role Salience

The descriptive statistics also revealed that the designated group sample differed significantly from the White sample with regards to Occupational Role Reward Value and Occupational Role Commitment. As a reminder to the reader, the tables below show these differences.

Table 4.1: **Mean Differences between the Designated Group Sample and the White Sample with regards to ORRV and ORC**

	Designated Group Sample	White Sample	
	Mean Rank	Mean Rank	P Value
ORRV	34.68	18.95	0.000
ORC	33.41	20.91	0.005

NOTE: ORRV = Occupational Role Reward Value, ORC = Occupational Role Commitment

The White sample also differed from the designated group sample with regards to Parental Role Commitment as depicted in table 4.2.

Table 4.2:   **Mean Differences between the White Sample and the Designated Group Sample with regards to PRC**

|	White Sample	Designated Group Sample	
	Mean Rank	Mean Rank	P Value
PRC	32.09	24.34	0.048

Note: PRC = Parental Role Conflict

As indicated by the tables above, there were significant differences with regards to role salience between the women from the designated group and the women from the White race. The women from the designated group had higher means for the roles in the occupation domain. On the other hand, the women from the White sample had a higher mean score for the role in the parental domain. This may indicate that the women from the designated group in this study considered their occupational role as salient more than the women from the White race. This finding is explained in the following paragraphs.

It is argued that role salience may be determined by environmental variables such as social status, ethnicity, and gender (Hartung, 2002). Career development theory also suggests that salience attached to a role is dependent on personal and situational variables and how these interact. Among the factors that have been considered to affect an individual's work-role salience are economic status and culture and their place within the culture (Watson and Stead, 1990). This

implies that the importance one attaches to a role is also defined by external factors in the environment with which they interact.

As examples, of the studies conducted on role salience in South Africa include Langley (1995), Collins (1996) and Carvahlo (2005) who conducted studies that compared role salience among high school students from the English, Afrikaans and African language groups in South Africa. Their studies found that compared to the White students, the African students considered their role as a student as more salient. They explained these findings by arguing that within the African sample in South Africa, education was very hard to access (environmental factor) and therefore, those who were able to get an education placed very high importance on it.
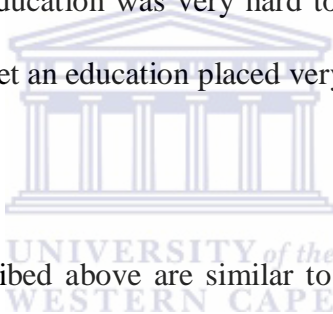
The results from the studies described above are similar to the results obtained in the current study in that while the African students in the studies described above considered their role as a student (also considered an occupation) as more salient compared to the White students, the designated group sample in this study considered their occupational role more salient compared to the White sample. However, the reader should take caution while comparing these studies since the studies described above used students and adolescents, while the current research used a sample of working adults.

Similar to the explanation provided by the studies described above, the findings in the current study may be explained in terms of the environment within which the teachers in this sample operate. The South African environment is characterised by a high unemployment rate among the African population, especially among African women, compared to the White population. According to Statistics South Africa, in September 2007, the unemployment rate within the African population was highest (30.5%) while the unemployment rate within the White population was lowest (4.5%). Statistics South Africa also stresses that in this period, the unemployment rate among the African women was highest (31.2%), compared to the White women (4.5%) (www.statssa.gov.za).
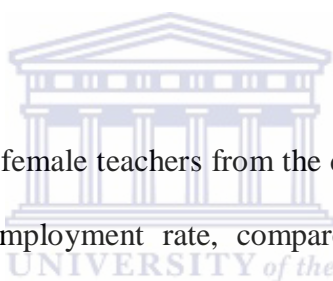
The environment within which the female teachers from the designated group find themselves is one characterised by a high unemployment rate, compared to the White female teachers. Therefore, it may be that being employed has a very high value among this group. It may be that the African sample in this study feels the need to value their occupation and be committed to it because they attach a high prize to employment. The situation is different for the White sample in this study who may not be as threatened and therefore, may be less committed to their work role as compared to the African sample.

4.4   Limitations of the Current Study

4.4.1   Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

The type of sampling procedure used in the current study, along with the size of the sample, does not allow for the findings of this study to be generalised to the entire population of female teachers in Cape Town. Future research should attempt to get a larger sample. A different sampling procedure should also be employed, if a future study seeks to generalise the results.

4.4.2   Measuring Collectivism

Although researchers have stated that the culture in Africa is considered collectivistic, a more reliable collectivism scale may have been of importance to this study. This is because South Africa has a diverse mix of cultures. The White people, who formed a part of the sample used in this study, may have their origins from countries that are considered to have an individualistic culture. It may be that they kept this culture with them. On the other hand, through acculturation, the White South Africans who were born in South Africa may have adopted to a collectivistic culture. Although the researcher refrained from judging they type of culture from a racial perspective, a reliable collectivist scale may have helped to establish the type of culture among the individuals in the sample of this study. Future studies should consider using a more reliable collectivism scale.

4.4.3   Quantitative Research

The use of quantitative research, especially in the field of social research is questionable, as this type of research does not provide more in-depth information regarding the interactions among different variables. The variables involved in human lives interact in complex ways, and

therefore, in-depth information may provide more insight regarding the interaction of the variables (Haslam and McGarty, 2003). The use of qualitative research in addition to quantitative research may be a means of gaining more information regarding the interaction of these variables.

4.5   *Recommendations for Future Studies*

There seems to be a lack of research on role salience in South Africa which is a unique country because it is characterised by a lot of different sub-populations with different sub-cultures living in one nation. This view has also been noted by Bluen and Barling (1983), Watson and Stead (1990) and Carvalho (2005). Further research may consider comparing role salience among these sub-populations, especially among the adults.
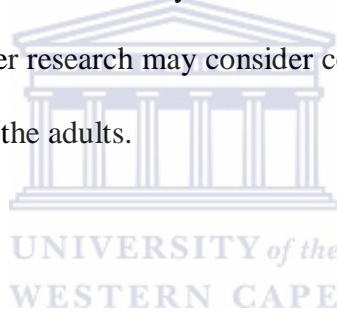
Additionally, there may be a difference in job demand and job control among lecturers in tertiary institutions as compared to teachers in high school or primary school. Lecturers in tertiary institutions may have more job demand or control within their profession. Future research may also consider studying WFC in relation to job level while comparing teachers from high school or primary school with lecturers in tertiary institutions.

4.5   *Summary*

This chapter provided a discussion in terms of possible explanations for the findings of this study. Since these teachers come from a country that is considered to have a Collectivistic culture, they consider their roles in the home domain as most salient. These teachers also

experience low levels of WFC because of multiple reasons. Firstly, since these teachers come from a country that is considered to have a collectivistic culture, they may not consider spending less time with their family as something negative, but as something that enables them to fulfil their homecare role in monetary terms. Additionally, despite the shorter working hours and the longer holidays, the teaching profession allows these teachers to express their values of care giving and therefore, experience lower levels of WFC. Moreover, positive work-family spillover may occur in that, the skills required in the teaching profession may also be beneficial in fulfilling the roles in the home domain. Another finding from this study is that the designated group sample reported higher means on the Occupational Role Commitment and the Occupational Role Reward Value compared to the White Sample. This finding was attributed to high unemployment rate among women from the designated group in South Africa, which makes them place a higher prize to employment. This chapter ended by stating the limitations of the current study, and offering some recommendations for future studies.
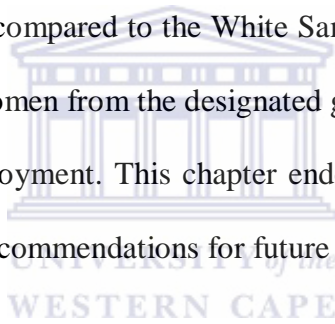
REFERENCES

Akintayo, D.I. (2006). Wage employment and gender differences in work-family role conflict among industrial workers in South-Western Nigeria. *Ife PsychologIA: An International Journal, 14*(1), 222-239.

Amatea, E.S., Cross, E.G., Clark, J.E., & Bobby, C.L. (1986). Assessing the work and family role expectations of career oriented men and women: The Life Role Salience Scales. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 48*(4), 831-838.

Anderson, S.E., Coffey, B.S., Liu, Y., Zhao, S. (2008). Employees in Chinese enterprises. Antecedents and outcomes of work-family balance. *The Chinese Economy, 41*(5), 22-50.

Aryee, S., Luk, V., Leung, A., & Lo, S. (1999). Role stressors, interrole conflict and well being: The moderating influence of spousal support and coping behaviours among employed parents in Hong Kong. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 54*(2), 259-278.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research: South African edition.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Dollard, M.F. (2008). How job demands affect partners' experience of exhaustion: Integrating work-family conflict and crossover theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(4), 901-911.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Burke, R. (2009). Workaholism and relationship quality: A spillover-crossover perspective. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 14*(1), 23-33.

Bakker, A.B., & Geurts, S. (2004). Toward a dual-process model of work-home interference. *Work and Occupations, 31*(3), 345-366.

Balmforth, K., & Gardner, D. (2006). Conflict and facilitation between work and family: Realizing the outcomes for organizations. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 35*(2), 69-76.

Barnabé, C., & Burns, M. (1994). Teachers' job characteristics and motivation. *Educational Research, 36*(2), 171-185.

Bhatnagar, D., & Rajadhyaksha, U. (2002). Attitudes towards work and family roles and their implications for career growth of women: A report from India. *Sex Roles, 45*(7/8), 549-565.

Biggs, A. & Brough, P. (2005). Investigating the moderating influences of gender upon role salience and Work-Family conflict. *Equal Opportunities International, 24*(2), 30-41.

Biklen, S. K. (1995). *School work: Gender and the cultural construction of teaching*. Albany: State University of New York.

Blasé, J. J., & Pajak, E.F. (1986). The impact of teachers' work life on personal life: A qualitative analysis. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 32*(4), 307-322.

Bluen, S.D. & Barling, J. (1983). Work values in White South African males. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 14*(3), 329-335.

Bohen, H. H. & Viveros-Long, A. (Eds). (1981). *Balancing jobs and family life*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Bragger, J.D., Rodriguez-Srednicki, O., Kutcher, E.J., Indovino, L., & Rosna, E. (2005). Work-family conflict, work-family culture and organisational citizenship behaviour among teachers. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 20*(2), 303-324.

Brenninkmeijer, V., Vanyperen, N.C., & Buunk, B.P. (2001). I am not a better teacher, but others are doing worse: Burnout and perceptions of superiority among teachers. *Social Psychology of Education, 4*, 259-274.

Britt, T. W., & Dawson, C.R. (2005). Predicting work-family conflict from workload, job attitudes, group attitudes, and health: a longitudinal study. *Military Psychology, 17*(3), 203-227.

Burke, R.J., & Greenglass, E.R. (1999). Work-family conflict, spouse support, and nursing staff well-being during organizational restructuring. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 4*(4), 327-336.

Butler, A.B., Grzywacz, J.G., Bass, B.L., & Linney, K.D. (2005). Extending the demands-control model: A daily diary study of job characteristics, work-family conflict and work-family facilitation. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 78*(2), 155-169.

Caplan, R.D.S., Cobb, S., and French, J.R.P. (1975). Relationships of cessation of smoking with job stress, personality and social support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*, 211-219.

Carlson, D.S., & Kacmar, K.M. (2000). Work-Family conflict in the organisation: Do life role values make a difference? *Journal of Management, 26*(5), 1031-1054.

Carlson, D.S., Kacmar, K.M. & Stepina, L.P. (1995). An examination of two aspects of work-family conflict: Time and identity. *Women in Management Review, 10*(2), 17-25.

Carvalho, A. (2005). Meaning of work and life role salience in a South African context: A cross-cultural comparison. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg.

Chapma, D.W., & Hutcheson, S.M. (1982). Attrition from teaching careers: A discriminate analysis. *American Educational Research Journal, 19*(1), 93-105.

Cinamon, R.G., & Rich, Y. (2005). Work-family conflict among female teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 365-378.

Cinamon, R.G., & Rich, Y. (2002). Profiles of attributions of importance to life roles and their implications for the work-family conflict. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49*(2), 212-220.

Claesson, M., & Brice, R. (1989). Teacher/Mothers: Effects of a dual role. *American Educational Research Journal, 26*, 1-23.

Collins, J.L. (1996). A cross-cultural study of the meaning of work and life roles in the South African youth. Unpublished master's dissertation, Rands Afrikaans University, Johannesburg.

Day, A.L., & Chamberlin, T.C. (2006). Committing to your work, spouse and children: Implications fro work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 68*, 116-130.

De Beer, M., Bekwa, N., Cilliers, F., Coetzee, S. & Joubert, J.P.R. (2005). Research Methodology tutorial letter 101. University of South Africa.

Doef van der, M., & Maes, S. (1999). The job demand-control(-support) model and psychological well being: a review of 20 years of empirical research. *Work and Stress, 13*(2), 87-114.

Duxbury, L.C., Higgins, & Lee, C. (1994). Work-family conflict: a comparison by gender, family type and perceived control. *Journal of Family Issues, 15*, 449-467.

Evans, P., & Bartolomé, F. (1984). The changing picture of the relationship between career and family. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour, 5*, 9-21.

Fitzgerald, L.F., & Weitzman L.M. (1992). Women's carreer develpment: Theory and practice from a feminist perspective. In Lea, H.D. & Leibowitz, Z.B. (Eds). Adult career development: Concepts, issues and practices (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: The National Career Development Association.

Flechter, B.C. & Jones, F. (1993). A refutation of Karasek's demand-discretion model of occupational stress with a range of dependent measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*, 319-330.

Fox, M.L., & Dwyer, D.J. (1999). An investigation of the effects of time and involvement in the relationship between stressors and work-family conflict. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 4*(2), 164-174.

Frame, R., & Brough, P. (2002). Development of the student stress scale. Paper presented at the Stress, Anxiety, and Research International Conference, Melbourne, Australia.

Frone, M. R., & Rice, R. W. (1987). Work-family conflict: The effect of job and family involvement. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour, 8*, 45-53.

Frone, M.R., Russel, M., & Cooper, M.L. (1992). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict; Testing a model of the work-family interface. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*(1), 65-78.

Frone, M.R., Yardley, J.K., & Markel, K.S. (1997). Developing and testing an integrative model of work-family interface. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 50*, 145-167.

Goff, S.J., Mount, M.K. & Jamison, R.L. (1990). Employer supported childcare, work/family conflict and absenteeism: A field study. *Personnel Psychology, 43*, 793-809.

Grandey, A. A., Cordeiro, B.L., & Crouter , A.C. (2005). A longitudinal and multi-source test of the work-family and job satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 78*, 305-323.

Greenhaus, J.H., & Buetell, N.J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review, 10*(1), 76-88.

Greenhaus, J.H., Parasuraman, S., Granrose, C.S., Rabinowitz, S., & Buetell, N.J. (1989). Sources of work-family conflict among two-career couples. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 34*, 133-153.

Groenlund, A. (2007a). More control less conflict? Job demand-control, gender and work-family conflict. *Gender, Work and Organisation, 14*(5), 476-497.

Groenlund, A. (2007b). Employee control in the era of flexibility: A stress buffer or a stress amplifier? *European Societies, 9*(3), 409-428.

Grzywacz, J.G., & Butler, A.B. (2005). The impact of job characteristics on work-to-family facilitation: Testing a theory and distinguishing a construct. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10,* 97-109.

Grzywacz, J.G., & Marks, N.F. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface; An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*(1), 111-126.

Haar, J. M. (2004). Work-family conflict and turnover intention: exploring the moderation effects of perceived work-family support. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 33*(1), 35-39.

Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology, 43*, 495-513.

Hammer, L.B., Allen, E. & Grigsby, T.D. (1997). Work-family conflict in dual-earner couples: Within-individual and crossover effects of work and family. *Journal of vocational behavior, 50*, 185-203.

Hammer, T.H., Saksvik, P. Ø., Nytrø, K., & Torvatn, H. (2004). Expanding the psychosocial work environment: Workplace norms and work-family conflict as correlated of stress and health. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 9*(1), 83-97

Hartung P.J. (2002). Cultural context in career theory and practice: Role Salience and values. *The Career Development Quarterly, 51*, 12-25.

Haslam, S.A. & McGarty, C. (2003). *Research Methods and Statistics in Psychology*. London: SAGE Publications.

Higging, C.A., & Duxbury, L.E., & Johnson, (2000). Par-time work for women: Does it really help balance work and family? *Human Resource Management, 30*(1), 17-32.

Hill, E.J., Yang, C., Hawkins, A.J., & Ferris, M. (2004). A cross-cultural test of the work-family interface in 48 countries. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 66*, 1300-1316.

Holahan, T.A., & Gilbert, L.A. (1979). Conflict between major life roles: Women and men in dual career couples. *Human Relations, 32*, 451-467.

Jansen, N.W.H., Kant, I., Kristensen, T. S., Nijhuis, F.J.N. (2003). Antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict: A prospective cohort study. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Psychology, 45*(5), 479-491.

Jetten, J., Postmes, T., & Mcauliffe, B.J. (2002). 'We are all individuals': group norms of individualism and collectivism, levels of identification and identity threat. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 32*, 189-207.

Kabanoff, B. (1980). Work and nonwork: A review of models, methods, and findings. Psychological Bulletin, 88(1), 60-77.

Kahn, R.L., Wolfe, D.M., Quinn, R., Snoek, J.D., & Rosenthal, R.A. (1964). *Organisational stress*, New York: Wiley

Karasek, R. (1985). *Job content questionnaire and user's guide*. Los Angeles. University of Southern California.

Karasek, R.A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude and mental strain. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 24*, 285-308.

Kelloway, E.K., Gottlieb, G.H., & Barham, L. (1999). The source, nature and direction of work and family conflict: A longitudinal investigation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 4(4),* 337-346.

Kossek, E.E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work-family conflict, policies and the job life satisfaction relationship. A review and directions for organizational behavior-human resource research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(2), 139-149.

Langley, R. (1995). The South African Work Importance Study. In D.E. Super and B. Šverko (Eds), Life roles, values and careers: International findings of the Work Importance Study (pp 188-203). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Leiter, M., & Durup, M. (1996). Work, home, and in-between: a longitudinal study of spillover. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 32*(1), 29-47.

Lobel, S.A., & St. Clair, L. (1992). Effects of family responsibilities, gender, and career identity salience on performance outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal, 16*, 507-521.

Lodahl, T.M., & Kejner, M. (1965). Definition and measurement of job involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 49*, 24-33.

Lu, L., Kao, S., Chang, T., Wu, H., & Cooper, C. (2008). Work/family demands, work/family flexibility, work/family conflict and their consequences at work: a national probability sample in Taiwan. *International Journal of Stress Management, 15*(1), 1-21.

Luk, D.M., & Schaffer, M.A. (2005). Work and family domain stressors and support: Within- and cross-domain influences on work-family conflict. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 78*, 489-508.

Major, V.S., Klein, K.J., & Ehrhart, M.G. (2002). Work time, work interfering with family and psychological distress. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 427-436.

Marks, S. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. *American Sociological Review, 42*, 921-936.

Moen, P., & Yu, Y. (1999). Having it all; overall work/life success in two-earner families. *Research in the Sociology of Work*, *7*, 109-139.

Mauno, S., Kinnunen, U., & Ruokolainen, M. (2006). Exploring work- and organization-based resources and moderators between work-family conflict, well-being and job attitudes. *Work & Stress, 20*(3), 210-233.

Nolan, S. A., & Heinzen, T. E. (2007) *Statistics for the behavioural sciences*. Worth Publishers, New York.

Netemeyer, R.G., Boles, J.S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family conflicts and work-family conflict scale. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(4), 400-410.

Niles, S.G., & Goodnough, G.E. (1996). Life-Role salience and values: A review of recent research. *The Career Development Quarterly, 45*, 65-86.

Noor, N.M. (2004). Work-family conflict, work- and family- role salience, and women's well-being. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 144*(4), 389-405.

Noor, N.M. (2002). Work-family conflict, locus of control and women's well being: Tests of alternative pathways. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 142*(5), 645-662.

Nuosce, M.B. (2007). The relationship between role salience, work-family conflict, and women's managerial leadership practices. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Akron, Ohio, USA.

O'Neil, R., & Greenberger, E. (1994). Patterns of commitment to work and parenting:Implications for role strain. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 56*, 101-118.

Oyserman, D., Coon, H. M., & Kemmelmeier, M. (2002). Rethinking individualism and collectivism: Evaluation of theoretical assumptions and meta-analyses. *Psychological Bulletin*, *128*, 3-72.

Patel, C. J., Govender, V., Paruk, Z., & Ramgoon, S. (2006). Working mothers: family-work conflict, job performance and family/work variables. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 32*(2), 39-45.

Parasuraman, S., Purohit, Y.S., Godshalk, V.M., & Buetell, N.J. (1996). Work and family variables, entrepreneurial career success and psychological well-being. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 45*, 213-229.

Parry, G., & Warr, P.B. (1980). The measurement of mothers' work attitudes. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 53*, 245-252.

Peeters, M. A. G., & Rutte, C. G. (2005). Time management behavior as a moderator for the job demand-control interaction. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(1), 64-75.

Perrewe. P.L., & Hochwarter, W.A. (2001). Can we really have it all? The attainment of work and family values. *Current directions in Psychological Science, 10*(1), 29-33.

Perrone, K.M., & Civiletto, C. L. (2004). The impact of life role salience on life satisfaction. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 41*, 105-116.

Prieto, L. L., Soria, M. S., Martinez, I. M., & Schaufeli, W. (2008). Extension of the job demands-resource model in the prediction of burnout and engagement among teachers over time. *Psichothema, 20*(3), 354-360.

Rhee, E., Uleman, J.S., & Lee, H.K. (1996). Variations in collectivism and individualism by ingroup and culture: Confirmatory factor analyses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69*, 142-152.

Schieman, S., Whitestone, Y.K., & Gundy van, K. (2006). The nature of work and the stress of higher status. *Journal of Health and Social Behaviour, 47*, 242-257.

Schweber, S. (2005). Its all an illusion. How to find balance between work and family *Chronicle of Higher Education, 51*(32), 1-4.

Statistics South Africa. September, 2007. Unemployment by population group. Retrieved October 15, 2009 from http://www.statssa.gov.za/PublicationsHTML/.html

Spector, P.E., Allen, T.D., Poelmans, S., Lapierre, L.M., Cooper, C.L., O'Driscol, M., *et al*. (2007). Cross-national differences in relationships of work demands, job satisfaction and turnover intentions with work-family conflict. *Personnel Psychology, 60*, 805-835.

Spector, P.E., Cooper, C.L., Poelmans, S., Allen, T.D., O'Driscoll, M., Sanchez, J.I., *et al.* (2004). A cross-national comparative study of work/family stressors, working hours and well-being: China and Latin-America vs the ANGLO world. *Personnel Psychology, 57*, 119-142.

Super, D.E., & Nevill, D.D. (1986). *The salience inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychology Press.

Tatman, A.W., Hovestadt, A.J., Yelsma, P., Fenell, D.L., & Canfield, B.S. (2006). Work and family conflict: An often overlooked issue in couple and family therapy. *Contemporary Family Therapy, 28*(1), 39-52.

Terre Blanche, M. & Durrheim, K. (Eds). (1999). *Research in Practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Thoits, P.A. (1995). Identity-relevant events and psychological symptoms: A cautionary tale. *Journal of Health and Social Behaviour. 36*, 72-82.

Thomas K. R. & O'Brien, R. (1984). Occupational status and prestige: Perceptions of business, education and law students. *Vocational Guidance Quaterly, 33*, 70-75.

Thomas, L.T., & Ganster, D.C. (1995). Impact of family supportive work variables on work-family conflict and strain; A control perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*, 6-15.

Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behaviour in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review, 96*(3), 506-520.

Van Hooff, M.L.M., Geurts, S.A.E., Kompier, M.A.J., & Taris, T.W. (2006). Work-home interference. How does it manifest itself from day to day? *Work& stress, 20*(2), 145-162.

Van Rijswijk, K., Bekker, M.H.J., Rutte, C.G., & Croon, M.A. (2004). The relationships among part-time work, work-family interface and well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 9*(4), 286-295.

Van Veldhoven, M., De Jonge, J., Broersen, J.P.J., Kompier, M., & Meijman, T. (2002). Specific relations between psychosocial job conditions and job-related stress: A three-level analytical approach. *Work and Stress, 16*, 207-228.

Voydanoff, P. (2005). Consequences of boundary-spanning demands and resources for work-to-family conflict and perceived stress. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(4), 491-503.

Voydanoff, P. (2004). Implications of work and community demands and resources for work-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 9*(4), 275-285.

Wallace, J.E. (2005). Job stress, depression and work-to-family conflict: a test of the strain and buffer hypothesis. *Industrial Relations, 60*(3), 510-539.

Wallis, T., & Price, L. (2003). The relationship between work-family conflict and central life interest among single working mothers. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 29*(1), 26-31.

Watson, M. B., & Stead, G. B. (1990). Work-Role salience of South African adolescents. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 36*, 249-257.

Weathersby, R., & Freyberg, R. (2008). *Statistics for the behavioural sciences. Study guide and SPSS manual*. Worth Publishers, New York.

Yi, J.S. (2004). Individualism-Collectivism; A geographical comparison between cities in Korea and the United States. *The Journal of Language for International Business, 15*(2), 19-33.

Yildrim, D., & Aycan, Z. (2008). Nurses' work demands and and work-family conflict: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 45*, 1366-1378.

Young, N., Chen, C.C., Choi, J., & Zou, Y. (2000). Sources of work-family conflict. A sino-U.S. comparison of the effects of work and family demands. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 113-123.