

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

STRESS AND STRAIN FROM WORK AND FAMILY ROLES:

A STUDY OF EMPLOYED MOTHERS

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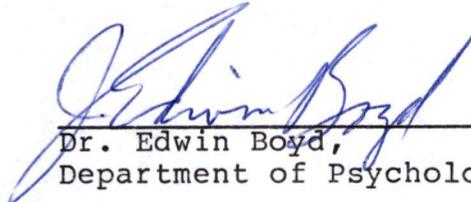
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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Stress and Strain From Work and Family Roles: A Study of Employed Mothers," submitted by Jo-Anne M. Barnard in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.



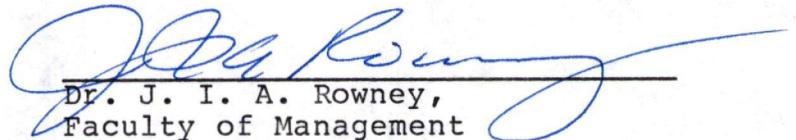
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ABSTRACT

Studying the interface between work and family is particularly relevant for women, given the number of women, employed outside the home. The major purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between work-family conflict and two measures of strain (physical/psychological strain and job satisfaction) while controlling for demographics, work-related and attitude variables, stressful life events, coping and social support. In addition, the influence that coping and support have on these relationships, as well as occupational differences in the experience of work-family conflict and effectiveness of coping strategies was of interest.

Women employed full-time in three occupational groups: traditional nonprofessional, traditional professional and nontraditional professional were included in the present study. Each group consisted of 57 volunteers who anonymously completed a battery of questionnaires that assessed: (a) the stressors, work-family conflict and stressful life events; (b) strain, i.e., physical/psychological symptoms and job satisfaction; (c) background variables, i.e., demographics, career commitment, and attitudes toward the roles of men and women; and (d) the moderator variables, social support and coping.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed to determine the relationship between work-family conflict and strain after controlling for the other predictors. Work-family conflict was not uniquely related to physical/psychological symptoms of strain or job satisfaction. These non-significant findings are discussed in the context of the beneficial effects of employment on the well-being of women. In addition, the results provided some support for the main effects model of social support.

The three occupational groups differed significantly on amount of work-family conflict and coping effectiveness. Nontraditional professionals reported significantly lower levels of conflict than women in the other two groups, and the two professional groups reported significantly higher levels of coping effectiveness than the nonprofessionals. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were also conducted for each group separately to determine the antecedent variables that significantly predicted symptoms of strain, work-family conflict and effectiveness of coping. There was considerable variability in the pattern of relationships obtained for the three groups, suggesting that caution must be exercised before generalizing findings obtained from a single occupational group to the population of working women as a whole.

Finally, the theoretical implications of the results are discussed as well as suggestions for future research.

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INTRODUCTION

Industrial/organizational psychologists have largely ignored issues dealing with the interdependence of work and family roles and, instead have tended to treat the worker, who is usually assumed to be male, as being outside the context of other life spheres (Nieva, 1982). Moreover, society in general perceives the work role as male and the family role as primarily the responsibility of women (Gutek, Nakamura, & Nieva, 1982). Organizational policies, such as inflexible working hours and inadequate maternity and paternity leave, are based on the model of the traditional family and on the assumption that the worker's major responsibility is to the employer. Thus, at the organizational level, there has been a neglect of the connection between work and family.

Only recently has the interdependence of work and family been regarded as an area in need of study. This interest stems in part from the entry into the workforce of women who have primary responsibility for the family. There has in fact been a steady increase in the participation of Canadian women in the labour force: in 1961 only 20.8% of married women were in the labour force, whereas this percentage rose to 47.4% in 1979 (Labour Canada, 1972, 1980). In addition, due to the increased

financial need of the family and the greater social acceptability of the employed mother, more women with younger children are in the labour force (Greenglass, 1982). In 1977, 37% of women with preschool children were in the labour force (Labour Canada, 1978). Research suggests that women who are employed full-time in the labour force still perform most of the home tasks and therefore the entry of women into the labour force has usually meant additional role demands: primary responsibility for the family and obligations to an employer (Pleck, 1977; Bryson, Bryson & Johnson, 1978). Thus, the study of the interface between work and family has important implications for women.

The main purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between work-family conflict and two measures of strain - physical/psychological symptoms and job satisfaction - using a multivariate framework. The influence of coping and social support was also examined. The sample consisted of employed mothers with varied occupations, which permitted comparisons of role conflict between professional women (both traditional and nontraditional occupations) and nonprofessional women (employed in traditional occupations). In the introduction, the following topics will be discussed: roles and interrole conflict; research concerning role

conflict; the relationship between stress and strain; and the influence that coping and support have on these relationships. Finally, the rationale and hypotheses for the present study are outlined.

Definition of Role and Interrole Conflict

The concept of "role" is central to the study of work and family interdependence. Most individuals, in fact, have multiple roles that they enact in the social system (Fisher, 1982). A married employed mother would probably be involved in several social roles in addition to her work role, that is, parent, spouse, friend, and so on. Although there are various definitions of "role", all of them have one common feature (Sarbin & Allen, 1968), namely that "role" refers to "a pattern of behaviours exhibited by a group of individuals occupying a given social position" (e.g., Bates & Harvey, 1976; Fisher, 1982; Jones & Gerard, 1957; Sarbin & Allen, 1968; Shaw & Constanza, 1970; Thomas & Biddle, 1968).

A role, however, is only one component of the role process, which involves two other components. First, there are structurally given demands, norms, expectations or sets of pressures that guide the individual's functioning in his/her position. These include beliefs about appropriate behaviours and obligations, rights and privileges that are

assigned to the given role (Hall, 1972; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Levinson, 1959; Sarbin & Allen, 1968). We expect individuals in a given social position to act in the manner that is prescribed by the expectations and beliefs attached to their role (Fisher, 1982). For example, a mother is not only expected to meet the physical needs of her child, but also to show qualities such as affection and understanding (Sarbin & Allen, 1968). The other component associated with the role process is the individual's conception of the role, i.e., the person's own definition of the way individuals in his/her role are supposed to act and think (Hall, 1972; Kahn et al, 1964; Levinson, 1959). Thus, the role process consists of structurally given demands which then form the basis for the individual's perception of these demands. The subsequent behaviour is based on the demands of the role and the individual's perceptions of those demands.

Roles have been conceptualized incorrectly as plastic moulds into which individuals are poured, resulting in stereotypic actions and thoughts (Fisher, 1982). A more accepted view is that behaviour occurs within certain limits, but is also flexible (Sarbin & Allen, 1968). The behaviour of an individual in a given social position is influenced by the skills he/she brings to the situation and the clarity and consensus of the expectations, as well as

the compatibility between the expectations and the individual's personal conception of how he/she should behave (Fisher, 1982).

Men and women who are part of the labour force are usually involved in a number of social roles, and commitment to these different roles may result in conflict. Interrole conflict is defined as "expectations from two or more roles which are perceived as incompatible" (Kahn et al., 1964). In other words, "the role pressures associated with membership in one organization are in conflict with pressures stemming from membership in other groups" (Kahn et al., 1964, p. 20). For example, a man may be faced with demands at work for overtime or take-home work which may conflict with pressures from his spouse to give more attention to his family in the evening hours. The conflict stems from opposing pressures associated with this individual's roles as worker, spouse, and parent. Similarly, a woman may experience conflict between the demands of her children, her spouse and her employer. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) offer the following definition of work-family conflict, based on the work of Kahn et al. (1964): "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of

participation in the family (work) role" (p. 77). Thus, role conflict may be experienced by individuals who attempt to integrate or combine familial and occupational roles and involves competing demands and expectations (Coser & Rokoff, 1971; Richardson, 1981).

A number of researchers (e.g., Coser & Rokoff, 1971; Hall, 1972; Pleck, 1977) have argued that interrole conflict is more of a problem for women than men as men with families usually have two sequential roles, whereas women in the same position have two simultaneous roles. In other words, men's family responsibilities usually can be discharged during out-of-work hours, whereas women's family responsibilities are full-time. For example, it is more often the mother rather than the father who takes time off work to care for a sick child or attend school functions. Furthermore, when a woman is employed, her partner generally does not take on a proportionate share of household or child-care duties (Bryson, Bryson, & Johnson, 1978; Gutek, Nakamura, & Nieva, 1981; Pleck, 1977).

In addition, women and men may experience conflict between work and family in different ways (e.g., Aneshenel, Frerichs, & Clark, 1981; Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Pleck, 1977; Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980). For example, Pleck et al. (1980) found that men and women reported similar levels of work-family conflict,

but that for men the conflict was due to excessive work hours, whereas for women it was due to work schedule problems. These findings can be explained in terms of the different expectations associated with the roles men and women occupy (Aneshenel et al., 1981; Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Coser & Rokoff, 1971; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Fathers are expected to participate in family life after hours, but mothers are expected to respond to their children's needs whenever they arise. In addition, men traditionally have received strong sanctions for non-compliance with work demands whereas women have experienced strong sanctions for non-compliance with family demands (Coser & Rokoff, 1971; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). As men and women may experience conflict between work and family in different ways, it is advisable to study them separately. This study focussed on women and addressed questions of relevance to this portion of the population.

The Measurement of Interrole Conflict

Although a number of studies have shown that women who are employed outside the home may experience interrole conflict (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982, 1983; Cartwright, 1978; Hall, 1972, 1975; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a, 1979b; Nevill & Damico, 1975a, 1975b; Pleck et al., 1980), it is difficult to integrate their findings as the operational

definitions of work-family conflict vary from study to study. Some researchers (e.g., Pleck et al., 1980) measured work-family conflict by asking subjects how much their jobs interfered with their families. Others (e.g., Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982, 1983; Hall, 1972) asked subjects to state which roles were in conflict and to rate the intensity of this conflict. A third measurement strategy (e.g., Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a, 1979b; Nevill & Damico, 1974, 1975a, 1975b) has been to break down work-family conflict into major conflict areas and measure the amount of conflict in each area. Using this approach, Herman and Gyllstrom (1977) defined conflict as simultaneous time demands in the areas of job or career maintenance and family responsibilities. Nevill and Damico (1974, 1975a, 1975b), on the other hand, identified eight categories of conflict (Time Management, Household Management, Financial, Child Care, Expectations From Self, Expectations From Others and Guilt) and asked subjects how often they were bothered by these conflicts. Finally, Holahan and Gilbert's (1979) work-family conflict measure focuses on four major life roles (worker, spouse, parent and self as a self-actualizing person) and assesses the amount of conflict experienced between pairs of these roles.

The measures of work-family conflict also vary in terms of the type and the numbers of items included. Some researchers have used open-ended questions (e.g., Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982, 1983; Hall, 1972), while others have used measures with one or two specific items (e.g., Cartwright, 1978; Pleck et al., 1980). Problems associated with these measures include: (a) questionable reliability of the brief measures (Ghiselli, Campell, & Zedeck, 1981), (b) lack of comparability of respondents' answers to open-ended questions (Caplovitz, 1983), and (c) the failure of brief scales to assess fully the subtlety of such a complex variable as work-family conflict (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1985). Two closed-ended multiple-item measures covering the major conflict areas for employed women (Nevill & Damico, 1974; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a) have been developed, but only one of these (Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a) divides work-family conflict into major areas and has multiple items for each conflict area. Moreover, the Holahan and Gilbert (1979a) scale assesses the family's interference with work and vice-versa and has demonstrated reliability. For these reasons, it appears to be the scale of choice.

Research Concerning Role Conflict

In addition to demonstrating the existence of interrole conflict for women employed outside the home, researchers have identified several factors that affect the amount of conflict experienced. These factors include (a) family role characteristics such as marital status and number of children, (b) importance of the work role, (c) attitudes toward women's roles, (d) education, (e) occupational status, and (f) personality. A summary of the studies in this area is presented in Table 1 and will serve as a focus for the discussion of variables affecting the amount of conflict. Only the results concerning women are outlined, although some studies have included both men and women. In addition, there is a body of research concerning men's experiences of work-family conflict which will not be discussed as this study focussed exclusively on women.

Marital status. Three studies have reported that married women experience more conflict than non-married women (Cooke & Rosseau, 1984; Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977; Nevill & Damico, 1975b). Nevill and Damico (1975b) originally hypothesized that marital status is an important determinant of the amount of conflict experienced based on previous research indicating that marriage is stressful for women, that is, marriage is viewed as a more important

TABLE 1
Studies of Work-Family Conflict

Author/(s)	Sample	Variables Studied	Measures of Conflict
Barnett & Baruch	Employed and Nonemployed N = 238	Age, educational attainment*, presence of children*, marital status, number of roles*, total family income, occupational status* (employed sample)	ICE, no reliability or validity reported
Beutell & Greenhaus (1980)	Married college students N = 126	Ages of children* attitudes toward women*	2OE and 1CE, no reliability or validity reported
Beutell & Greenhaus (1982, 1983)	Married college students N = 115	Attitudes toward women*, work-role salience*	2OE and 1CE, no reliability or validity reported
Cartwright (1978)	Physicians, N = 49	Age of women*, number of children*, California Personality Inventory (only 3 sub-scales)*, check list (nine of twenty-four)*, remaining 15 objectives	ICE, no reliability or validity reported
Cooke & Rosseau (1984)	Teachers N = 200	Marital status*, presence of children*	2CE and 1OE reliability assessed (Cronbach's alpha = .69). No validity reported

* $p < .05$

CE = Close - ended question

OE = Open - ended question

TABLE 1
Studies of Work-Family Conflict

Author/(s)	Sample	Variables Studied	Measures of Conflict
Elman & Gilbert (1984)	Professionals with children, N = 97	Career aspiration, career commitment*, job involvement, spouse support*	1CE, no reliability or validity reported
Gordon & Hall (1974)	College graduates, N = 97	Self image of femininity, males image of femininity*	1OE, no reliability or validity reported
Greenglass (1984a)	University professor, and managers, N=80	Type A behaviour*	Holahan & Gilbert's (1979a) scale
Hall & Gordon (1974)	College graduates N = 109	Employment status*	1CE and 1OE, no reliability or validity reported
Herman & Gyllstrom (1977)	University employees, N = 500	Presence of children,* occupational status*, marital status*	3CE, no reliability or validity reported
Holahan & Gilbert (1979a)	Professionals whose partners are also professionals N = 500	Attitudes toward women, career commitment, presence of children* spouse support*	21CE, reliability reported (Cronbach's alpha = (.80) validity reported
Holahan & Gilbert (1979a)	Professionals whose partners are also professionals N = 28	Attitudes towards women, career commitment, presence of children* spouse support*	21CE, reliability reported (Cronbach's alpha - (.80) validity reported

* $p < .05$

CE = Close - ended question

OE = Open - ended question

TABLE 1
Studies of Work-Family Conflict

Author/(s)	Sample	Variables Studied	Measures of Conflict
Holahan & Gilbert (1979b)	University employees N = 41	Career commitment*, spouse support*	21CE, reliability reported (Cronbach's alpha = (.80) validity reported
Keith & Schafer (1980)	Women whose partners are employed, N=135	Age of women*, number of children*	4CE, no reliability or validity reported
Nevill and Damico (1975a, 1975b, 1978)	University employees N = 518	Number of children*, marital status*, occupational status*	7CE, no reliability is reported. validity is reported
Pleck, Staines & Lang (1980)	1977 Quality of employment survey, N=1064	Ages of children* presence of children*, work schedules*	1CE and 1OE, no reliability or validity reported

* $p < .05$

CE = Close - ended question

OE = Open - ended question

life event by women than it is by men (Bardwick, 1971), women make greater adjustments in marriage than do men (Bernard, 1964; Landis, 1946) and married women have greater emotional problems than other women (Srole et al., 1962). They sampled a university community, but found that married and professional women, women in the 25-39 age group and women in the higher educational levels were over-represented. Role conflict was measured by asking participants to rate, in terms of their stressfulness, a number of conflict statements regarding eight categories of role conflict (Time Management, Relations With Husband, Household Management, Financial, Child Care, Expectations for Self, Expectations of Others and Guilt). Consistent with their hypothesis, never married women and formerly married women did not differ in their levels of conflict. Married women, however, experienced significantly more conflict than the other two groups in all categories except "Expectations of Others" and "Expectations for Self". In categories such as "Relations with Husband" the differences were expected. The difference in the category "Child Care" (i.e., "Raising children takes a tremendous amount of energy or time" and "When a mother experiences other pressures on her time conflicts arise"), however, was not expected. Formerly married women with children not only reported less conflict in the area of "Child Care", but

also did not differ significantly from never married women without children. This result is surprising as one would expect a woman co-habiting with a spouse or a woman without children to have less conflict in the area of "Child Care" than would a single parent. Perhaps married women experience more conflict in this area because, unlike the non-marrieds, they have the additional role of "spouse" which reduces the time they can devote to the care of their children. Furthermore, if married women are not getting the support they expect from their spouses, they may experience additional conflict. In fact, other research (e.g., Berkowitz & Perkins, 1984; Elman & Gilbert, 1984; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979b) has indicated that spousal support reduces the experience of conflict.

The Herman and Gyllstrom sample consisted of professional and nonprofessional women. Subjects were asked to rate how much conflict they experienced between the simultaneous demands of work and home maintenance and of work and family responsibilities. Married respondents experienced significantly more conflict between work and family roles and between work and home maintenance roles than did unmarried respondents. Cooke and Rosseau (1984) also hypothesized that marrieds would experience more work-family conflict than singles as the more family responsibilities an individual has the more likely he/she

is to experience conflict. Their sample was restricted to female teachers and conflict was measured through two closed-ended questions, one being, "how much do your job and free-time activities interfere with each other?" and one open-ended question. As predicted, marrieds reported more conflict than non-marrieds.

Barnett and Baruch (1985) found no relationship between marital status and conflict. Their study involved employed and nonemployed women and the employed women tended to be in high prestige occupations. Role conflict was operationalized as participants' responses to the question, "How often do you have to juggle different obligations that conflict with each other and give you a pulled-apart feeling?". The inconsistency of these results compared with the other studies may be due to an unreliable measure of conflict.

Presence of children. Both Greenglass (1984a) and Yogevev (1982) found that women who had children living at home spent significantly more time working in the home than did women who had no children or whose children had left home. Research on the relationship between the presence of children and conflict has generally supported the hypothesis that mothers experience more work-family conflict than women who are not mothers.

Holahan and Gilbert (1979a) compared levels of conflict for parent and non-parent professional women whose partners were also professionals. The groups were compared only on the non-parent conflict scores, i.e., Professional versus Self, Professional versus Spouse and Self versus Spouse, as these were applicable to both groups. Thus the Parent subscale was omitted from the analysis. One significant difference between the parent and non-parent groups emerged: the parent group reported higher conflict between the roles of Spouse and Self than did the non-parent group. Correlates of role conflict were also investigated and different patterns of correlation were found for these two groups. Low career commitment and aspiration level, and concerns about the number of hours worked were associated with higher conflict for the non-parents. On the other hand, high role conflict for parents was associated with low spouse support, traditional attitudes and high numbers of hours worked. Thus role conflict as experienced by childless professionals reflected a lack of career commitment. Role conflict as experienced by professionals with children reflected the greater demands placed upon individuals who have a career and children.

Two studies investigated the relationship between number of social roles (categorized as: not married, no

children; married no children; and married with children) and conflict (Cooke & Rosseau, 1984; Herman & Gyllstrom, 1977). They found an increasing linear trend between perceived conflict and number of roles, which suggested that the addition of the parenting role increases conflict over and above that associated with being married. Similarly,, in a national employment survey, Pleck et al. (1980) reported that parents experienced more conflict between work and family (i.e., the individual's job and family interfered with each other) than did individuals without children. Finally, Barnett and Baruch (1985) found more role conflict in mothers than in childless women when education, age, income and employment status were controlled. This relationship held for both employed and nonemployed women in their sample.

The ages of children. Younger children are more demanding of their parent's time than are older children and therefore mothers with younger children should experience more role conflict. The results of two studies have supported this hypothesis. Pleck et al.'s (1980) national survey data revealed that parents of younger children reported more interference between work and family than parents of older children. Similarly, Beutell and Greenhaus (1980) found that mothers of young children

experienced more conflict (as measured by number and intensity of conflicts) than mothers of older children.

Number of children. Researchers have also hypothesized that large families will be more likely to produce higher levels of conflict than small families because of increased family demands. Using a sample of female physicians, Cartwright (1978) found that number of children was negatively correlated with work-family conflict (how well the individual was able to combine the demands of work-life and family commitments). Similarly, Keith and Schafer's (1980) study of employed women in two-job families showed that women who had large families experienced more role strain than those who had small families. Role strain was measured by asking participants to indicate how frequently they were bothered by four situations involving interference between work and family. In addition, Nevill and Damico (1975a) found that the areas of conflict most affected by family size were "Child Care" and "Relations With Husband". The effect of family size was not linear, however. A stressful period coincided with the first child and another occurred at the point when a family was considered to be large (four or more children).

Ages of participants. Keith and Schafer (1980) suggested that younger women may experience more conflict

because newly acquired roles are more stress producing; older individuals are more likely to have greater work experience and to have spent more time in the two-job family. Although they found that age of the participant and number of children were correlated, the two variables had independent effects on the experience of conflict when the other variable was controlled. Women who were younger experienced more conflict than older individuals. Similarly, Cartwright (1978) found a negative correlation between age and work-family conflict in her sample of female physicians. Barnett and Baruch (1985), however, were not able to replicate this finding.

Educational attainment and income. Educational attainment and total family income were also included as background variables in Barnett and Baruch's (1985) study. Educational attainment was a significant predictor of work-family conflict, but total family income was not. Women with higher levels of education reported high levels of conflict compared with women with lower levels of conflict. Three alternative explanations for the education effect have been advanced: educated women may set more rigid standards for themselves as wives or mothers; greater demands may be placed upon them in the work place; and they may be more likely to report conflict than less educated women.

Attitudes toward women. Holahan and Gilbert (1979a) studied the relationship between attitudes toward the roles of women and work-family conflict. Previous research suggested that pro-feminist attitudes toward women's roles are related to professional success (Peplau, 1976) and therefore Holahan and Gilbert (1979a) hypothesized that more conservative attitudes toward women having careers would be related to higher conflict; especially in the areas of "Professional" versus "Spouse" and "Professional" versus "Parent". This hypothesis was not confirmed. Nonetheless, in two other studies (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1980, 1983) women with nontraditional attitudes toward women reported significantly more home-nonhome conflicts than women with traditional attitudes. However, attitudes toward women and the intensity of the conflict were not related. Perhaps nontraditional women experience more conflict because they are less willing than traditional women to accept being fully responsible for the family while they hold full-time employment outside the home. A fourth study examined a related concept; stereotypes of femininity and their relationship with conflict (Gordon & Hall, 1974). Female university graduates described a female's image of a feminine woman, their perceptions of a male's image of a feminine woman and their own self-image. Only one significant finding emerged: participants who

felt that males viewed women in general as impotent and emotional were more likely to experience conflict between home and nonhome roles.

Importance of the Work-Role. Other researchers have hypothesized that the importance a woman places on her career or job affects the experience of work-family conflict. Individuals for whom work and family are both salient would be particularly susceptible to conflict. Holahan and Gilbert (1979a) investigated the relationship between career aspiration and conflict and found only one statistically significant correlation for women. Career aspiration was positively related to conflict between the roles of "Professional and "Parent".

Beutell and Greenhaus (1982) investigated work-role salience in a sample of married college students. Husbands' or wives' work role salience level was not related to the number of conflicts nor the intensity of conflicts experienced by the women. However, husband and wife work-role salience did interact to predict intensity of conflict. Women with levels of work-role salience similar to those of their husbands experienced less intense conflict than women whose career orientation differed from their husbands'.

Elman and Gilbert's (1984) study involved a sample of professional women with preschool children and assessed the

effects of career commitment, career aspiration level and job involvement on work-family conflict. Work-family conflict was measured by asking subjects to respond on a 7-point scale to the question, "How much conflict do you typically experience between your parental and professional roles?". Conflict was negatively related to career commitment, but unrelated to job involvement and career aspirations.

Holahan and Gilbert (1979b) studied the relationship between the perception of work as a career or as a job and the experience of conflict, while holding educational attainment constant. They hypothesized that women who viewed their employment as a career would report greater conflict than women who viewed their employment as a job due to the greater involvement and personal investment required for career pursuit. The job group, however, reported significantly more conflict on two of the six conflict categories: "Self" versus "Parent" and "Spouse" versus "Self". When level of spouse support was controlled these differences were no longer apparent, suggesting that spouse support is an important intervening variable, and that if noncareer women received the same amount of support from their spouses as do career women, they would experience less conflict. In summary, there is some evidence of a relationship between the importance of the

work-role and work-family conflict. Nevertheless, in two studies the relationship was negative and in one it was positive.

Occupational status. Four studies have included a measure of occupational status in their investigations of conflict. Herman and Gyllstrom (1977) hypothesized that the presence of multiple roles rather than occupational status would result in different levels of conflict. They divided their sample into three occupational groups: (a) faculty; (b) professional academics and administrative personnel; and (c) nonacademic clerical staff and technical personnel. Work-family conflict was primarily a function of the number of social roles held, but statistically significant differences were found between occupational groups. Academic professionals and administrative personnel reported the most conflict and faculty the second highest, while nonacademics (clerical and technical) reported the least amount of conflict. The faculty and academic professionals reported higher involvement and motivation than the nonacademics, but this was not taken into account in the analysis of conflict. Thus the occupational differences in amount of conflict may have been due to differences in career commitment.

Hall and Gordon (1973), using a sample of married women, studied the effect of career choice (full-time

employment, part-time employment and full-time homemaker) on the experience of conflict. They examined pressures from home roles (e.g., wife, mother and housekeeper), nonhome roles (employment and volunteer work) and self development (e.g., personal desire for free time to develop interests or take courses). In general, the two groups of women employed outside the home reported significantly more conflict than the homemaker group. However, part-time workers reported significantly more home-related conflicts than did the other two groups. The researchers suggested that because part-time work is less demanding these workers may feel obligated to take on more home responsibilities than they are able to handle. Nevill and Damico (1978) found occupational status to be a significant variable in six of the eight conflict areas: Time Management, Household Management, Financial, Child Care, Guilt, and Expectations From Others. Professional women and women working inside the home tended to give similar responses and demonstrated the least amount of conflict. This is an interesting finding, given the assumption of other researchers (e.g., Greenglass, 1984b) that professional women experience greater work-family conflict than other groups because of the demanding nature of their work and their high standards for combining work and family roles. Professional women, however, may be able to buy services

and enlist the help of their partners. In contrast, women in non-professional occupations are paid less and may receive little help from their partners (Walshok, 1978). Finally Barnett and Baruch (1985) found no relationship between occupational prestige and conflict in their sample of employed women.

Personality Variables. Cartwright (1978) investigated the extent to which personality attributes predict women's ability to integrate work and family roles. Three scales on the California Personality Inventory (Tolerance, Achievement via Independence and Intellectual Efficiency) and nine of the twenty-four Adjective Check List scales were significantly correlated with conflict. In general, women who experienced low work-family conflict had higher levels of confidence, adjustment and also had a nonjudgmental perspective.

Greenglass (1984a) studied Type A and Type B personalities in a sample of female university professors. She hypothesized that Type A women would experience greater conflict than Type B women given the behaviours and perceptions associated with Type A women (i.e., a sense of time urgency and high standards for achievement). Compared with Type B women, Type A women experienced significantly more total conflict and also reported higher conflict

between their Spouse and Parent roles, Work and Parent roles, and Work and Spouse roles.

Summary. The research conducted to date suggests that variables such as marital status, number and ages of children, education, attitudes toward women's roles, personality, career commitment and occupational status influence the experience of work-family conflict. The majority of these studies, however, have focused on a very narrow range of variables, such as the effects of family size on conflict. Therefore, any conclusions about work-family conflict have to be drawn from a number of studies which have examined only one or two variables and which have used different measures of the same variable. Furthermore, many of the measures used in these studies lack evidence of reliability or validity. This study used a closed-ended multiple item measure of conflict with demonstrated reliability and validity and a multivariate framework which included most of the previously studied variables.

Relationship Between Conflict and Strain

The term 'stress' has a number of definitions in the biological, medical and psychological literature. According to Burke and Bradshaw (1981), "stress has been

used at times to signify: a stimulus, an external negative force impinging on an individual; a response, an individual's emotional and/or physiological response to internal or external events; an interaction between an individual and his [her] surroundings, a person-environment problem from one's internal/and or external environments" (p. 330). In order to avoid this confusion, this study will adhere to the suggestion of several researchers (e.g., Karasek, 1979; McLean, 1979; Caplan et al., 1980; Sharit & Salvendy, 1982) that the components of the stress process be identified so that 'stress' refers to the whole process, 'stressors' refer to causal events or conditions and 'stress reactions' or 'strain' refer to the responses. Thus stressful life events, which are defined as social events requiring change in ongoing life adjustment (Rahe, 1975), and work-family conflict will be considered to be the stressors in this study. Furthermore, physical/psychological symptoms of strain and job satisfaction will be considered measures of strain.

Researchers have attempted to identify the consequences of role conflict and have examined both physical and psychological strain. A number of studies indicate that high levels of job-related conflict in men are associated with higher levels of anxiety, tension, job dissatisfaction and reduced self esteem (e.g., Kahn et al.,

1964; Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983; House & Rizzo, 1972; Orpen, 1982). Furthermore, Jones and Butler (1980) reported that interference between work and family roles in a sample of Navy sailors was related to negative attitudes toward the job, the Navy in general and toward the Navy as a career.

Although it has been assumed that work-family conflict is stressful for women, only a few studies have investigated this assumption. Generally, the results are similar to those obtained for male subjects. Berkowitz and Perkins (1984) studied the relationship between work-family conflict and physical/psychological symptoms of strain (e.g., sleep problems and nervousness) in a sample of farm women and found a positive relationship between these two variables. Cooke and Rosseau (1984) studied the relationship between work-family conflict and three types of strain (job dissatisfaction, life dissatisfaction, and physical strain) using a sample of female teachers. Work-family conflict was positively related to two of the three measures of strain (job dissatisfaction and physical strain, but not life dissatisfaction). Similarly, Andrisano and Shapiro (1978) reported that conflicts between work and family were associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. Their measure of work-family conflict, however, assessed the degree of conflict between

the woman's attitude toward women working and her partner's attitude and thus is not a measure of role conflict. Nieva's (1979) preliminary investigation of Navy data indicated that family demands affect job satisfaction and intention to stay in the organization, but not the amount of effort exerted on the job. Finally, in a recent study of female managers, conflict between the roles of worker and spouse was negatively related to job satisfaction for Type B women, and led to greater use of tranquilizers in Type A's and greater irritation in Type B's (Greenglass, 1984b).

In summary, there is some evidence for a relationship between work-family conflict and strain. In this study, strain was measured in two ways - job satisfaction and physical/psychological symptoms. Life satisfaction was not included as it was not significantly related to stress in previous research.

Social Support

Social support, like stress, has been defined in a number of ways, but Cobb's (1976) definition is the most frequently cited (McCubbin et al., 1980). Cobb (1976) views social support as an exchange of information at the interpersonal level providing: (a) emotional support which leads the individual to believe he/she is cared for and

loved, (b) network support which leads the person to believe he/she is esteemed and valued, (c) instrumental support (i.e., guiding the individual to cope and/or adapt better) thus maximizing his/her participation and autonomy, (d) material support (i.e., providing the necessary goods and services), and (e) care for the person (i.e., a mother taking care of a child).

Social support has been viewed as an important variable in the stress process (House, 1981; La Rocco, House & French, 1980; Pearlin, Lieberman, Menaghan & Mullan, 1981). Cohen and Wills (1985), in their extensive review of stress and social support, suggest that, although correlational studies alone do not allow for causal interpretations, the collection of evidence from these studies, animal research, social psychological analogue experiments and prospective studies implicate social support as a causal contributor to well-being. There are two models describing the relationship between social support and its effects on strain: (1) the main effects model, and (2) the buffering or mediating model. Proponents of the main effects model assert that social support has a beneficial effect regardless of whether the individual is under stress. It is termed the main effects model because support for this model is demonstrated by a statistical main effect of support on strain with no

"Stress x Support" interaction (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Etzion, 1984). There is some evidence (e.g., La Rocco & Jones, 1978) for the main effects model, but the confirming findings are limited primarily to studies using a social support measure that taps a person's integration in a large social network.

The buffering or mediating model proposes that social support buffers or protects the individual from the impact of stressors (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Pearlin et al., 1981). It is demonstrated by an interaction between social support and a stressor, i.e., the combination of low levels of social support and high levels of stress are associated with high strain, whereas the combination of high levels of social support and stress result in less strain. Support may intervene in the stress process by weakening or preventing the appraisal of a potential stressor as stressful or harmful or by eliminating or preventing the emergence of indications of strain (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Furthermore, a buffering effect is more likely to be evident when the social support measure assesses the presence of support that is specifically relevant to the stressful situation under investigation (e.g., Billings & Moos, 1982; Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, & Pinneau, 1982; Etzion, 1984; La Rocco, House, & French, 1980).

The importance of social support as a moderator of the stress-strain relationship for women has not been extensively studied and mainly involves the investigation of support from a partner. In addition, only a few studies have investigated work-family conflict as one of their stress measures. Holahan and Gilbert (1979a) and Berkowitz and Perkins (1984) found that the presence of a supportive husband reduced work/family conflict. In addition, a number of studies suggest that husband supportiveness may mediate or reduce the stress experienced by women employed outside the home (Cobb, 1976; McCubbin et al., 1980; Burke & Weir, 1977, 1982). In fact, Berkowitz and Perkins (1984) found that a supportive husband was a better predictor physical and psychological symptoms of stress than was role conflict. This finding, however, needs to be replicated on a sample other than farm women. Other researchers (e.g., Greenglass, 1984a) suggest that the sharing of home duties between individuals in a marriage may reduce the experience of stress and strain. Berkowitz and Perkins (1984), however, found that spousal sharing of home task loads was not statistically related to the experience of role conflict or strain by farm women. Furthermore, research indicates that the amount of help given by males on average is minimal (Pleck, 1977; Stryker & Macke, 1978; Bryson, Bryson, & Johnson, 1982). In addition, Davidson and Cooper

(1981) in their comparison of male and female managers found that married women managers did not receive the required emotional and domestic support from their partners that male managers received from their wives.

Only one study has investigated the impact of support other than from the partner on the stressor/strain relationship in women (Greenglass, 1984b). Female managers who reported low perceived support from a boss, fellow workers and relatives (other than the husband) also reported greater anxiety, depression, job dissatisfaction and more psychosomatic symptoms.

Although there is some evidence that social support may mediate or reduce the effects of stress on strain for women, more research is needed. Specifically, it would be interesting to determine the importance of support from friends and co-workers as well as partner supportiveness. Moreover, the different dimensions of support (e.g., emotional, informational and instrumental support) may have differential impact on pressures within the home and work domains. This study will include two measures of support: support from a partner (both emotional and instrumental) and social provisions which measures support from others as well as a partner and includes a number of different types of support (e.g., instrumental, informational and emotional). Both measures may be considered assessments of

the individual's perception of the availability of interpersonal resources that are responsive to needs elicited by a stressful event. These are the characteristics which Cohen and Wills (1985) describe as being necessary to demonstrate a buffering effect.

Research On Coping

Although several antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict have been identified, the manner in which women attempt to deal with this conflict has received little attention (Gilbert, Holahan, & Manning, 1981). In its broadest sense coping refers to "any attempts to deal with stressful situations which a person feels he[she] must do something about, but which tax or exceed his[her] existing adaption response patterns" (Burke & Weir, 1980, p. 300). Although there are many types of coping behaviours and they differ in their effectiveness, they all have the same ultimate objective: to prevent, reduce or resolve the stressors and their consequences (Burke & Weir, 1980).

Hall (1972) was the first researcher to investigate the coping behaviours of women experiencing work-family conflict. His model of coping is based on Levinson's (1959) theory of the role process, (i.e., structurally imposed demands, personal role concepts and role

behaviours). Hall (1972) employed this model to logically derive three types of coping mechanisms: (a) Type I (structural role redefinition) - Behaviours that involve redefining the expectations held by others so that fewer demands are made upon the individual, e.g. changing the assumption that the woman has primary responsibility for home maintenance and hiring a cleaning person; (b) Type II (personal role redefinition) - Behaviours that change the individual's perceptions of his/her role demands rather than attempting to change the environment, such as establishing priorities, e.g., the needs of the child will always be met, but household neatness will not always be maintained; and (c) Type III (reactive)- Trying to meet all of the demands, e.g., attempting to improve one's organizational capabilities. Coping was measured through open-ended questions which required participants to identify the roles they were involved in, to indicate conflicts between these roles and to explain how they attempted to deal with these conflicts. The responses were then coded for the presence of the three types of coping.

Using a sample of college educated married women, Hall (1972) investigated the relationship between coping behaviours (Type I,II,III) and career satisfaction. Since the women in his study often used more than one type of coping mechanism, he was not able to form independent

samples for each of the three coping types. The sample was therefore divided on level of career satisfaction (high or low) and the frequency with which each coping strategy was employed (e.g., Type I coping and no Type I coping). Type I coping was positively related to career satisfaction, whereas Type III coping was negatively related to career satisfaction. No relationship between Type II coping and satisfaction was found. Hall (1972) also investigated whether there was an optimal number of coping strategies related to satisfaction. For this analysis he used only Type I and Type II strategies as Type III strategies were negatively related to satisfaction. The largest increase in satisfaction occurred between 0 and 1 strategy employed, suggesting that a critical factor in coping with role conflict is merely having a coping strategy regardless of the type of strategy.

A similar study did not confirm Hall's (1972) results. Harrison and Minor (1982) examined the relationship between role conflict, the three coping strategies identified by Hall (1972), and satisfaction among a sample of black single and married employed mothers. Both single and married women were very satisfied with their performance in the mother role, but the majority of single mothers used Type III coping whereas the majority of married mothers used Type II coping. Single mothers reported significantly

higher levels of satisfaction with their role as a worker than did married mothers, but there was no effect of strategy type on satisfaction with the work role.

Gilbert, Holahan, and Manning (1981) studied strategies for dealing with role conflict in a group of professional women. They used a modified version of Hall's (1972) model which included only two categories: role redefinition and role expansion. Role redefinition was defined as altering external structurally imposed demands or changing one's own behaviour or expectations in a particular situation, which is similar to Hall's (1972) Type I and Type II coping types. Role expansion, on the other hand, was defined as an attempt to meet all role demands both as worker and mother and is similar to Hall's (1972) Type III coping. Contrary to expectation, however, women who used role redefinition strategies did not differ from the women in the role expansion group in their self-reports of role conflict or coping effectiveness. One explanation for the unexpected high role conflict reported by the redefinition group is guilt about neglect of the maternal role. Unlike the role expansion group, the women in the role redefinition group often experienced guilt feelings about not being a good mother or not spending enough time with their children. Thus, the high role conflict experienced by the role redefinition group may

have resulted from this unresolved guilt. This suggests that role redefinition strategies may be no more effective than those of role expansion in dealing with conflict.

Based on Hall's (1972) research, Beutell and Greenhaus (1980) predicted that their subjects (married women college students) would view Type I and Type II coping strategies as more successful in resolving conflict than Type III coping strategies. They also investigated the relationship between coping strategy and coping success for different types of inter-role conflict such as home/nonhome conflict. Furthermore, they assessed the effects of coping with role conflict on a woman's overall life satisfaction. The results confirmed some of the researchers' hypotheses. Type I and Type II coping were both considered to be significantly more successful than Type III coping in dealing with home/nonhome conflicts. For self-related conflict (self role conflicts with either home or nonhome roles) Type II coping was seen as significantly more successful than Type III coping. However, when the conflict existed between two home roles or two nonhome roles there was no significant difference in the perceived effectiveness of the three coping strategies. Finally, coping success was significantly related to life satisfaction.

Beutell and Greenhaus (1982, 1983) conducted additional studies of conflict and coping behaviours. Their studies involved married mothers who were full-time college students. Coping was assessed according to Hall's (1972) method. They hypothesized that the more external a woman's locus of control the more likely she would be to use Type III coping. Externals tend to believe they have little control over their reinforcements and thus they should use more reactive strategies to deal with their conflict. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that the scope of a woman's role involvement (number of roles and importance of them) would be negatively related to the use of Type III coping. The more demands a woman has, the less likely that she will be able to meet all of them. The third hypothesis was that the negative relationship between coping and satisfaction with one's roles would be stronger for women whose husbands were dissatisfied with their own lives than for women married to satisfied men. Type III coping was not related to either locus of control or involvement in one's roles. However, as predicted, a woman's use of Type III coping was negatively related to her life satisfaction only when her husband was dissatisfied with his own life. A spouse who is dissatisfied with himself may influence his partner's

agreeing or disagreeing with items on the coping questionnaire. Getting family members to help with chores (Type I) and reducing standards within roles (Type II) were positively related to satisfaction with the handling of roles. Elimination of roles (Type I) and having no conscious strategy (Type III) were negatively related to satisfaction. Strategies such as hiring outside help to assist with chores (Type I) or establishing rules and priorities for dealing with roles (Type II) were not significantly related to satisfaction. Thus, Hall's (1972) model received only partial validation.

Gilbert and Holahan (1982) also developed a closed-ended measurement of coping behaviours for role conflict. However, unlike Gray (1983), they included items representing strategies in addition to those in Hall's model (Type I, II, III). Their nine-scale measure included coping strategies that may be classified in three general areas: (a) strategies that are directed at cognitive appraisal and understanding of the problem, (b) strategies that deal with the experience of stress, but are not directed to the problem area itself, and (c) strategies that involve an action to alter and change the source of stress. Their subjects were 'mature' female university students who were required to select a conflict area (either Student/Professional versus Self or Student/Professional versus Parent) and describe a

representative conflict in their chosen area. In addition, the respondents were asked to rate the intensity of their conflict, which coping strategies they used and to indicate how effective their coping was in dealing with this conflict. The researchers assessed whether their coping questionnaire would differentiate between high and low effective copers and also determined the internal reliability of their measure. Participants who rated their coping as effective reported less intense conflict and indicated different strategies from those who rated their coping as ineffective. For example, high effective copers used Perspective-Taking (e.g., "I put things into perspective and focus on the big picture") more often, but Depression (e.g., "I become depressed") and Calling Time Out (e.g., "I withdraw from the situation temporarily"), less often than low effective copers.

Elman and Gilbert (1984) investigated the ways professional women with children deal with conflicts between their professional and parental roles. They constructed a coping scale with five sub-scales: three problem-focused strategies (Structural Role Redefinition, Personal Role Redefinition and Increased Role Behaviour) and two emotion-focused strategies (Cognitive Restructuring and Tension Reduction). As predicted, high ratings of effective coping were related to lower levels of role conflict. However, contrary to their hypotheses, coping

between their professional and parental roles. They constructed a coping scale with five sub-scales: three problem-focused strategies (Structural Role Redefinition, Personal Role Redefinition and Increased Role Behaviour) and two emotion-focused strategies (Cognitive Restructuring and Tension Reduction). As predicted, high ratings of effective coping were related to lower levels of role conflict. However, contrary to their hypotheses, coping effectiveness was related to the use of emotion-focused strategies, but not to the use of problem-focused strategies. In addition, the level of role conflict was not significantly correlated with the use of the five strategies.

Although the research findings suggest that coping must be taken into account in the study of work-family conflict, future research using closed-ended measures of coping is required to determine which strategies are most effective.

The Present Study: Rationale and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to employ a multivariate framework for the study of work-family conflict experienced by employed mothers. This framework is based on the integration of variables found to be important in past research, including: (a) stressors or variables that

affect the amount of strain a woman experiences, i.e., work-family conflict and stressful life events, (b) strain or outcome variables (i.e., job dissatisfaction and physical and psychological symptoms), (c) background variables that may influence the impact of the stressors (i.e., demographics, career commitment, and attitudes toward the roles of men and women), and (d) moderator variables that may buffer the effects of stressor variables (i.e., social support and coping).

Previous research has indicated that employed women experience conflict between their work and family roles and that correlates of this conflict include variables such as number and ages of children, career commitment and marital status. This study was concerned primarily with the relationship between conflict and strain. Nonetheless, it was also of interest to re-examine the relationships between conflict and the correlates of conflict. To this end, most of the previously studied variables were assessed and included: (a) marital status, (b) mean age of children, (c) number of children, (d) age of participant, (e) level of education, (f) total family income, (g) sex-role egalitarianism, and (h) work-role salience. The presence of children was held constant and therefore all participants were required to have at least one child under the age of 18 living at home. Holding this variable constant increased the likelihood that the sample would

include a large proportion of women who were experiencing work-family conflict, albeit to varying degrees. Although previous studies have assessed Attitudes Toward Women as an indicator of how traditional/liberal their participants are with regard to women's roles, the Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale developed by Beere, King, Beere, & King (1984) was used in this study. This scale assesses attitudes toward the roles of men and women in the areas of marriage, employment and parenting, all of which are relevant to this present study. No personality measures were included, as little research has examined personality variables and treatment of this topic would require an extensive investigation. Thus, one aspect of the study involved replication of findings reported in the literature regarding correlates of role conflict other than personality.

Many studies in this area have employed samples of highly educated professional women, often in dual career marriages, and have virtually ignored women in traditional occupations such as nursing and clerical work. As a consequence, the generalizability of findings across groups varying in occupational status has not been adequately assessed. In addition, six of the samples appearing in Table 1 included women who were either attending, or employed by, universities and this also has limited the external validity of previous findings. This study

involved subjects not typically studied in the past, that is, traditional nonprofessional and professional groups (e.g., secretaries, nurses), as well as non-traditional professional occupations (e.g., university professors) and women in non-university settings (hospitals, private industry). Women in nontraditional nonprofessional occupations (e.g., labourers) were not studied because of the small number of women in this occupational group and the associated difficulty of obtaining a sample of sufficient size.

Researchers make the assumption that work-family conflict has negative implications for women, but only three studies have investigated the relationship between conflict and strain. One problem with these studies is that they did not control for stressful life events which obviously would influence levels of strain reported. By controlling for stressful life events this study assessed the direct effect of conflict on strain.

The effect of social support on the conflict-strain relationship has been examined, but most research has concentrated on the presence of spousal emotional support and little is known about other types of support (e.g., instrumental) or other sources of support. In addition, researchers have failed to examine the role of social support in terms of the two models employed currently in the occupational stress literature, that is, the main

effects and buffer models. Therefore, in this study both partner support and support from others were assessed. The latter scale also measured several types of support. Moreover, the main effect of social support and also its interaction with conflict were examined.

The use of coping strategies has been identified as another important moderator of the stress-strain relationship. Very few studies have measured coping in a systematic way, however. This study employed a closed-ended measure of coping which taps a variety of strategies from emotion-focused to problem-focused strategies.

The main research questions concerned the relationship between the stressors (stressful life events and work-family conflict) and strain, as well as the influence of coping and support on these variables and their relationships. In addition, three groups (traditional nonprofessional, traditional professional and nontraditional professional) were compared on their experience of the the stressors and strain and on amount of social support and their use of coping strategies. As few studies have investigated these differences, no predictions were made regarding occupational differences. The effectiveness of the various coping strategies in dealing with work-family conflict was also investigated. Finally, confirmation of the correlates of conflict, such as number

of children, and sex-role attitudes, shown by previous research was carried out.

The major hypotheses are summarized below:

1. High levels of work-family conflict will be associated with low levels of satisfaction and high levels of physical/psychological strain after accounting for the demographic variables, work and attitude variables and stressful life events. Furthermore, both support measures will be directly related to the two measures of strain: (a) high partner support will be associated with low levels of symptoms of strain and high levels of job satisfaction, and (b) high social provisions will be associated with low levels of symptoms of strain and low levels of job satisfaction. Finally, there will be an interaction between social support (both partner and social provisions) and work-family conflict in the prediction of symptoms of strain and job satisfaction.
2. High levels of effective coping and social support will be associated with high levels of job satisfaction and low levels of physical/psychological symptoms of strain after accounting for demographics and work and attitude variables.

3. Some coping strategies will be more strongly related to effectiveness of coping than others. In particular, Perspective-Taking and Recognition of Societal Influences will be positively related to coping effectiveness whereas Depression and Calling Time Out will be negatively related to effectiveness of coping.
4. There will be a negative relationship between effective coping and work-family conflict and between social support and work-family conflict.

METHOD

Subjects

The participants were women (aged 21-55 years; $M=36.08$, $SD=5.55$) with at least one dependent child under the age of 18 years. They were employed full-time in 20 different organizations (private industry, government, schools and hospitals) in the provinces of Ontario and Alberta. Questionnaires were distributed to 242 women, and 203 of them replied, resulting in a return rate of 83.8%. In addition, 10 women who were approached to participate in the study refused to do so.

Questionnaire Measures

1. Background Questionnaire.

Demographic personal information was obtained which included participants' age, province of residence, marital status, number of children, age of each child, level of education, occupation, length of time at present job, number of jobs or positions held during the previous two years and net average family income (see Appendix A).

2. Work Role Salience - (Greenhaus, 1971).

Work role salience is defined as the importance of work and career in an individual's life. The short form

consists of six Likert-type items (e.g., "I enjoy thinking and making plans about my future career") on a 5-point scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The internal consistency (alpha) of this scale is .83 for women.

3. Attitudes Toward Feminism - (FEM; Smith, Ferree & Miller, 1975).

Beliefs about central tenets of feminism were measured by a 20-item, Likert-type scale, with response alternatives ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The inter-item reliability is .91. In addition, Smith, Ferree and Miller (1975) provided some evidence of validity; scores on the scale correlated positively with activism in and identification with the women's movement.

4. Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale - (SRES; Beere et al., 1984).

Sex-role egalitarianism refers to "the tendency to regard the individual in a given situation independently of the sex of the individual" (King & King, 1983, p. 435). The measure contains 57 statements about the roles of men and women in three domains (parental, marital and employment). Each statement is accompanied by a Likert-type rating scale that ranges from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The scale is unidimensional and

the three domains do not form orthogonal subscales, so that it is possible to obtain a total score by summing scores across all three domains. The average internal consistency for the three 19-item domains is .87 and the coefficient of stability (over a 3-to-4-week interval) is an average of .85 over the three domains. In addition, the scale has a low correlation (.17) with the Edward's Social Desirability Scale (1957) and women and those who are considered to be more 'liberal' (e.g., psychology students) scored lower than men or more conservative individuals (e.g., police officers).

5. Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale - (M-C SD; Crowne & Marlowe, 1964).

The M-C SD scale consists of 33 items depicting culturally approved behaviour which is virtually untrue of all individuals (e.g., "I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble"). Subjects are required to indicate whether each statement is "true" or "false" of themselves personally. The internal consistency coefficient for this scale is .88 (Kuder Richardson) and the test-retest correlation over a one-month period is .88.

6. Role Conflict - (Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a).

This questionnaire is a six-subscale measure

specifically designed for women which taps the amount of conflict a woman experiences due to incompatible expectations in four major life roles: work, self, parent and partner. It consists of 21 items accompanied by a Likert-type scale ranging from "causes no internal conflict" to "causes high internal conflict". Subscale reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) are as follows: (1) work vs. partner ($r=.81$), (2) work vs. parent ($r=.81$), (3) work vs. self ($r=.86$), (4) partner vs. parent ($r=.82$), (5) partner vs. self ($r=.75$), and (6) parent vs. self ($r=.88$).

7. Recent Life Changes Questionnaire - (RLCQ; Rahe, 1975).

The RLCQ is a revised version of the Schedule of Recent Experience Scale or SRE scale (1957). It includes 55 recent life change questions and subjects are asked to indicate whether they have experienced these events during the last two years and to rate the amount of adjustment required for each life event (using a number between 1 and 100). This questionnaire was shortened in order to maintain a reasonable time limit for completion of the entire questionnaire package. Therefore, only the 16 most stressful life events were included. Rahe (1975) reports test-retest reliability estimates as being between .87 and .90. In validity studies spouses' ratings have correlated

between .50 and .75 for ratings of events occurring one to two years prior to testing.

8. Social Provisions - (Russell & Curtona, 1984).

This scale measures the extent to which individuals have relationships that provide the following: attachment, social integration, reassurance of worth, reliable alliance, guidance and opportunity for nurturance. Each of the six subscales consist of four items: two are worded positively and the remaining two are worded in a negative direction. The statements are accompanied by a four-option Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". In a sample of teachers, scores on the Social Provisions subscales were associated with scores on corresponding subscales of a social support measure developed by House (1981). The internal consistency coefficients for each subscale were all above .60 and the test-retest reliabilities (over a 4 to 6 month period) ranged from .37 to .66. The low test-retest correlations do not necessarily mean that the scale is unreliable; rather, social support may not be constant over time (Russell & Curtona, 1984).

9. Partner Support - (Berkowitz & Perkins, 1984).

This measure assesses the woman's satisfaction with

the amount and kind of help provided by her partner and includes measures of perceived partner support in both the work and home domains. The 4-item measure was adapted from Burke and Weir's (1977) questionnaire and taps: (a) satisfaction with the way her partner helps her cope with tensions, (b) satisfaction with the amount of household help contributed by the partner, (c) satisfaction with the amount of support and understanding provided by the partner regarding the woman's work duties, and (d) satisfaction with the time the partner contributes to home and family responsibilities.

10. Coping Questionnaire - (Gilbert & Holahan, 1982).

This measure is based on the research of other coping theorists (e.g., Hall, 1972; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978; Lazarus, 1978) and includes nine scales to assess coping strategies. The 34 items represent strategies falling within three general areas: (a) strategies that focus on a cognitive appraisal and understanding of the problem, (b) strategies that serve to manage the stress and are not directed to the problem itself, and (c) strategies that require an action that would alter or change the source of stress. The questionnaire contains a paragraph which explains the concept of interrole conflict. To ensure that subjects understand this concept, they are asked to select

a role area that is relevant to them and to describe a representative conflict situation. In the Gilbert and Holahan (1982) study, subjects selected a conflict between the roles of Student/Professional and Self or between Student/Professional and Parent. The subjects then rate each strategy on a 5-point scale indicating how characteristic it is for them to use the strategy in dealing with their role conflict. Finally, they are asked to indicate on a 7-point scale, ranging from "not at all" to "completely", how effective their strategies were in resolving conflict in the chosen area. The nine scales and their internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) are as follows: (1) perspective-taking, four items, ($\underline{r}=.76$); (2) problem-solving, four items, ($\underline{r}=.63$); (3) recognition of societal influence, four items, ($\underline{r}=.72$); (4) expression of feelings, four items, ($\underline{r}=.75$); (5) ask others to change, four items, ($\underline{r}=.72$); (6) lessen self-demands, four items, ($\underline{r}=.63$); (7) calling time out, three items, ($\underline{r}=.59$); (8) depression, four items, ($\underline{r}=.69$); and (9) short-term tension reduction, three items, ($\underline{r}=.72$).

In this study, subjects followed the same procedure used by Gilbert and Holahan (1982) except that they were asked to describe a situation involving conflict between the Worker and Parent roles. Thus, scores on the coping

questionnaire pertain to strategy use in this one type of conflict situation.

11. Worker Opinion Survey - (WOS; Cross, 1973).

The WOS consists of six subscales that tap the following six facets of job satisfaction: organization as a whole, pay, promotional opportunities, job itself, immediate supervisor and co-workers. Each subscale consists of eight items (four are worded in a positive direction and four are worded in a negative direction), and each item is accompanied by a response option consisting of "No", "Not Sure", or "Yes". The estimated internal reliability coefficients (Kuder-Richardson) for the six subscales range from .71 to .86.

12. Psychological/Physical Symptoms of Strain - (Berkowitz & Perkins, 1984).

The eight items on this scale were selected from Langer's (1962) 22-item screening scale and were the eight with the strongest relationship to strain. The items measure perceived physiological and psychological symptoms of stress, such as "trouble getting to sleep and staying asleep" and "nervousness". Subjects respond to each item using a Likert-type scale with three response alternatives ("often", "sometimes", "never"). The internal consistency (alpha) is .80.

Procedure

Potential participants were located through contacts in a number of women's groups, private industry, government organizations, hospitals and schools. Whenever possible, the investigator or liason individual personally contacted the participants, since this approach has been found to improve the response rate to surveys (Caplovitz, 1983). Otherwise, participants were sent an introductory letter explaining the nature and purpose of the study (see Appendix A for a copy of the Introductory Letter and Consent Form). They were asked to indicate if they met the requirements (at least one dependent child under the age of 18 years and employment of 30 hours or over per week) and whether they were willing to participate. If they met the requirements and were interested in participating, they were asked to write their name and telephone number on the attached form and were subsequently contacted by the researcher to arrange for receipt of the questionnaire package.

In order to avoid undue emphasis on the aspect of conflicts between work and family, all participants in the study were told that the study was an investigation of employed women's work and family roles, and that participation involved filling out a number of self-report questionnaires (requiring approximately 45 minutes)

regarding these roles. In addition, the women were advised that participation was completely voluntary and that all responses to the questionnaires would be confidential. In order to ensure this confidentiality, subjects were asked to sign the consent form and place it in an envelope to be sealed and kept separate from the questionnaire package. The completed questionnaires were either sent through the mail or were picked up by the investigator.

All participants were given a questionnaire package containing the 12 self-report measures. In each package the questionnaires were ordered randomly. Subjects were informed that they would receive a summary of the final results through the mail as soon as they were available.

Participants were classified into one of the following occupational groups: (1) traditional nonprofessional ($n=57$), (2) traditional professional ($n=57$), and (3) nontraditional professional ($n=57$). The job types included within each occupational group and the number of cases representing each job type are presented in Table 2. A traditional occupation was defined as an occupation whose female to male ratio is greater than 2:1, such as nursing or secretarial work. Similarly, a nontraditional occupation was defined as any occupation whose male to female ratio is greater than 2:1, such as management or university academics. Data from Statistics Canada (1981,

TABLE 2
 Number of Cases Representing Each Job Type

<u>Occupational Group</u>	<u>Job Type</u>	<u>Frequency</u>
Traditional Non-professional	Secretary	16
	Clerical	20
	Receptionist	21
Traditional Professional	Teacher	17
	Registered Nurse	19
	Social Worker	15
	Librarian	6
Non-traditional Professional	Manager	19
	Physician	6
	Scientist	9
	Professor	23

1984) were used to determine the male/female composition of the various occupations. The term "professional" has various definitions, but most theorists agree that long periods of training, an explicit set of guidelines, a shared body of knowledge and structured associations that represent the occupational group are factors that differentiate professions from other occupations (Strauss, 1975; Greenwood, 1972; Ward & Silverstone, 1980). Thus occupations such as nursing, social work management and medicine were considered to be professions.

The returned questionnaires included 203 completed questionnaires and 12 questionnaires that were incomplete (5 from the traditional nonprofessional group, 4 from the traditional professional group and 3 from the nontraditional professional group), and these 12 were subsequently dropped from the sample. In order to equalize the size of the occupational groups, the data from the twenty respondents in the traditional nonprofessional and traditional professional groups were eliminated prior to data analysis. The eliminated cases were selected on a random basis, leaving a final sample of 171 cases.

RESULTS

Data Reduction and Transformations

Three of the measures, work-family conflict, social provisions and job satisfaction, each consisted of six subscales. In each case a total score was obtained and used in all primary analyses. There were two reasons for this decision: (a) the need to maintain a sufficiently high ratio of subjects to variables so that the regression results would be relatively stable, and (b) the global constructs were the focus of interest. Before calculating the total scores, the internal consistency of the subscales of all three scales were examined. Coefficient alpha was .91 for the Social Provisions Scale and .75 for the measure of job satisfaction. Although the measure of work-family conflict has six subscales, only three apply to people with partners as well as people without partners (i.e., Work versus Self, Work versus Parent, Self versus Parent). For these three subscales coefficient alpha was .76. In the analyses that included those individuals with partners only, all six subscales were combined and alpha was .81. Thus, the use of composite scores was justified by the high internal consistency of all three scales.

Inspection of the univariate distributions suggested that several categorical variables required recoding. Recoding of the categorical variables reduced the number of categories and permitted more meaningful comparisons between levels of the variable. Marital status originally consisted of six categories (single, married, separated, divorced, common-law and widowed), but due to the small number of participants in some of the categories, the number was reduced to two (living with a partner and not living with a partner). In addition, this variable was renamed, presence of partner, to reflect its new meaning. Similarly, total family income was reduced from six categories (under 10,000, 10,000-19,999, 20,000-29,999, 30,000-39,999, 40,000-49,999 and over 50,000) to three categories (less than 29,000, 30,000 to 49,999 and over 50,000). Finally, education originally consisted of six categories (less than grade 12, high school, community college, university degree and graduate degree), but was regrouped according to three categories (no university degree, undergraduate university degree and university graduate degree).

Some changes were also made to three of the continuous variables. The strain measure of physical/psychological symptoms is scaled so that a high score represents low strain and a low score represents high strain. To increase

the ease of interpretation of correlations involving this variable, scores were "reflexed" so that high scores represented high strain and low scores represented low strain. In addition, length at present job and stressful life events were positively skewed (skewness = 1.25 and 2.05, respectively). Therefore, a square root transformation was employed (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 1983). As a consequence, both distributions more closely approximated the normal distribution (skewness for length at present job = .33 and skewness for stressful life events = .23).

Attitudes Toward Feminism was included in the study primarily to validate the relatively new measure, Sex-Role Egalitarianism. Like Attitudes Toward Feminism, Sex-Role Egalitarianism was developed to distinguish between individuals who are relatively liberal and those who are relatively conservative in their attitudes toward women's roles. The Sex-Role Egalitarianism scale, however, assesses attitudes in three role domains that are particularly relevant to this study, that is, parental, marital and employment roles. At a conceptual level, then, the Sex Role Egalitarianism scale assesses attitudes likely to influence women's experiences of work and family. Nonetheless, the scale has not been used extensively and has not been as adequately validated. The two measures

were in fact highly correlated, $r = .77$, $p < .01$, and due to this large amount of overlap between the two variables, only one of the variables was included in any given analysis. The results reported below are those involving Sex-Role Egalitarianism. Parallel analyses were conducted with Attitudes Toward Feminism included, but in every case the same pattern of results emerged.

The research participants resided in Alberta and Ontario, but the variable, province of residence, was not included in any analyses because there were no significant relationships between province and the dependent variables (see Appendix B).

Occupational Differences on the Background Variables

The occupational groups were compared on the demographic, attitude and work-related variables. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted on the continuous variables (age, number of children, average age of children, length at present job, work-role salience and sex-role egalitarianism) with occupational group as the independent variable (see Table 3). There was a significant difference between the three groups on the background variables, multivariate $F, (12, 326) = 3.97$, $p < .01$. Examination of the univariate F 's

TABLE 3

Multivariate Analysis of Variance on Demographics,
Attitudes and Work-Related Variables For Occupational Group

Effect	Dependent Variable	df	Multivariate F	Univariate F
Occupational Group	All	12,326	3.97*	
	Age	2,168		4.62*
	Number of children	2,168		1.93
	Average age of children	2,168		0.29
	Length at present job	2,168		2.85
	Work-role salience	2,168		7.20*
	Sex-role egalitarianism	2,168		6.37*

* $p < .01$

revealed significant differences on age, $F(2,168)=4.68$, $p<.01$, work-role salience, $F(2,168)=7.20$, $p<.01$, and sex-role egalitarianism, $F(2,168)=6.37$, $p<.01$. Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) tests were then conducted on the group means (see Table 4). In every case, the traditional nonprofessionals differed from one or both of the professional groups and there were no significant differences between the two professional groups. The traditional nonprofessionals were significantly younger and lower on work-role salience than the nontraditional professional group, but did not differ from the traditional professionals. The traditional nonprofessionals were also significantly less egalitarian than either the traditional professionals or the nontraditional professionals. Although occupational differences on these variables emerged, inspection of the means reveals that the differences are not large.

Table 5 presents the breakdown of the frequencies for the three occupational groups on the categorical demographic variables (province of residence, presence of a partner, family income and education). Chi-square analyses revealed significant associations between occupational group and family income, $\chi^2(4, N=171)=43.02$, $p<.01$, and education, $\chi^2(4, N=171)=130.99$, $p<.01$. Examination of the frequency table for income indicates that almost half of

TABLE 4

Tukey's HSD Tests for Occupational Differences on the
Continuous Background Variables

	<u>n</u>	Traditional Non-professional		Traditional Professional		Non-Traditional Professional	
		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Age	57	34.42a	5.73	36.70ab	4.91	37.39b	5.68
Work-role Salience	57	19.33a	3.01	20.56ab	3.41	21.63b	3.28
Sex-role egalitarianism	57	232.51a	23.58	244.60bc	23.73	247.82c	25.12

Note: Within a row, means sharing the same subscript fail to differ significantly at $p < .05$.

TABLE 5

Frequencies for Categorical Demographic Variables
By Occupational Group

<u>Variable</u>	Occupational Group		
	<u>Traditional Nonprofessional</u>	<u>Traditional Professional</u>	<u>Nontraditional Professional</u>
Province:			
Alberta	33	32	30
Ontario	24	25	27
Presence of partner:			
With partner	49	49	49
Without partner	8	8	8
Family Income*:			
Less than 30,000	18	5	3
30,000 to 49,000	27	29	11
Over 50,000	12	23	43
Education*:			
No university degree	47	4	0
Undergraduate degree	10	41	27
Graduate degree	0	12	30

* chi-square significant ($p < .01$)

the traditional nonprofessionals were in the middle category (30,000-49,999) with the remainder falling above or below that level. Most of the traditional professionals (91%) were either in the middle (30,000-49,000) or the highest (over 50,000) categories, and 75% of the nontraditional professionals were in the highest category (over 50,000). The majority of the traditional nonprofessionals (82%) did not have university degrees, whereas among the traditional professionals 72% had undergraduate university degrees and 21% had graduate degrees. All of the nontraditional professionals had either an undergraduate or graduate university degree.

Correlates of Work-Family Conflict

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to assess the relationship between work-family conflict (the dependent variable) and the demographics, work-related, attitude, coping and social support variables. Five such analyses were carried out: (a) on the total sample, (b) on the occupational groups separately, and (c) on the subsample of participants living with a partner. The occupational groups were examined separately as they represented subsamples within the overall sample and, thus, the pattern of relationships

might vary between groups. Participants with partners were also studied separately so that the effect of partner support on conflict could be assessed.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis allows the researcher to enter independent variables into the equation in a predetermined order. The variables may be entered individually or in sets (i.e., blocks). Such a procedure is useful when it is necessary to assess the relationships between the dependent variable and a set of predictors while controlling for another set of predictors. This is desirable whenever the predictors are intercorrelated, which is the most usual case in nonexperimental research. By controlling or partialling out other predictors, the researcher can determine the unique contribution of a predictor in explaining variability in the dependent variable. Which variables are controlled is determined by the order of entry. That is, the relationship between a variable entered on Step 2 and the dependent variable is tested while controlling for any variable(s) entered on the first step. It is extremely important that the researcher develop an a priori ordering of the predictors such that it is logical to examine the effects of variables entered on Step 2 while controlling for the effects of variables entered on Step 1. This ordering is frequently based on the stability of the variables; stable variables are

entered first and less stable variables later. Another consideration is the direction of the relationships. For example, it is hypothesized that both age and work-role salience are related to amount of role conflict experienced. It is also possible that age and work-role salience are correlated. In a hierarchical multiple regression analysis age would be entered before work-role salience because age might affect work-role salience, and therefore it would be appropriate to examine the relationship between work-role salience and conflict while controlling for age. It does not make sense, however, to control for work-role salience while testing the relationship between age and conflict as age is not likely to be affected by work-role salience.

Using this logic, it was decided to enter the predictors in three blocks: (a) demographic variables, (b) attitude and work-related variables, and (c) coping and social support variables. The demographic variables were the most stable of the predictors and the least likely to be influenced by variables in the other two blocks. They included age, presence of a partner, number of children, average age of children and education. The attitude and work-related variables were entered next as they are relatively stable characteristics and unlikely to be influenced by the variables in the third block. They

included occupation, family income, length of time at present job, work-role salience, and sex-role egalitarianism. Social provisions and effectiveness of strategies used to cope with parent-work conflict were added last as they are least stable and most likely to vary across situations.

The data were obtained solely through self-report measures and therefore there was concern that subjects would respond in a socially desirable fashion rather than responding honestly. All analyses entered the scores on Social Desirability first so that any such bias would be removed before the effects of the predictors were assessed.

One further advantage of the hierarchical regression approach is that it permits control of Type I error. Each block is tested at a fixed level and then the contribution of each variable within the block is tested only if the block is statistically significant. This minimizes the number of tests conducted and therefore the experiment-wise Type I error rate.

Correlates of conflict for the total sample. Social desirability accounted for 3% of the variance in work-family conflict, $F(1,169) = 5.00, p < .05$ (see Table 6) and the complete set of predictor variables accounted for 23% of the variance, $F(13,156) = 3.78, p < .01$. As a block

TABLE 6

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Work-Family
Conflict for the Total Sample

Criterion: Work-Family Conflict

<u>Predictor Blocks</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>d.f</u>
1. Social desirability	.03	5.00*	1,169
2. Demographics	.06	2.20	5,164
3. Work and attitude variables	.09	3.30**	6,158
4. Coping and support	.08	8.99**	2,156
Total for Steps 2-4	.23	3.78**	13,156

<u>Individual Predictors</u>	<u>r with work</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>Family conflict</u>	<u>coefficent(B)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	-.17*	-.17	-2.24*

<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.04	-.01	-0.13
Presence of partner	-.06	-.05	-0.66
Number of children	.05	.04	0.52
Average age of children	-.04	-.03	-0.25
Education	.26*	.24	2.94**

<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Occupation 1	-	.29	2.16*
Occupation 2	-	.08	0.85
Family income	.22*	.19	1.95*
Length at job	.01	-.05	-0.66
Work-role salience	.16	.08	1.10
Sex-role egalitarianism	.23*	.18	2.31*

<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
Effective coping	-.30**	-.29	-3.81**
Social provisions	-.00	-.07	-0.88

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

the demographics did not contribute significantly to the variance accounted for, the second block, work and attitude variables, accounted for 9% of the variance in conflict, $F(6,158) = 3.30$, $p < .01$. Within this block, family income, $\beta = .19$, $t(158) = 1.95$, $p < .05$, and sex-role egalitarianism, $\beta = .18$, $t(158) = 2.31$, $p < .05$, reached statistical significance. Higher levels of family income and sex-role egalitarianism were associated with higher levels of work-family conflict. There was also a statistically significant difference between the three occupational groups when all other predictors in blocks 1, 2 and 3 were held constant, $R^2 = .04$, $F(2,158) = 3.81$, $p < .05$. Scheffe post hoc comparisons were conducted on the group means adjusted for social desirability, demographics, and work and attitude variables (see Table 7). All three groups differed significantly: the nontraditionals were significantly lower on work-family conflict than either the traditional professionals or the traditional nonprofessionals and the traditional professionals were significantly lower on conflict than the traditional nonprofessionals. The final block, coping and support, added 8% to the variance accounted for, $F(2,156) = 8.99$, $p < .01$. Effectiveness of coping strategies was primarily responsible for this effect, $\beta = -.29$, $t(156) = -3.81$, $p < .01$. The more effective a woman's coping strategies, the

TABLE 7

Adjusted and Unadjusted Means on Work-Family Conflict for the
Three Occupational Groups

Traditional Non-professional			Traditional Professional			Non-traditional Professional			
Unad- justed	Adju- sted		Unad- justed	Adju- sted		Unad- justed	Adju- sted		
<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	
57	25.49	11.06	30.74a	29.11	8.40	28.28b	27.63	8.57	23.21c

Adjusted and Unadjusted Means, Controlling for
Effectiveness of Coping Strategies and Social Support

57	25.49	11.06	29.56a	29.11	8.40	28.40a	27.63	8.57	24.27b
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Note: Within a row, means sharing the same subscript fail to differ at
 $p < .05$

less conflict she reported. At this point, the occupational groups were again compared controlling, for effectiveness of coping strategies and social support as well as for the variables in the first three blocks (see Table 7). The nontraditional professionals were still significantly lower on work-family conflict than the traditional professionals and the traditional nonprofessionals, but there was no difference between these latter two groups.

Correlates of conflict for each occupational group.

The only difference between these analyses and the one involving the entire sample is that occupation was no longer a predictor. Within the traditional nonprofessional group social desirability accounted for 13% of the variance, $F(1,55) = 8.17$, $p < .01$, and the predictor variables accounted for 37% of the variance in work-family conflict, $F(11,44) = 2.95$, $p < .01$ (see Table 8). As a block, the demographics were not statistically significant. The third block, work and attitude variables, accounted for 18% of the variance in conflict, $F(4,46) = 3.50$, $p < .05$, but sex-role egalitarianism was the only variable to make a statistically significant unique contribution, $\beta = .43$, $t(46) = 3.64$, $p < .01$. Higher levels of sex-role egalitarianism were related to higher levels of conflict.

TABLE 8

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Work-Family
Conflict for the Traditional Non-professional Group

Criterion: Work-Family Conflict

<u>Predictor Blocks</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>d.f</u>
1. Social Desirability	.13	8.17**	1,55
2. Demographics	.10	1.32	5,50
3. Work and attitude variables	.18	3.50*	4,46
4. Coping and support	.09	3.85*	2,44
Total for Steps 2-4	.37	2.95**	11,44

<u>Individual Predictors</u>	<u>r with work</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>Family conflict</u>	<u>coefficient(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	-.36**	-.36	-2.86**

<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	-.09	-.09	-0.54
Presence of partner	-.14	-.28	-0.91
Number of children	.08	.02	0.17
Average age of children	-.04	.03	0.17
Education	.17	.17	1.24

<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.12	.01	0.11
Length of job	-.02	.00	0.06
Work-role salience	-.05	0.05	-0.40
Sex-role egalitarianism	.41**	.43	3.64**

<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
Effective coping	-.44**	-.31	-2.76**
Social provisions	-.02	.08	0.66

* p < .05

** p < .01

The final block accounted for 9% of the variance, $F(2,44) = 3.85$, $p < .05$, and effectiveness of coping strategies was the only significant predictor, $\beta = -.31$, $t(44) = -2.76$, $p < .01$. Higher effectiveness was related to lower levels of conflict.

The results for the traditional professional group are presented in Table 9. Social desirability was not significantly related to work-family conflict, but altogether the remaining predictors explained 38% of the variance, $F(11,44) = 2.57$, $p < .01$. Again, demographics as a block was not statistically significant. Work and attitude variables as the third block accounted for 18% of the variance, $F(4,46) = 3.32$, $p < .05$. Among these, work-role salience was the only predictor to emerge as significant, $\beta = .42$, $t(46) = 3.11$, $p < .01$. Individuals high on work-role salience reported high levels of work-family conflict. Although the β coefficient for family income was not significant, conflict was positively correlated with family income, $r = .36$, $p < .01$. This pattern of results may be due to redundancy between family income and education; they were significantly correlated, $r = .30$, $p < .05$. Finally, the coping and support block was not significant.

Table 10 presents the results for the nontraditional professional group. Social desirability was not significantly correlated with conflict, but the remaining

TABLE 9

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Work-Family
Conflict for the Traditional Professional Group

Criterion: Work-Family Conflict

<u>Predictor Blocks</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>d.f</u>
1. Social Desirability	.04	2.07	1,55
2. Demographics	.17	2.20	5,50
3. Work and attitude variables	.18	3.32*	4,46
4. Coping and support	.03	0.98	2,44
Total for Steps 2-4	.38	2.57**	11,44

<u>Individual Predictors</u>	<u>r with work</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>Family conflict</u>	<u>coefficent(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	-.19	-.19	-1.44

<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.09	.26	1.39
Presence of partner	-.10	-.17	-0.71
Number of children	-.06	-.05	-0.43
Average age of children	-.06	-.20	-0.01
Education	.34**	.34	2.70

<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.36**	.21	1.46
Length of job	.06	-.07	-0.59
Work-role salience	.42*	.37	3.11**
Sex-role egalitarianism	.08	.07	0.59

<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
Effective coping	-.12	-.02	-0.14
Social provisions	-.07	-.17	-1.24

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE 10

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Work-Family
Conflict for the Non-traditional Professional Group

Criterion: Work-Family Conflict

<u>Predictor Blocks</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>d.f</u>
1. Social Desirability	.02	0.84	1,55
2. Demographics	.10	1.22	5,50
3. Work and attitude variables	.06	0.85	4,46
4. Coping and support	.24	8.96**	2,44
Total for Steps 2-4	.40	2.76**	11,44

<u>Individual Predictors</u>	<u>r with work</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>family conflict</u>	<u>coefficient(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	.06	.12	0.92

<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.06	-.02	-0.08
Presence of partner	.07	.12	0.82
Number of children	.09	.06	0.45
Average age of children	-.03	-.12	-0.63
Education	.29**	.32	2.10

<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.14	.30	1.54
Length of job	-.13	-.13	-0.87
Work-role salience	.10	.01	0.06
Sex-role egalitarianism	.10	.05	0.31

<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
Effective coping	-.44**	-.54	-4.23**
Social provisions	-.03	.12	0.84

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

predictors accounted for 40% of the variance, $F(11,44) = 2.76$, $p < .01$. Blocks 2 (demographics) and 3 (work and attitude variables) were not significant. Coping and support, the final block, accounted for 24% of the variance in conflict, $F(2,44) = 8.96$, $p < .01$. The significant predictor in this block was effectiveness of coping, $t(44) \beta = -4.23$, $p < .01$. High effectiveness of coping strategies was associated with low conflict.

Summary. Comparisons between the total sample and the three occupational groups reveal similarities and differences. First, the total proportion of variance accounted for within the three occupational groups was higher than that accounted for within the total sample. In addition, in both the total sample and the traditional nonprofessional group social desirability and sex-role egalitarianism were related to conflict. In the total sample only family income emerged as a significant predictor. Finally, work-role salience emerged as statistically significant only in the traditional professional group, but effective coping was significantly related to conflict in three of the analyses; it failed to reach statistical significance within the traditional professional group.

Correlates of conflict for subjects with partners.

This analysis differed from that conducted on the total sample in three ways: partner support was included in the final block, presence of partner was omitted from the block of demographic variables, and the work-family conflict measure consisted of scores on all six subscales (Work vs. Parent, Work vs. Partner, Work vs. Self, Parent vs. Partner, Parent vs. Self and Partner vs. Self). Social desirability was not significantly related to conflict, but the remaining 13 variables accounted for 37% of the variance in conflict, $F(13,132) = 5.48$, $p < .01$ (see Table 11). The second block (demographics) failed to reach statistical significance, but the third block, work and attitude variables, added 14% to the variance accounted for, $F(6,135) = 4.00$, $p < .05$. The significant predictor in this block was sex-role egalitarianism, $\beta = .26$, $t(135) = 3.06$, $p < .01$. In addition, there was a significant difference between the three occupational groups when all other variables in blocks 1, 2 and 3 were held constant, $R^2 \beta = .08$, $F(2,135) = 6.30$, $p < .01$. Scheffe's test was conducted on the adjusted means and, as in the analysis of the total sample, the nontraditional professional sample was lower on work-family conflict than either the traditional nonprofessionals or the traditional professionals (see Table 12). There was no significant

TABLE 11

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Conflict For
The Subject Living With Partners

Criterion: Work-Family Conflict

<u>Predictor Blocks</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>d.f</u>
1. Social Desirability	.02	0.13	1,145
2. Demographics	.04	1.42	4,141
3. Work and attitude variables	.14	4.00**	6,135
4. Coping and support	.19	13.54**	3,132
Total for Steps 2-4	.37	5.48**	13,132

<u>Individual Predictors</u>	<u>r with work</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	<u>t</u>
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>family conflict</u>	<u>coefficient(β)</u>	
Social desirability	-.13	-.13	-1.54

<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.05	-.04	-0.33
Number of children	.05	.04	0.48
Average age of children	.00	.01	0.10
Education	.21	.20	2.22*

<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Occupation 1	-	.36	2.43*
Occupation 2	-	.11	1.13
Family Income	.14	.13	1.37
Length at job	-.04	-.11	-1.33
Work-role salience	.12	.06	0.72
Sex-role egalitarianism	.29**	.26	3.06**

<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
Effective coping	-.26**	-.18	-2.36*
Social provisions	.06	.17	1.93
Partner support	-.43**	-.44	-5.48**

* p < .05

** p < .01

TABLE 12

Adjusted and Unadjusted Means on Work-Family Conflict for the
Three Occupational Groups

Traditional Non-professional			Traditional Professional			Non-traditional Professional			
Unad- justed		Adju- sted	Unad- justed		Adju- sted	Unad- justed		Adju- sted	
<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	
49	48.10	19.06	57.60a	53.88	15.46	52.58a	49.27	13.88	41.08b

Adjusted and Unadjusted Means, Controlling for
Effectiveness of Coping Strategies and Social Support

49	48.10	19.06	56.65a	53.88	15.46	50.86a	49.27	13.88	43.75b
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Note: Within a row, means sharing the same subscript fail to differ at
 $p < .05$

difference between these latter two groups. The fourth block (coping and support) accounted for 19% of the variance, $F(3,132) = 13.54$, $p < .01$. Effectiveness of coping strategies, $\beta = -.18$, $t(132) = -2.36$, $p < .05$, and partner support, $\beta = -.44$, $t(132) = -5.48$, $p < .01$, emerged as significant predictors. High effective coping and high partner support were both related to low conflict. When the occupational groups were compared, controlling for effectiveness of coping strategies, social support and partner support, as well as blocks 1, 2, and 3, the nontraditional professionals were still lower on work-family conflict than the traditional professionals and the traditional nonprofessionals, but no statistically significant differences emerged between these latter two groups.

For the most part, the results were identical to those obtained with the total sample. Two variables, social desirability and family income, emerged as significant in the total sample, but were not significant for the subsample of women living with partners.

Correlates of conflict for subjects with partners according to occupational group. These analyses were the same as the one above with one exception; occupation was no longer a predictor. Table 13 presents the results for the

TABLE 13

Correlates of Conflict For Traditional Non-professionals Living
With a Partner

Criterion: Work-Family Conflict

<u>Predictor Blocks</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>d.f</u>
1. Social Desirability	.09	4.91*	1,47
2. Demographics	.04	0.48	4,43
3. Work and attitude variables	.18	2.61	4,39
4. Coping and support	.28	8.19**	3,36
Total for Steps 2-4	.50	3.99**	11,36

<u>Individual Predictors</u>	<u>r with work</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>Family conflict</u>	<u>coefficent(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	-.31*	-.31	-2.22*

<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	-.03	-.12	-0.66
Number of children	.06	.01	0.04
Average age of children	.02	.06	0.28
Education	.18	.18	1.19*

<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.07	.01	0.08
Length at job	-.06	.00	0.02
Work-role salience	-.06	-.05	-0.35
Sex-role egalitarianism	.42**	.43	3.13**

<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
Effective coping	-.41**	-.23	-2.05*
Social provisons	.04	.18	1.47
Partner support	-.55**	-.53	-4.09**

* p < .05

** p < .01

traditional nonprofessionals. Social desirability accounted for 9% of the variance in work-family conflict, $F(1,47) = 4.91$, $p < .05$, and the remaining 11 predictors accounted for 50% of the variance, $F(11,36) = 3.99$, $p < .01$. Neither block 2 (demographics) nor block 3 (work and attitude variables) contributed significantly to the variance accounted for in conflict. The final block, coping and support, uniquely contributed to 28% of the variance, $F(11,36) = 3.99$, $p < .01$. The significant predictors in this block were effectiveness of coping strategies, $\beta = -.23$, $t(36) = -2.05$, $p < .05$, and partner support, $\beta = -.53$, $t(36) = -4.09$, $p < .01$. High scores on effectiveness of coping strategies and partner support were associated with low scores on work-family conflict.

For the traditional professionals social desirability was not correlated with work-family conflict (see Table 14), but the entire set of predictors accounted for 42% of the variance, $F(11,36) = 2.55$, $p < .05$. Block 2 (demographics) was not statistically significant. The work and attitude variables (block 3) added 21% to the variance accounted for, $F(4,39) = 3.43$, $p < .05$, but the only significant predictor in this block was work-role salience, $\beta = .39$, $t(39) = 2.99$, $p < .01$. Women who reported high work-role salience also reported high work-family conflict. The zero-order correlations revealed that family income was

TABLE 14

Correlates of Conflict For Traditional Professionals Living
With a Partner

Criterion: Work-Family Conflict			
Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.04	2.18	1,47
2. Demographics	.15	2.04	4,43
3. Work and attitude variables	.21	3.43*	4,39
4. Coping and support	.06	1.43**	3,36
Total for Steps 2-4	.42	2.55*	11,36

Individual Predictors	r with work family conflict	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>			
Social desirability	-.21	-.21	-1.48
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.11	.27	1.37
Number of children	-.01	.01	0.08
Average age of children	-.01	-.21	-1.06
Education	.34*	.34	2.46*
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.33*	.23	1.62
Length at job	-.01	-.10	-0.75
Work-role salience	+.45**	.39	2.99**
Sex-role egalitarianism	.21	.17	1.26
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
Effective coping	-.06	.05	0.38
Social provisions	.04	.04	0.25
Partner support	-.41**	-.31	-1.92

* p < .05

** p < .01

positively correlated with conflict, $r = .33$, $p < .05$, despite the nonsignificant regression weight. Again, family income was significantly correlated with education, $r = .36$, $p < .05$, suggesting that redundancy may explain this result. Finally, the coping and support block was not statistically significant. Overall, the results were identical to those obtained previously when women not living with a partner were included.

Table 15 presents the results for the nontraditional professional group. Social desirability was not significantly related to conflict, nor was the total R^2 significant. Coping and support was the only statistically significant block and uniquely explained 24% of the explained variance in work-family conflict, $F(3,36) = 4.46$, $p < .05$. Effectiveness of coping strategies emerged as the only significant predictor, $\beta = -.40$, $t(36) = -2.68$, $p < .05$. Although the regression coefficient associated with partner support was not significant, the zero-order correlation between it and work-family conflict was, $r = -.25$, $p < .05$. Partner support was also significantly correlated with social provisions, $r = .32$, $p < .05$, which may explain the nonsignificant β . These results were identical to those obtained for the entire sample (that is, including women not living with partners).

TABLE 15

Correlates of Work-Family Conflict for Non-traditional Professionals
Living With a Partner

Criterion: Work-Family Conflict			
Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.03	1.42	1,47
2. Demographics	.09	1.05	4,43
3. Work and attitude variables	.04	0.75	4,39
4. Coping and support	.24	4.66*	3,36
Total for Steps 2-4	.37	2.02	11,36

Individual Predictors	r with work family conflict	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>			
Social desirability	.17	.17	1.19
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.03	-.13	-0.56
Number of children	.05	.02	0.12
Average age of children	-.01	-.03	-0.12
Education	.28*	.33	1.96
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.02	.03	0.18
Length at job	-.18	-.16	-0.95
Work-role salience	-.02	-.10	-0.58
Sex-role egalitarianism	.17	.15	0.93
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
Effective coping	-.35*	-.40	-2.68*
Social provisions	.11	.32	1.85
Partner support	-.25*	-.27	-1.80

* p < .05

** p < .01

Summary. A comparison of all four analyses for subjects living with a partner reveals similarities and differences. Social desirability was a significant predictor only in the traditional nonprofessional group. Partner support was a significant predictor in the total and traditional nonprofessional samples, but the zero-order correlations between partner support and work-family conflict were significant in all four samples. Furthermore, while work-role salience emerged as significant only in the traditional professional group, effectiveness of coping strategies emerged as a significant predictor in all the samples except the traditional professional group. Finally, sex-role egalitarianism was a significant predictor only in the total sample, although it correlated with conflict in the nonprofessional group.

Correlates of Symptoms of Strain

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were also conducted on symptoms of strain for the total sample, the three occupational groups and for the subsample of participants living with a partner. The ordering of the blocks of variables for all analyses were as follows: (1) social desirability, (2) demographics, (3) work and attitude variables, (4) stressors, coping and support and,

(5) stressor x support interactions. The stressors, stressful life events and work-family conflict, were entered on the same step as coping and social support so that the effects of coping and social support would be controlled.

Correlates of strain for the total sample. Social desirability did not account for a significant proportion of the variance, but the remaining 16 predictors accounted for 27% of the variance in symptoms of strain, $F(16,152) = 3.35$, $p < .01$ (see Table 16). The demographic variables alone accounted for 10% of this variance, $F(5,164) = 3.81$, $p < .01$, and within this block age, $\beta = -.27$, $t(164) = 2.62$, $p < .05$, and average age of children, $\beta = .28$, $t(164) = 2.62$, $p < .05$, emerged as significant. The younger the woman the higher the strain and the older the children on average the higher the strain. In addition, education was negatively correlated with strain, $r = -.20$, $p < .05$, although it made no significant unique contribution to the regression. A check for redundancy among the variables in this block revealed that age was correlated with education, $r = .67$, $p < .01$. which may explain the nonsignificant regression coefficient associated with education. The work and attitude variables, as a block, were not significant, but the fourth block (stressors, coping and support)

TABLE 16

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates or Symptoms of Strain
for the Total Sample

Criterion: Physical/Psychological Symptoms of Strain

Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.01	1.80	1,169
2. Demographics	.10	3.81**	5,164
3. Work and attitude variables	.01	0.33	6,158
4. Stressors, coping and support	.13	6.84**	4,154
5. Stressor x support	.03	2.68	2,152
Total for Blocks 2-5	.27	3.35**	16,152
<u>Individual Predictors</u>	<u>r with symptoms of Strain</u>	<u>Standardized coefficient(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>			
Social desirability	-.10	-.10	-1.34
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	-.11	-.27	-2.50*
Presence of partner	.10	.07	0.85
Number of children	-.07	-.08	-1.08
Average age of children	.11	.28	2.62*
Education	-.20*	-.14	-1.75
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Occupation 1	-	.09	0.63
Occupation 2	-	-.10	-1.12
Family income	-.18*	-.08	-0.76
Length at job	-.05	.02	0.23
Work-role salience	-.07	-.00	-0.05
Sex-role egalitarianism	-.03	.04	0.44
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>	<u>r with symptoms of strain</u>	<u>Standardized coefficients(B)</u>	<u>t</u>
Effective coping	-.22*	-.07	-0.83
Stressful life events	.23**	.24	3.11**
Work-family conflict	.18*	.14	1.64
Social provisions	-.24**	-.20	-2.52*
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	.08	1.59	2.31
Stressful life events x social provisions	.10	-.20	-0.28

* p < .05

** p < .01

accounted for 13% of the variance, $F(4,154) = 6.84$, $p < .01$. Stressful life events, $\beta = .24$, $t(154) = 3.11$, $p < .01$, and social provisions, $\beta = -.20$, $t(154) = -2.52$, $p < .05$, emerged as significant predictors of strain within this block. High scores on stressful life events were associated with high levels of symptoms and high scores on social provisions were associated with low levels of strain. Although work-family conflict did not make a significant unique contribution to the regression on strain, it was correlated with strain, $r = .18$, $p < .05$, effective coping, $r = -.30$, $p < .01$, and stressful life events, $r = .18$, $p < .05$. Again, redundancy is the likely reason for this pattern of results. Similarly, the regression coefficient associated with effective coping was not significant, but there was a correlation between coping and strain, $r = -.22$, $p < .05$. The final block, the interactions between stressors and support, was not significant.

Correlates of strain for each occupational group. The separate analyses for each group were the same as the analysis on the total sample except that occupation was no longer a predictor in the third block. The results of the analysis involving the traditional nonprofessionals are presented in Table 17. Social desirability accounted for 16% of the variance in symptoms, $F(1,55) = 10.34$, $p < .01$,

TABLE 17

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Symptoms of Strain
for the Traditional Nonprofessional Sample

Criterion: Physical/Psychological Strain			
Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.16	10.34**	1,55
2. Demographics	.20	3.20*	5,50
3. Work and attitude variables	.04	0.78	4,46
4. Stressors, coping and support	.15	3.52*	4,42
5. Stressor x support	.02	0.86	2,40
Total for Blocks 2-5	.41	2.54**	15,40
Individual Predictors			
Predictor (Block 1)	r with symptoms of Strain (Dv)	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
Social desirability	-.40**	-.40	-3.22**
Predictor (Block 2)			
Age	-.02	-.48	-3.10**
Presence of partner	.22	.05	0.37
Number of children	.08	-.13	-1.03
Average age of children	-.04	.60	3.63**
Education	.17	.02	0.13
Predictor (Block 3)			
Family income	-.08	-.07	-0.55
Length at present job	.09	.07	0.59
Work-role salience	.00	.01	0.10
Sex-role egalitarianism	.15	.20	1.68
Predictor (Block 4)			
	r with symptoms of strain (DV)	Standardized coefficients	t
Effective coping	-.34**	-.35	-2.84*
Stressful life events	.28*	.33	2.64*
Work-Family Conflict	.28*	-.11	0.69
Social provisions	-.06	-.07	-0.58
Predictors (Block 5)			
Conflict x social provisions	.28*	.77	0.63
Stressful life events x social provisions	.27*	1.30	0.92

* p < .05

** p < .01

and the remaining predictors accounted for 41% of the variance, $F(15,40) = 2.54$, $p < .01$. The demographics as a block made a unique contribution of 20% to the variance accounted for, $F(5,50) = 3.20$, $p < .05$, and the significant predictors in this block were age, $\beta = -.48$, $t(50) = -3.10$, $p < .01$, and average age of children, $\beta = .60$, $t(50) = 3.63$, $p < .01$. Younger subjects and those with older children on average reported higher levels of symptoms of strain. The third block, work and attitude variables, was not significant, but Block 4 was responsible for 15% of the variance accounted for, $F(4,42) = 3.52$, $p < .01$. The important variables within this block were effective coping, $\beta = -.35$, $t(42) = -2.84$, $p < .05$, and stressful life events, $\beta = .33$, $t(42) = 2.64$, $p < .05$. High effective coping was associated with low levels of symptoms and high scores on stressful life events were related to high levels of symptoms. Although the β associated with work-family conflict was not statistically significant, it was correlated with symptoms of strain, $r = .28$, $p < .05$. Overlap between conflict and effectiveness of coping, $r = -.44$, $p < .01$, may explain the nonsignificant regression coefficient. The final block (stressor x support interactions) was not significant.

The results for the traditional professional sample are presented in Table 18. Social desirability was not

TABLE 18

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Symptoms of Strain
for Traditional Professionals

Criterion: Physical/Psychological Symptoms of Strain			
Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.04	2.45	1,55
2. Demographics	.05	0.52*	5,50
3. Work and attitude variables	.05	0.73	4,46
4. Stressors, coping and support	.17	2.70*	4,42
5. Stressor x support	.01	0.49	2,40
Total for Blocks 2-5	.28	1.15	15,40
Individual Predictors			
Predictor (Block 1)	r with symptoms of Strain (Dv)	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
Social desirability	-.21	-.21	-1.57
Predictor (Block 2)			
Age	-.18	-.27	-1.32
Presence of partner	.01	-.02	-0.16
Number of children	-.04	-.05	-0.37
Average age of children	.09	-.08	-0.37
Education	-.01	-.02	-0.14
Predictor (Block 3)			
Family income	-.14	-.29	-1.66
Length at present job	.04	.00	-0.02
Work-role salience	.04	.02	0.15
Sex-role egalitarianism	.02	.04	0.26
Predictor (Block 4)			
	r with symptoms of strain (DV)	Standardized coefficients	t
Effective coping	-.18**	.01	0.05
Stressful life events	.25*	.35	2.41*
Work-family conflict	.14	.01	0.06
Social provisions	-.29*	-.26	-1.70*
Predictors (Block 5)			
Conflict x social provisions	.03*	1.43	0.93
Stressful life events x social provisions	.19	0.48	0.27

* p < .05

** p < .01

significantly related to symptoms of strain and the only block to emerge as significant was the fourth block, $R^2 = .17$, $F(4,42) = 2.70$, $p < .05$. The predictors largely responsible for this were stressful life events, $\beta = .35$, $t(40) = 2.41$, $p < .05$, and social provisions, $\beta = -.26$, $t(40) = -1.70$, $p < .05$. High scores on stressful life events were related to high scores on symptoms of strain and high scores on social provisions were related to low scores on symptoms.

The results of the analysis for the nontraditional professionals are presented in Table 19. Neither social desirability nor any of the blocks emerged as significant.

Summary. A comparison of the analyses on the total sample and those for the occupational groups again reveals differences and similarities. The total variance accounted for was significant only in the total sample (27%) and the traditional nonprofessional group (41%). Social desirability reached statistical significance in the traditional nonprofessional sample, but the demographics (block 2) were significant in the total sample and the traditional nonprofessional sample. Age and average age of children were the predictors that emerged as significant within this block. In all four analyses the work and attitude variables failed to make a significant contribution, while the stressors, coping and support

TABLE 19

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Symptoms of Strain
for Nontraditional Professionals

Criterion: Physical/Psychological Symptoms of Strain			
Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.04	2.39	1,55
2. Demographics	.17	2.15	5,50
3. Work and attitude variables	.03	0.44	4,46
4. Stressors, coping and support	.09	1.35	4,42
5. Stressor x support	.06	2.00	2,40
Total for Blocks 2-5	.35	1.53	15,40
Individual Predictors	r with symptoms of Strain (DV)	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>			
Social desirability	.20	.20	1.55
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	-.32**	-.51	-2.56
Presence of partner	.09	.00	-0.02
Number of children	-.11	-.03	-0.26
Average age of children	-.07*	.30	1.60
Education	-.24*	-.08	-0.54
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	-.16	-.17	-0.93
Length at present job	-.17	-.04	-0.25
Work-role salience	-.11	.04	0.25
Sex-role egalitarianism	-.12	-.14	-0.99
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
	r with symptoms of strain (DV)	Standardized coefficients	t
Effective coping	-.03	.11	0.66
Stressful life events	.21	.14	0.83
Work-family conflict	.12	.25	1.47
Social provisions	-.26*	-.23	-1.47
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	.04	1.33	0.85
Stressful life events x social provisions	.15	-2.74	-1.92

* p < .05

** p < .01

(block 4), consistently emerged as significant in all samples except the nontraditional professionals. Within block 4 stressful life events was a significant predictor in three analyses (total, traditional nonprofessional and traditional professional samples), but social provisions was significant only in the total samples and traditional nonprofessional samples. Effective coping was significant only in the traditional nonprofessional group.

Correlates of strain for subjects with partners. This analysis differed from the analysis including the total sample in that presence of a partner was no longer a predictor in block 2 and partner support was included as a predictor in the stressor, coping and support block. Social desirability was not significantly correlated with strain, but the total R^2 for the remaining predictors was .27, $F(19,126) = 2.96$, $p < .01$ (see Table 20). Demographics (block 2) added significantly to the variance, $F(4,141) = 4.39$, $p < .01$, and the significant predictors in this block were age, $\beta = -.36$, $t(141) = -2.91$, $p < .01$, and average age of children, $\beta = .35$, $t(141) = 3.16$, $p < .01$. On average, younger subjects and those subjects with older children reported higher levels of strain. Block 3 (work and attitude variables) was not significant, but block 4 (stressors, coping and support) was, $R^2 = .11$, $F(5,130) =$

TABLE 20

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Prediction of symptoms of Strain
for Subjects Living With a Partner

Criterion: Physical/Psychological Symptoms of Strain			
<u>Predictor Blocks</u>			
	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.01	0.88	1,145
2. Demographics	.11	4.39**	4,141
3. Work and attitude variables	.02	0.58	6,135
4. Stressors, coping and support	.11	3.96**	5,130
5. Stressor x support	.02	1.15	4,126
Total for Blocks 2-5	.27	2.96**	19,126
<u>Individual Predictors</u>			
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>r with symptoms of Strain (DV)</u>	<u>Standardized coefficient(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	-.08	-.08	-0.94
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	-.23**	-.36	-2.90**
Number of children	-.01	-.11	-1.30
Average age of children	.10	.35	3.16**
Education	.05	-.09	-0.98
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Occupation 1	-	.08	0.54
Occupation 2	-	-.08	-0.77
Family income	-.14	-.07	-0.74
Length at present job	-.04	.02	0.25
Work-role salience	.09	-.03	-0.36
Sex-role egalitarianism	.04	.14	1.57
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
	<u>r with symptoms of strain (DV)</u>	<u>Standardized coefficients</u>	<u>t</u>
Effective coping	-.21*	-.06	-0.69
Stressful life events	.17*	.17	2.00*
Work-family conflict	.16*	.08	0.84
Social provisions	-.21*	-.19	-1.96
Partner support	-.27**	-.11	-1.10
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	.09	.10	0.33
Stressful life events x social provisions	.13	-.73	-0.84
Conflict x partner support	-.07	1.43	1.75
Stressful life events x partner support	.03	.13	0.42

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

3.96, $p < .01$. Within this block, stressful life events was the only predictor with a statistically significant coefficient, $\beta = .17$, $t(130) = 2.00$, $p < .05$; high scores on stressful life events were related to high levels of strain. The remaining predictors in this block, effective coping, $r = .16$, $p < .05$, work-family conflict, $r = .16$, $p < .05$, social provisions, $r = -.21$, $p < .05$, and partner support $r = .27$, $p < .05$, were significantly correlated with symptoms of strain. Although their β 's were nonsignificant, this may be the result of the overlap between variables in this block. For example, work-family conflict was significantly correlated with stressful life events, $r = .20$, $p < .05$, and partner support was also significantly correlated with stressful life events, $r = -.15$, $p < .05$. The final block (stressor x support interactions) was not significant. Overall, the results of this analysis were very similar to the one for the total sample (that is, when subjects without partners were included). There was only one difference: social provisions had a significant β in the total sample, but not in the sample of subjects with partners.

Correlates of symptoms for subjects living with partners according to occupational group. Table 21 presents the results for the traditional nonprofessional

TABLE 21

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Symptoms of Strain
for Traditional Nonprofessionals Living With a Partner

Criterion: Physical/Psychological Symptoms of Strain			
<u>Predictor Blocks</u>			
	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.16	9.26**	1,47
2. Demographics	.22	3.71**	4,43
3. Work and attitude variables	.07	1.25	4,39
4. Stressors, coping and support	.17	3.03*	5,34
5. Stressor x support	.02	0.51	4,30
Total for Blocks 2-5	.48	2.37*	17,30
<u>Individual Predictors</u>			
Predictor (Block 1)	r with symptoms of Strain (DV)	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
Social desirability	-.41	-.41	-3.04**
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	-.03	-.43	-2.80*
Number of children	-.03	-.21	-1.59
Average age of children	.32*	.61	3.70**
Education	.07	.24	1.94
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.03	-.08	0.63
Length at present job	.15	.18	1.36
Work-role salience	.04	.01	0.08
Sex-role egalitarianism	.17	.17	1.38
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
	r with symptoms of strain (DV)	Standardized coefficients	t
Effective coping	-.39**	.35	-2.88*
Stressful life events	.22	.39	2.89*
Work-family conflict	.31*	-.13	-0.77
Social provisions	.09	-.06	-0.49
Partner support	-.35*	.07	0.42
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	.31*	-.13	-0.30
Stressful life events x social provisions	.20	-.59	-0.31
Conflict x partner support	.07	2.01	1.39
Stressful life events x partner support	.07	.14	0.33

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

group. Social desirability was responsible for 16% of the variance accounted for in symptoms of strain, $F(1,47) = 9.26$, $p < .01$, the remaining 17 predictors results in an R^2 of .48, $F(17,30) = 2.37$, $p < .05$. Demographics as a block contributed 22% of the variance accounted for, $F(4,43) = 3.71$, $p < .05$. The significant predictors in this block were age, $\beta = -.43$, $t(43) = -2.80$, $p < .05$, and average age of children, $\beta = .61$, $t(43) = 3.70$, $p < .01$; younger subjects and those subjects with older children had higher scores on symptoms of strain. Block 3 (work and attitude variables) was not significant. Block 4 (stressors, coping and support) added 17% to the variance accounted for, $F(5,34) = 3.03$, $p < .05$, and effectiveness of coping, $\beta = -.35$, $t(34) = -2.88$, $p < .05$, and stressful life events, $\beta = .39$, $t(34) = 2.89$, $p < .05$, were significant within this block. High effective copers on the average reported low strain and those with high scores on stressful life events reported high strain. In addition, zero-order correlations revealed significant relationships between work-family conflict and symptoms, $r = .31$, $p < .05$, and between partner support and symptoms, $r = -.35$, $p < .05$. Work-family conflict was significantly correlated with effective coping, $r = -.41$, $p < .01$, and with stressful life events $r = -.31$, $p < .05$; partner support was correlated with stressful life events, $r = -.25$, $p < .05$, and with effectiveness of coping, $r = .28$,

$p < .05$. This redundancy may explain why conflict and partner support were significantly related to symptoms of strain, but did not have significant β 's. The final block (stressor x support interactions) did not reach statistical significance. With the exception of the correlation between partner support and symptoms, the results were identical to those obtained in the analysis that included participants without partners.

Within the traditional and nontraditional professional groups social desirability was not significantly related to symptoms of strain, and none of the blocks of variables accounted for a significant proportion of the variance (see Tables 22 and 23). In the analyses that included participants without partners, the stressors, coping and support block had emerged as significant for the traditional professional group.

Summary. The four analyses were compared in order to determine the similarities and differences in the pattern of results. As in the previous analyses, social desirability was only a significant predictor of symptoms of strain in the traditional nonprofessional group. In both the total and nonprofessional samples, age of the participant, average age of children and stressful life events emerged as significant. Effective coping was

TABLE 22

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Symptoms of Strain
for Traditional Professionals Living With a Partner

Criterion: Physical/Psychological Symptoms of Strain			
Predictor Blocks			
	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.02	1.10	1,47
2. Demographics	.03	0.31	4,43
3. Work and attitude variables	.04	0.41	4,39
4. Stressors, coping and support	.20	1.85	5,34
5. Stressor x support	.03	0.31	4,30
Total for Blocks 2-5	.30	0.78	17,30
Individual Predictors			
Predictor (Block 1)	r with symptoms of Strain (DV)	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
Social desirability	-.15	-.15	-1.05
Predictor (Block 2)			
Age	.13	.14	0.63
Number of children	-.08	-.09	-0.57
Average age of children	.09	.01	0.05
Education	-.02	-.03	-0.17
Predictor (Block 3)			
Family income	-.08	-.11	-0.61
Length at present job	.01	-.01	-0.08
Work-role salience	.12	.08	0.47
Sex-role egalitarianism	.13	.15	0.89
Predictor (Block 4)			
Predictor (Block 4)	r with symptoms of strain (DV)	Standardized coefficients	t
Effective coping	-.13	.03	0.18
Stressful life events	.26*	.37	2.24
Work-family conflict	.18	.05	0.26
Social provisions	-.24	-.24	-1.27
Partner support	-.28*	-.07	-0.34
Predictors (Block 5)			
Conflict x social provisions	.08	.52	0.65
Stressful life events x social provisions	.20	-.43	-0.17
Conflict x partner support	-.08	-.04	-0.02
Stressful life events x partner support	.07	.62	0.75

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

TABLE 23

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Symptoms of Strain
for Nontraditional Professionals Living With a Partner

Criterion: Physical/Psychological Symptoms of Strain			
<u>Predictor Blocks</u>			
	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.03	1.65	1,47
2. Demographics	.19	2.57	4,43
3. Work and attitude variables	.10	1.47	4,39
4. Stressors, coping and support	.03	0.91	5,34
5. Stressor x support	.13	1.78	4,30
Total for Blocks 2-5	.45	1.53	17,30
<u>Individual Predictors</u>			
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>r with symptoms of Strain (DV)</u>	<u>Standardized coefficient(B)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	.18	.18	1.28
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	-.33*	-.53	-2.48
Number of children	-.14	-.04	0.28
Average age of children	-.06	.32	1.64
Education	-.24	-.08	-0.53
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	-.31*	-.31	-2.25
Length at present job	.01	0.06	-0.37
Work-role salience	-.21	.04	-0.27
Sex-role egalitarianism	.00	.00	-0.02
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
	<u>r with symptoms of strain (DV)</u>	<u>Standardized coefficients</u>	<u>t</u>
Effective coping	-.01	-.01	-0.05
Stressful life events	.11	-.16	-0.81
Work-family conflict	.02	-.01	-0.04
Social provisions	-.21	.04	-0.22
Partner support	-.22	-.16	-0.93
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	-.03	-1.58	-1.76
Stressful life events x social provisions	.07	-1.98	-0.92
Conflict x partner support	-.15	4.97	2.05
Stressful life events x partner support	.01	-0.53	-0.44

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

significant only in the traditional nonprofessional group. No significant relationships emerged in the professional groups.

Correlates of Job Satisfaction

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to predict job satisfaction for the total sample, the occupational groups and the subsample of participants living with a partner. The ordering of the blocks for all the analyses was: (1) social desirability, (2) demographics, (3) work and attitude variables, (4) stressors, coping and support, and (5) stressor x support interactions. As in the analysis of symptoms of strain, the stressors (stressful life events and work-family conflict) were entered on the same step as coping and social support so that the effectiveness of coping strategies and social support would be controlled when the effects of the stressors were assessed.

Correlates of job satisfaction for the total sample.

Social desirability was not significantly related to job satisfaction, but the remaining 17 predictors accounted for 20% of the variance, $F(17,50) = 2.22$, $p < .01$ (see Table 24). The demographics (block 2) added 8% to the variance

TABLE 24

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of job Satisfaction
for the Total Sample

Criterion: Job Satisfaction				
<u>Predictor Blocks</u>				
	R ²	F	d.f	
1. Social Desirability	.00	0.00	1,169	
2. Demographics	.08	2.78*	5,164	
3. Work and attitude variables	.09	2.91*	6,156	
4. Stressors, coping and support	.03	1.69	4,152	
5. Stressor x support	.00	0.01	2,150	
..... Total for Blocks 2-520	2.22**	17,150	
<u>Individual Predictors</u>		<u>r with job satisfaction (DV)</u>	<u>Standardized coefficient(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>				
Social desirability	-.00	-.00	-0.05	
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>				
Age	.22	.23	2.07*	
Presence of partner	.10	-.08	-1.01	
Number of children	-.03	-.05	0.60	
Average age of children	.11	-.04	0.42	
Education20*	.14	1.65	
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>				
Occupation 1	-	-.23	-1.71	
occupation 2	-	.04	0.39	
Family income	.24**	.14	1.47	
Length at present job	.08	.02	0.29	
Work-role salience	.25**	.18	2.32*	
Sex-role egalitarianism15*	.11	1.40	
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>		<u>r with symptoms of strain (DV)</u>	<u>Standardized coefficients</u>	<u>t</u>
Effective coping		.19*	.17	2.08
Stressful life events		-.09	-.03	-0.37
Work-family conflict		-.01	-.04	-0.46
Social provisions		-.08	-.13	-1.48
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>				
Conflict x social provisions	.02	.06	0.09	
Stressful life events x social provisions	-.09	.07	0.09	

* p < .05

** p < .01

accounted for, $F(5,164) = 2.78$, $p < .05$ and the only significant predictor in this block was age, $\beta = .23$, $t(150) = 2.07$, $p < .05$. On average, older subjects reported relatively high levels of job satisfaction. In addition, education was correlated with job satisfaction, $r = -.21$, $p < .05$, but its β did not reach statistical significance. This may be due to the overlap between education and age, $r = .31$, $p < .01$. The work and attitude variables (block 3) also added significantly to the variance accounted for, $R^2 = .09$, $F(6,156) = 2.91$, $p < .05$. Work-role salience, $\beta = .18$, $t(156) = 2.32$, $p < .05$, was the only predictor to reach significance within this block; high work-role salience was associated with high job satisfaction. There were, however, two predictors within this block with nonsignificant β 's but significant correlations with job satisfaction: family income, $r = .24$, $p < .05$ and sex-role egalitarianism, $r = .15$, $p < .05$. Inspection of the zero-order correlations among the predictors in this block revealed some redundancy: work-role salience was correlated with family income, $r = .21$, $p < .05$, and with sex-role egalitarianism, $r = .17$, $p < .05$. Neither the stressors, coping and support (block 4) nor the interactions between stressors and support (block 5) emerged as significant.

Within each occupational group neither social desirability nor the remaining blocks of predictors were significantly related to job satisfaction (see Tables 25, 26, and 27).

Correlates of job satisfaction for subjects with a partner. Social desirability did not emerge as a significant predictor, but the overall variance accounted for by the remaining predictors was 22%, $F(19,125) = 1.64$, $p < .05$ (see Table 28). Demographics was the only block to add significantly to the variance accounted for, $F(4,140) = 3.49$, $p < .05$. Within this block age, $\beta = .28$, $t(140) = 2.36$, $p < .05$, was the only variable to emerge as significant. Older subjects, on average, reported higher job satisfaction than younger subjects. In addition, both average age of children, $r = .15$, $p < .05$, and education, $r = .17$, $p < .05$, were correlated with job satisfaction. Average age of children and education were also both correlated with age, $r = .66$, $p < .05$ and $r = .34$, $p < .05$, respectively, which may explain why their β 's were not significant. The results of this analysis were very similar to the one for the total sample (including subjects with and without partners) except that, within the total sample, the work and attitude variable block was significant. In the sample living with partners, however, family income, work-role

TABLE 25

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Job Satisfaction
for the Traditional Nonprofessional Group

Criterion: Job Satisfaction			
<u>Predictor Blocks</u>			
	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social Desirability	.00	0.26	1,55
2. Demographics	.16	1.87	5,50
3. Work and attitude variables	.03	0.45	4,46
4. Stressors, coping and support	.10	1.52	4,42
5. Stressor x support	.04	0.30	2,40
Total for Blocks 2-5	.33	1.14	15,40
<u>Individual Predictors</u>			
Predictor (Block 1)	r with job satisfaction (DV)	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
Social desirability	.07	.07	0.51
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.28*	.43	2.45
Presence of partner	-.16	-.29	-1.87
Number of children	.04	-.03	-0.19
Average age of children	.10	-.07	-0.35
Education	-.03	.01	0.07
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.17	.08	0.50
Length at present job	.01	.00	0.02
Work-role salience	.14	.16	1.17
Sex-role egalitarianism	.03	-.01	-0.06
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
	r with job satisfaction	Standardized coefficients	t
Effective coping	.12	.17	1.09
Stressful life events	-.21	-.11	-0.64
Work-family conflict	-.15	-.12	-0.64
Social provisions	-.19	-.25	-1.65
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	-.19	-2.23	-1.47
Stressful life events x social provisions	-.24*	-.25	-0.14

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

TABLE 26

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Job Satisfaction
for the Traditional Professional Group

<u>Criterion: Job Satisfaction</u>			
<u>Predictor Blocks</u>			
	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social desirability	.00	0.01	1,55
2. Demographics	.01	0.10	5,50
3. Work and attitude variables	.12	1.53	4,46
4. Stressors, coping and support	.05	0.70	4,42
5. Stressor x support	.06	1.63	2,40
... Total for Blocks 2-5	.24	0.84	15,40
<u>Individual Predictors</u>	<u>r with job</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>satisfaction (DV)</u>	<u>coefficient(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	-.01	-.01	-0.08
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.07	.05	0.25
Presence of partner	-.01	-.07	-0.43
Number of children	-.03	-.03	-0.22
Average age of children	.05	.04	0.17
Education	.03	.02	0.18
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.24*	.30	1.76
Length at present job	.05	.05	0.33
Work-role salience	.22*	.22	1.52
Sex-role egalitarianism	.02	.07	0.45
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>	<u>r with job</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	
	<u>satisfaction</u>	<u>coefficients</u>	<u>t</u>
Effective coping	.15	.23	1.37
Stressful life events	.07	.16	1.02
Work-family conflict	.14	-.06	-0.34
Social provisions	-.02	0.13	-0.78
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	.12	.32	0.20
Stressful life events x social provisions	.08	3.40	1.81

* p < .05

** p < .01

TABLE 27

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Job Satisfaction
for the Nontraditional Professional Group

Criterion: Job Satisfaction			
<u>Predictor Blocks</u>			
	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social desirability	.01	0.55	1,55
2. Demographics	.04	0.41	5,50
3. Work and attitude variables	.19	2.91	4,46
4. Stressors, coping and support	.04	0.55	4,42
5. Stressor x support	.08	2.52	2,40
Total for Blocks 2-5	.35	1.40	15,40
<u>Individual Predictors</u>			
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>r with job satisfaction (DV)</u>	<u>Standardized coefficient(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	.10	.10	0.74
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.13	.11	0.50
Presence of partner	.12	.07	0.45
Number of children	-.08	-.07	-0.53
Average age of children	.15	.07	0.36
Education	-0.04	-.09	-0.56
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	-.03	.04	0.22
Length at present job	.11	-.01	-0.08
Work-role salience	.24*	.31	2.18
Sex-role egalitarianism	.26*	.32	2.33
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
	<u>r with job satisfaction</u>	<u>Standardized coefficients</u>	<u>t</u>
Effective coping	.19	.19	1.09
Stressful life events	.18	-.03	-0.17
Work-family conflict	-.02	.07	0.42
Social provisions	.20	.10	0.58
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	.04	3.13	1.94
Stressful life events x social provisions	-.16	-2.07	-1.42

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

TABLE 28

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Job Satisfaction
for Subjects Living With a Partner

Criterion: Job Satisfaction			
<u>Predictor Blocks</u>			
	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social desirability	.00	0.74	1,145
2. Demographics	.09	3.49*	4,140
3. Work and attitude variables	.07	1.86	6,134
4. Stressors, coping and support	.04	1.29	5,129
5. Stressor x support	.02	0.63	4,125
Total for Blocks 2-5	.22	1.64*	19,125
<u>Individual Predictors</u>			
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>r with job satisfaction (DV)</u>	<u>Standardized coefficient(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	-.07	-.07	0.86
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.28*	.28	2.36*
Number of children	-.04	-.07	-0.90
Average age of children	.15*	-.02	-0.14
Education	.17*	.07	0.83
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Occupation 1	-	-.15	-1.00
Occupation 2	-	.05	0.47
Family income	.21*	.12	1.28
Work-role salience	.22*	.13	1.55
Sex-role egalitarianism	.19*	.16	1.91
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
	<u>r with job satisfaction</u>	<u>Standardized coefficients</u>	<u>t</u>
Effective coping	.18*	.15	1.74
Stressful life events	-.06	.02	0.23
Work-family conflict	-.04	-.09	-0.86
Social provisions	.10	-.12	-1.22
Partner support	.02	.05	0.50
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	-.01	-.70	-0.82
Stressful life events x social provisions	-.06	.03	0.03
Conflict x partner support	.02	.47	1.44
Stressful life events x partner support	-.07	-.28	-0.83

* p < .05

** p < .01

salience and sex-role egalitarianism were significantly correlated with job satisfaction even though as a block they did not make a significant contribution to the variance accounted for.

Separate analyses for each occupational group that included only subjects with partners yielded the same results as previous analyses: the regression was nonsignificant (see Tables 29, 30, and 31).

Correlates of Effective Coping

A hierarchical multiple regression was conducted in order to determine the relationship between effectiveness of coping strategies (the dependent variable) and demographics, work and attitude variables and type of coping strategies after controlling for social desirability. The ordering of the blocks was as follows: (1) social desirability, (2) background variables, and (3) coping strategies (see Table 32). Social desirability contributed 3% to the variance in effective coping, $F(1,169) = 4.48, p < .05$, and the remaining predictors accounted for 27% of the variance, $F(14,155) = 4.29, p < .05$. The background variables had a unique contribution of 7%, $F(5,164) = 2.68, p < .05$, due primarily to a significant difference between the three occupational groups, $F(2,164)$

TABLE 29

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Job Satisfaction
For The Traditional Nonprofessionals Living With a Partner

Criterion: Job Satisfaction

Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social desirability	.00	.01	1,47
2. Demographics	.16	2.06	4,43
3. Work and attitude variables	.02	0.18	4,39
4. Stressors, coping and support	.09	0.87	5,34
5. Stressor x support	.07	0.74	4,30
Total for Blocks 2-5	.34	0.91	17,30
<u>Individual Predictors</u>	<u>r with job</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>	<u>satisfaction (DV)</u>	<u>coefficient(β)</u>	<u>t</u>
Social desirability	-.01	-.01	-0.08
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.39*	.44	2.44
Number of children	.03	-.04	-0.25
Average age of children	.21	-.05	-0.24
Education	-.00	-.00	-0.03
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.09	.07	0.47
Length at job	-.04	-.05	-0.29
Work-role salience	.12	.10	0.68
Sex-role egalitarianism	.02	-.03	-0.22
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>	<u>r with job</u>	<u>Standardized</u>	
	<u>satisfaction</u>	<u>coefficients</u>	<u>t</u>
Effective coping	.17	.18	1.07
Stressful life events	-.11	-.01	-0.06
Work-family conflict	-.18	-.05	-0.21
Social provisions	-.17	-.26	-1.48
Partner support	.03	.12	0.54
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	-.22	-2.26	-1.14
Stressful life events x social provisions	.20	-1.61	-0.63
Conflict x partner support	-.09	-.48	0.83
Stressful life events x partner support	-.09	.12	0.21

* p < .05

** p < .01

TABLE 30

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Job Satisfaction
For The Traditional Professionals Living With a Partner

Criterion: Job Satisfaction			
Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social desirability	.00	0.25	1,47
2. Demographics	.02	0.20	4,43
3. Work and attitude variables	.07	0.79	4,39
4. Stressors, coping and support	.11	0.97	5,34
5. Stressor x support	.16	1.90	4,30
Total for Blocks 2-5	.36	1.02	17,30
Individual Predictors	r with job satisfaction (DV)	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>			
Social desirability	.07	-.07	-0.50
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.12	.09	0.40
Number of children	-.02	-.04	-0.25
Average age of children	.11	.05	0.25
Education	-.02	.02	0.11
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.16	.23	1.31
Length at job	-.03	-.04	-0.21
Work-role salience	.12	.10	0.64
Sex-role egalitarianism	.12	.19	1.14
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
	r with job satisfaction	Standardized coefficients	t
Effective coping	.14	.28	1.58
Stressful life events	.08	.22	1.28
Work-family conflict	.04	-.18	-0.86
Social provisions	.03	-.17	-0.87
Partner support	-.01	.11	0.55
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	.03	.55	0.30
Stressful life events x social provisions	.12	-4.53	-1.97
Conflict x partner support	.00	-.25	-0.11
Stressful life events x partner support	.03	-1.41	-1.80

* p < .05

** p < .01

TABLE 31

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Job Satisfaction
For The Nontraditional Professionals Living With a Partner

Criterion: Job Satisfaction			
Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social desirability	.00	0.20	1,47
2. Demographics	.06	0.69	4,43
3. Work and attitude variables	.25	3.54	4,39
4. Stressors, coping and support	.02	0.22	5,34
5. Stressor x support	.09	1.12	4,30
Total for Blocks 2-5	.42	1.28	17,30
Individual Predictors	r with job satisfaction (DV)	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>			
Social desirability	.06	.06	0.44
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.17	.20	0.83
Number of children	-.11	-.13	-0.83
Average age of children	.17	.07	0.33
Education	-.03	-.11	-0.65
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Family income	.11	.04	0.30
Length at job	.15	.04	0.24
Work-role salience	.28*	.27	1.78
Sex-role egalitarianism	.32*	.39	2.66
<u>Predictor (Block 4)</u>			
Effective coping	.13	.15	0.83
Stressful life events	-.23	-.05	-0.23
Work-family conflict	.06	.14	0.79
Social provisions	.22	-.02	-0.08
Partner support	-.01	-.05	-0.29
<u>Predictors (Block 5)</u>			
Conflict x social provisions	.12	1.87	0.73
Stressful life events x social provisions	-.21	-2.45	-0.99
Conflict x partner support	.04	1.10	1.17
Stressful life events x partner support	.23	-0.10	-0.08

* p < .05

** p < .01

TABLE 32

Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Correlates of Effectiveness
Of Coping Strategies

Criterion: Effectiveness of Coping			
Predictor Blocks	R ²	F	d.f
1. Social desirability	.03	4.48*	1,169
2. Background variables	.07	2.68*	5,164
3. Coping Strategies	.20	4.79**	9,155
Total	.27	4.29**	14,155
Individual Predictors	r with Effective Coping	Standardized coefficient(β)	t
<u>Predictor (Block 1)</u>			
Social desirability	.16*	.16	2.12*
<u>Predictor (Block 2)</u>			
Age	.11	.06	0.73
Occupation 1	-	-.28	-2.93**
Occupation 2	-	.06	0.62
Work-role salience	.08	.04	0.49
Sex-role egalitarianism	.17	-.09	-1.13
<u>Predictor (Block 3)</u>			
Expression of Feelings	-.03	-.01	-0.01
Short-term tension reduction	.17*	.09	1.23
Depression	-.32**	-.21	-2.73*
Problem-solving	.14*	.07	0.94
Lessen demands	.28**	.16	2.12*
Recognition of society's influence	.18*	.11	1.42
Calling time out	-.33**	-.25	-3.13**
Perspective-taking	.18*	-.02	-0.29
Asking others to help	.11	.06	0.74

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

= 4.69, $\underline{p} < .01$. A Scheffe's test of the adjusted means indicated that the traditional nonprofessionals were significantly lower on effectiveness of coping strategies than the two professional groups, and there was no significant difference between the latter two groups (see Table 33). The coping strategies (block 3) contributed 20% to the variance in effective coping, $\underline{F}(9,155) = 4.79$, $\underline{p} < .01$, and the significant predictors within this block were depression, $\beta = -.21$, $\underline{t}(155) = -2.73$, $\underline{p} < .05$; lessen demands, $\beta = .16$, $\underline{t}(155) = 2.12$, $\underline{p} < .05$; and calling time out, $\beta = -.25$, $\underline{t}(155) = -3.13$, $\underline{p} < .05$. On the average, the use of the coping strategies, depression and calling time out, were associated with lower effective coping and the use of the strategy, lessen demands, was related to higher effective coping. In addition, the strategies, short-term tension reduction, $\underline{r} = .17$, $\underline{p} < .05$, problem-solving, $\underline{r} = .18$, $\underline{p} < .05$, $\underline{r} = .18$, $\underline{p} < .05$, and perspective taking, $\underline{r} = .14$, $\underline{p} < .05$, were significantly correlated with effectiveness of coping strategies, but the β 's failed to emerge as statistically significant. This may be the result of redundancy in the predictors as problem-solving, $\underline{r} = .19$, $\underline{p} < .05$, and short-term tension reduction, $\underline{r} = .23$, \underline{p} , were correlated with lessen demands, and perspective taking was correlated with calling time out, $\underline{r} = -.22$, $\underline{p} < .05$. The occupational groups were also compared after

controlling for type of coping strategy (see Table 33), but the same pattern of differences emerged.

TABLE 33

Adjusted and Unadjusted Means on Effectiveness of Coping
Strategies for the Three Occupational Groups

<u>n</u>	Traditional Nonprofessional			Traditional Professional			Nontraditional Professional		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>
57	4.56	1.00	4.52a	4.93	0.94	4.91b	5.05	0.97	5.12b

Adjusted and Unadjusted Means Controlling for Coping Strategies

57	4.56	1.00	4.60a	4.93	0.94	4.91b	5.05	0.97	5.04b
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DISCUSSION

Relationship Between Stressors and Strain

The main research questions in this study concerned the relationships between work-family conflict (the stressor) and two measures of strain (physical/psychological symptoms and job satisfaction), after controlling for the demographics, work-related and attitude variables, social support, effectiveness of coping and stressful life events. Work-family conflict failed to emerge as a significant predictor of symptoms of strain in any of the analyses. Contrary to prediction, then, the experience of work-family conflict in itself does not explain the development of physical/psychological symptoms of strain.

Barnett and Baruch (1985) also failed to confirm the hypothesis that conflict is positively related to anxiety (physical/psychological symptoms) in employed women. In fact, this relationship emerged only in their sample of nonemployed women. Barnett and Baruch (1985) suggested that women not employed outside the home may be perceived by others, as well as by themselves, as always being available, a situation that is likely to lead to multiple

demands that may at times conflict. Unlike women employed outside the home, the nonemployed women have no structured working hours or job description. As a consequence, the nonemployed women may attribute their difficulties in dealing with conflicting demands to some personal shortcoming and develop strain. Employed women, on the other hand, may be less likely to attribute conflict to their own inadequacies and more likely to attribute it to an overly demanding supervisor or spouse who does not share in domestic duties and child-care. In fact, some research suggests that employment has beneficial effects on women's mental health (e.g., Gove & Geerken, 1977). Furthermore, even though there is a relationship between the presence of children, especially young children, and physical and psychological strain (e.g., Brown & Harris, 1978; Campbell, Converse & Rogers, 1976), Brown and Harris (1978) reported that this relationship was weakened when a woman was employed outside the home. Thus, despite high levels of work-family conflict women employed outside the home are unlikely to develop severe symptoms of strain.

An alternative hypothesis holds that women who are employed outside the home are self-selected in terms of their ability to deal with conflicts between work and family. This would be especially true if their family incomes were large enough to allow them to remain at home

with their children if they so chose. The present data are consistent with the self-selection hypothesis. On average, women in the present study were experiencing moderate levels of conflict and very low levels of symptoms.

Although work-family conflict made no unique contribution to the prediction of strain, there was a small but statistically significant correlation between conflict and strain. The failure of work-family conflict to emerge as a significant predictor of strain may be the result of its overlap with other variables in the equation, and in particular its correlation with effectiveness of coping strategies. These results emerged only in the total sample and the traditional nonprofessionals, however, and not in the two professional samples. One reason for these differences may lie in the nature of the occupations; the nonprofessional women had relatively low paying jobs with limited possibilities for advancement. For professional women conflicts between work and family may be offset by the rewarding nature of their jobs and therefore such conflict is not related to symptoms of strain. Moreover, professional women are more likely than nonprofessionals to have partners employed in professional occupations with high incomes. Therefore, the professional women may have more choice in their decision to work outside the home. In this way, professional women may be more self-selected than

nonprofessional women in terms of their ability to cope with conflicts between work and family roles.

Professionals who cannot cope would have greater freedom to choose to work inside the home than nonprofessionals.

Two other studies also found a significant relationship between work-family conflict and strain (Berkowitz & Perkins, 1984; Cooke & Rosseau, 1984). Contrary to the present study, however, they found that work-family conflict remained significantly related to symptoms after controlling for some variables that were included in this study. After controlling for husband support, Berkowitz and Perkins (1984) found a positive relationship between conflict and symptoms of strain. Furthermore, Cooke and Rosseau (1984) controlled for family roles (i.e., marital status and presence of children) and other stressors (i.e., work overload) and also found a positive relationship between conflict and symptoms of strain. Nonetheless, although the correlations in these two studies were significant, they were fairly small, suggesting that work-family conflict does not have severe effects on employed women.

There are two major differences between the present study and those in which conflict emerged as a significant predictor of symptoms of strain. First, there were differences in the samples employed. The present study

included a greater variety of women (traditional and nontraditional occupations and nonprofessional and professional occupations) whereas Cooke and Rosseau (1984) studied only teachers and Berkowitz and Perkins (1984) included only farm women. The relationship between conflict and symptoms of strain may be specific to women in these occupations. In the present study, however, conflict did not emerge as a predictor in the traditional professional group which included a number of teachers. Second, neither of the previous studies controlled for as many other variables as the present study. In particular, they did not control for stressful life events. In both of the traditional groups, stressful life events were uniquely related to symptoms of strain. This relationship between stressful life events and symptoms is not surprising given the large literature documenting the negative effects of stressful life events (Andrews, Tennant, Hewson & Vaillant, 1978; Cohen & Lieberman, 1982; Miller & Inghan, 1979; Pepitone-Arreola-Rockwell et al., 1981). The present results suggest that women who are relatively high on stressful life events also report relatively high levels of conflict. Role conflict, however, does not add significantly to a woman's symptomatology over and above that which can be attributed to stressful life events. An implication of this is that research on role conflict ought

to control for stressful life events as a competing explanation for levels of strain reported.

The relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction, after controlling for the other predictor variables was also of interest. Researchers such as Nieva and Gutek (1981) have stressed the importance of determining the impact of work-family conflict on job-related variables. Work-family conflict, however, was not correlated with job satisfaction in any of the analyses. This suggests that a woman's experience of conflict between her work and family roles does not affect her satisfaction with her job. Cooke and Rosseau (1984) also failed to find a relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction after controlling for background variables and other stressors. Nonetheless, there was a small, statistically significant zero-order correlation between conflict and job satisfaction, and two other studies also found correlations between conflict and job satisfaction (Andrisani & Shapiro, 1978; Greenglass, 1984a). Greenglass (1984a), however, only found a relationship between these two measures in Type B women ($n=24$), and the work-family conflict measure used by Andrisani and Shapiro (1978) had questionable validity and reliability. The lack of a consistent relationship between these variables, particularly when various extraneous

variables are controlled, suggests that conflict had no reliable effects on women's satisfaction with various facets of their job. Again, it may be that outside employment is beneficial to women's mental health. Women may derive satisfaction from their jobs even though they experience conflict between work and family.

In summary, the results suggest that work-family conflict does not have serious negative effects on employed women; at least it does not affect their levels of physical/psychological strain and job satisfaction.

Relationship Between Social Support and Strain

Researchers (e.g., House, 1981; Pearlin et al., 1981) have suggested that social support is an important variable in the stress process. The two models describing the relationship between stress and strain hold that social support is beneficial to well-being regardless of whether the person is under stress (the main effects model) or that social support protects the individual from the impact of stressors and therefore impacts on a person when he/she is experiencing stress (the buffering model). Confirmation of the main effects model is usually found in studies involving measures of support which assess the individual's degree of integration in a large community social network.

Support for the buffering model is usually shown in studies involving measures of the individual's access to support that is responsive to needs elicited by stressful experiences. Given that the two measures of support (social provisions and partner support) used in this study are of the latter type, it was hypothesized that support would have direct effects and would also interact with work-family conflict.

As predicted, social provisions had a direct effect on symptoms of strain after controlling for demographics, work and attitude variables, work-family conflict, stressful life events and effectiveness of coping (for the analyses including subjects with and without partners). High levels of social provisions were associated with low levels of symptoms of strain. This relationship, however, only emerged in the total sample and in the traditional professional group. Once again, this finding suggests that the occupational groups are subsamples of the general population and thus the most informative results are those obtained from the analyses conducted on the occupational groups separately. Nonetheless, although the block including social provisions was not significant for the nontraditional professionals, there was a significant negative correlation between social provisions and symptoms of strain. Only in the traditional nonprofessional group

did no relationship between social provisions and symptoms emerge. The absence of any significant interactions between social provisions and the stressors, together with a significant social provisions main effect, is consistent with the main effects model and contrary to prediction.

The finding that social provisions was negatively related to symptoms is consistent with a number of studies (e.g., Cohen & Hoberman, 1983; Etzion, 1984; House & Wells, 1978; La Rocco, House & French, 1980; Paykel et al., 1980; Russell, Altmaier & Van Velzen, 1984). Nonetheless, contrary to the present study, these studies also found support for the buffering model (a stressor x support interaction). Two factors may have contributed to the failure of the present study to support the buffering model. First, although statistically significant, the interaction between the stressors and social support cannot be expected to have a large effect in the absence of a strong relationship between the stressor and strain (Cohen & Wills, 1985). In particular, work-family conflict was not uniquely related to symptoms of strain. Second, the sample had a restricted range of scores on the social support and strain measures. All of the women were relatively high on social support and relatively low on symptoms of strain. Thus, the data were not adequate to provide a rigorous test of the social support models.

A comparison of the analyses for subjects with partners and those for subjects without partners reveals an interesting difference. Social provisions and partner support were correlated, and as a consequence, the regression coefficient associated with social provisions was always nonsignificant when partner support was included in the regression analysis. Moreover, the correlations between social provisions and strain were smaller when only subjects with partners were considered; in fact, the correlation achieved statistical significance only in the total sample. Similarly, partner support was not significantly related to symptoms of strain when the other predictors were controlled, but was negatively correlated with symptoms, except in the nontraditional professional group. However, even in the nontraditional group this correlation approached statistical significance ($p=.06$). Thus, when a partner is present, partner support appears to have a stronger effect on symptoms of strain than social provisions in general.

Two previous studies (Burke & Weir, 1977, 1982) also found a correlation between partner support and symptoms of strain. Moreover, Berkowitz and Perkins (1984) found that husband support was a significant predictor of strain after work-family conflict was controlled and that it was a stronger predictor of symptoms than was work-family

conflict. Their results were also consistent with the buffering model; high levels of husband support generally diffused the negative consequences of work-family conflict. No support for a buffering effect of partner support was evident in the present study. The contradictions between earlier findings and those of the present study may be due to differences in samples; Berkowitz and Perkins (1984) included only farm women. In addition, in the present study the women were generally satisfied with the support their partner provided. As in the case of social provisions, a restricted range is not an ideal situation for testing the buffering model.

Neither social provisions nor partner support were correlated with job satisfaction or emerged as significant predictors of job satisfaction. Similarly, there were no significant interactions between social support and the stressor measures. Previous research on job satisfaction has tended to support the main effects model of social support (e.g., La Rocco, House & French, 1980; Pinneau, 1975), but these studies all involved male subjects. In the only study to include women, support from a husband, friends and relatives was not related to satisfaction for either Type A or Type B women (Greenglass, 1984a). On the other hand, Type B women who reported high support from their boss also reported high levels of job satisfaction.

The absence of a relationship between social provisions and job satisfaction in the present study is contrary to Greenglass's (1984a) findings. Again, the positive effects of outside employment on women may account for the present findings.

In summary, the results provide some support for the main effects model, suggesting that social support is beneficial to well-being regardless of whether the individual is under stress. When partner support and support from others are both available, it is partner support that is most beneficial.

Relationships Between Effectiveness of Coping and Strain

It was hypothesized that the effectiveness of strategies for coping with work-family conflict would be associated with low levels of symptoms of strain and high levels of job satisfaction. The analysis of job satisfaction failed to confirm this hypothesis, but the symptoms measure provided partial support for the prediction. Effectiveness of coping emerged as a significant predictor of symptoms of strain only in the traditional nonprofessional sample. In the other two samples, effectiveness of coping was not even correlated with strain. These results are not altogether surprising,

however, as one would not expect the effectiveness of coping strategies to be related to symptoms of strain or job satisfaction if work-family conflict itself is not associated with strain. Work-family conflict was not correlated with job satisfaction and was only weakly related to symptoms of strain.

Correlates of Effectiveness of Coping

The predictors that explained a significant amount of the variance in ratings of coping strategy effectiveness were social desirability, occupation, and three strategies ("depression", "lessening self-demands" and "calling time out"). The relationship between social desirability and effectiveness of coping was positive, so that on average, women who were high on social desirability reported high levels of coping effectiveness. This is consistent with Elman and Gilbert's (1985) hypothesis that employed women rate themselves high on a coping measure in order to present a positive image to a society that does not provide encouragement for the dual-career lifestyle. Although in the last two decades there has been a dramatic increase in the acceptability of mothers holding outside employment, opposition to this still exists (Greenglass, 1982). The women in this study reported moderate levels of coping

effectiveness ($M=4.85$, $SD=.10$, on a 7-point scale) which is comparable to the levels reported in other studies (Elman & Gilbert, 1985; Gilbert & Holahan, 1982). The relationship between social desirability and coping effectiveness suggests that the former variable should be controlled when investigating the effects of other variables such as type of coping strategy on effectiveness of coping.

The occupational groups differed on effectiveness of coping with the traditional nonprofessional group reporting lower levels of effectiveness than either of the professional groups. Furthermore, the same differences emerged when the ten coping strategies were controlled in addition to the other predictors. This suggests that the type of coping strategy employed is not sufficient to explain the differences between professional and nonprofessional groups in coping effectiveness. A more likely explanation is that professional women feel more comfortable with, or are more accepting of, their dual roles (that of parent and worker) than are nonprofessionals. Therefore, they may feel more confident in their ability to cope with conflict between these two roles. Consistent with this hypothesis, the professionals scored higher on sex-role egalitarianism than the nonprofessionals. Alternatively, as Harling (1985) has suggested, professional women may cope more effectively

than nonprofessionals because their higher incomes permit them to buy services such as household help.

As predicted, the coping strategy, "lessening self-demands" had a unique positive relationship with effectiveness of coping strategies. "Lessening self-demands" or changing what is expected of oneself fits with Hall's (1972) Type II coping (i.e., changing one's personal concept of the demands). A number of studies (e.g., Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Hall, 1972) found that Type II coping strategies were effective in dealing with work-family conflict. In addition, several studies found that women typically use strategies that alter their own personal role conceptions (personal role redefinition) rather than trying to alter external demands (Elman & Gilbert, 1985; Gilbert, Holahan & Manning, 1981; Harrison & Minor, 1978). The present findings replicate this pattern; "lessening self-demands" (i.e., personal role redefinition) was related to effective coping, but "asking others to help" (i.e., structural redefinition) was not related to effective coping. Such results are inconsistent with Hall's (1972) assumption that Type I or structural role redefinition strategies are the most effective strategies for dealing with work-family conflict. Although in theory they may be the most adaptive, in practice women may not be able to use structural role redefinition strategies. For

example, a male partner who does not believe that men should assist in child-care is not likely to remain with a sick child when asked to do so. Gilbert, Holahan and Manning (1981) suggest that employed mothers experiencing conflict are faced with a choice of actively trying to change the demands (i.e., structural role redefinition) of the maternal role or trying to accommodate these demands (i.e., personal role redefinition). Rather than attempting structural role redefinition, which might be interpreted as an attempt to shirk their responsibilities as mothers, they often choose the less adaptive type of strategies that do not challenge the status quo (i.e., personal role redefinition).

The hypothesis that "depression" and "calling time out" would be negatively related to the effectiveness of coping was also supported by the data. Both strategies represent reactions to stress that do not contribute to alleviation of the stress. "Recognition of society's influence" and "perspective-taking" were correlated with effectiveness of coping, but made no significant unique contribution to the regression on effectiveness. This replicates Gilbert and Holahan (1982) who suggested that these strategies facilitate coping by providing individuals with an understanding of the events in the context of their own lives. In particular, Gilbert and Holahan (1982)

suggest that the strategy "recognition of society's influence" may indicate a desire by women to change their environment once they recognize that such changes are necessary. Nonetheless, this strategy was not as strongly related to effectiveness of coping as was "lessening self-demands", probably for the reasons discussed above.

In summary, predictions about the effectiveness of various strategies were partially confirmed.

Correlates of Work-Family Conflict

Although the major purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between conflict and strain, the research also sought to replicate previous findings on the relationship between conflict and a number of variables. The present study differed from the other studies in that the variables were investigated simultaneously rather than individually or in small combinations. In addition, the present study included women not typically studied in the past (i.e., less educated women and women employed in organizations other than universities) and the sample was composed of three occupational groups.

Overall, the women reported low levels of conflict. For the total sample (that is, subjects living with and

without partners) the average level of conflict ranged from "slight" to "some" conflict ($\underline{M}=27.41$, $\underline{SD}=9.48$) amongst the roles of self, work and parent. The same range was evident for the sample of subjects without partners. Previous studies have also reported moderate levels of conflict (e.g., Baruch & Barnett, 1985; Elman & Gilbert, 1985; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979b). Taken together, the evidence suggests that the conflict between work and family experienced by women is not at a high level. This is consistent with Pifer's (1975) view that, although outside employment for mothers may sometimes lead to role conflict and add strains to relationships with partners and children, it may also strengthen these ties by establishing the relationships on a more egalitarian basis.

For the total sample, the total variance explained was quite small (23%) and was only slightly better for the separate analyses of the three occupational groups. A small R^2 is not unique to this study, however. Baruch and Barnett (1985) explained only 18% of the variance in conflict in a study that included age, family income, education, parental status and quality of experience in roles as predictor variables. The correlates of work-family conflict that have been identified so far clearly do not permit strong conclusions to be drawn

concerning which individuals are likely to experience work-family conflict.

In this study, for the total sample, the significant correlates of work-family conflict were occupation, family income, sex-role egalitarianism and effectiveness of coping. The traditional nonprofessionals reported the highest levels of conflict, the traditional professionals the next highest and the nontraditional professionals the lowest after controlling for the demographics, family income, sex-role egalitarianism, work-role salience and length at present job. Nevill and Damico (1978) also found that women in professional occupations reported lower conflict than women in nonprofessional occupations. There are a number of possible explanations for these findings: (a) compared to the other two groups women in the nontraditional professions may have more flexible work hours and therefore may more easily accommodate conflict between demands of work and family roles (e.g., staying home with a sick child); (b) they may receive more social support; or (c) they may deal more effectively with their conflicts. Women in the nontraditional professional group did not have higher levels of social support than the other two groups, but they were higher on coping effectiveness than the traditional nonprofessionals. After controlling for effectiveness of coping, however, the nontraditional

professionals were still lower on conflict than the other two groups, but there was no difference between the two traditional groups. This suggests that effectiveness of coping does not explain the difference between the traditional and nontraditional groups, but may explain the differences between the two traditional groups.

The finding that women in nontraditional professions experience less conflict between work and family than women in other occupations is consistent with Sieber's (1974) view that for the former group work-family conflict can be offset by the increased resources and privileges and enhanced sense of personal worth that is derived from their professional roles. Yogev (1982) has suggested that women in nontraditional professions experienced a primary socialization process involving traditional stereotypes about the roles of wives and mothers followed by a secondary socialization process involving the "professional" role. It is possible that these women use multiple reference groups to evaluate themselves. When evaluating themselves as mothers, nontraditional professionals use mothers remaining at home with their children as their reference group. However, professional males constitute their reference group when they evaluate their professional identity. Thus, in order to maintain their well-being women in nontraditional professional

occupations may not acknowledge that they experience work-family conflict because these conflicts may be seen as an admission of failure or inadequacy at not being able to integrate the demands of the two worlds. Women in traditional occupations, on the other hand, have only one reference group, mothers remaining at home with their children. For this reason they may feel less threatened by the experiences of conflicts between work and family. Thus, the group differences reflect differences in perceived work-family conflict.

Within the occupational groups the pattern of relationships varied considerably. Consistent with previous research (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1980, 1983) sex-role egalitarianism emerged as a significant predictor of conflict after controlling for the other variables in the traditional nonprofessional sample; nontraditional attitudes were associated with higher levels of conflict. In the two professional samples, however, sex-role egalitarianism was not even correlated with conflict. This is consistent with Holahan and Gilbert (1979a) who found no relationship between attitudes toward women and conflict in a sample of professional women. For the nonprofessionals, being high on sex-role egalitarianism and in an occupation where career advancement is limited may exacerbate frustration and highlight conflict. For professional

women, however, egalitarianism is consistent with their greater opportunities for career advancement and therefore does not exacerbate conflicts.

Effectiveness of coping strategies was a significant predictor of conflict in the nontraditional professional and traditional nonprofessional samples. This finding partially confirms the hypotheses regarding the relationship between effective coping and conflict and replicates the findings of Gilbert and Holahan (1982). However, the prediction that social provisions would be related to conflict was not supported. This is not consistent with Elman and Gilbert (1985) who found that support from individuals other than a spouse was negatively related to work-family conflict. These inconsistent findings may be the result of differences in support measures. Elman and Gilbert (1985) used a measure that specifically assessed support in dealing with role conflict. The measure used in the present study (social provisions) assessed levels of social support in general.

For the traditional professionals, work-role salience emerged as a predictor of conflict after the other variables were controlled. Work-role salience was not even correlated with conflict for the other two groups. This finding may be due to the composition of the traditional professional sample. A large number of subjects in this

group were nurses who work shifts, a work schedule that is highly disruptive to family life. For these women then work role salience is likely to lead to conflict.

Analyses for subjects living with a partner were conducted in order to determine the effect of partner support on work-family conflict. The prediction that partner support would be associated with low levels of conflict was generally confirmed. Partner support emerged as a significant predictor for the traditional nonprofessionals and was significantly correlated with conflict in the two professional groups. These results replicate the findings of three previous studies (Elman & Gilbert, 1985; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979a, 1979b), and underscore the importance of partner support when it is available.

Several variables which were found to be important in previous research were not significantly related to conflict in this study. The women living with a partner did not experience more conflict than women who did not live with a partner. One reason for this failure to replicate may be the small number of women who were not living with a partner. Another reason may be the use of a measure that allowed comparisons of only those conflict areas which were relevant to both groups. Other research has not compared marrieds and nonmarrieds only on conflict

between the roles that both groups have in common. Thus, it is not surprising that they found more conflict in marrieds than nonmarrieds as marrieds have the additional role of spouse. Previous research also found that mothers of young children and those who have large families experience more conflict than women with older children and those with small families. This study does not confirm these findings, perhaps due to a restricted range; most subjects had young children and few had more than two children. Similarly, age of participant was related to conflict in two other studies, but not in the present study. One of these studies (Cartwright, 1978) did not control for age or number of children, which limits the interpretability of her findings. Again, a restricted range on the age variable is a possible explanation, as most of the subjects in this study had been working a few years and were within an older age range than has been typical in previous research.

In summary, the prediction concerning partner support was partially confirmed, but the prediction for social provisions was not confirmed. In addition, some of the correlates of work-family conflict identified in previous research (e.g., sex-role egalitarianism and effectiveness of coping) emerged as significant. However, other correlates, such as age of children and presence of a

partner did not reach statistical significance in this study. Finally, occupational differences in conflict and the patterns of relationships between other variables and conflict were evident.

Relationship Between Social Desirability and Conflict and Strain

Social desirability was not related to job satisfaction in any group. However, it was related to work-family conflict and strain, but only in the traditional nonprofessional group. The relationship was negative; on average women in the traditional nonprofessional group who were high on social desirability reported low levels of work-family conflict. A possible explanation for this finding may be that women in the traditional nonprofessional group are less comfortable combining work and family roles than the women in the two professional groups. Thus nonprofessionals may be more likely to respond in a socially desirable manner compared with professionals.

Strengths and Weaknesses and Directions for Future Research

This study was one of the few to test the hypothesis that work-family conflict has negative implications for

women. Furthermore, no other studies on this topic have controlled for social desirability and stressful life events. The relationship between stressful life events and strain obtained in this study suggests that life events ought to be included in future research on work-family conflict and strain. In the present study and previous studies employed women have reported low to moderate levels of both conflict and strain. Either the women were not experiencing much conflict and/or strain or they were reluctant to report high levels of stress and/or strain. Alternatively, the standard measures of conflict and strain may be failing to assess important aspects of the phenomenon under investigation.

The present study was the first to investigate both coping and social support simultaneously, and one of a few to include a measure of social support other than partner support. The main effects model of social support was partially confirmed, but the data did not provide a sufficiently wide range of scores on support and strain to adequately assess the buffering model. In order to test this model more adequately, future research should include subjects with a wider range of symptoms of strain.

There was a significant relationship between partner support and work-family conflict, but a nonsignificant relationship between social provisions and conflict. These

findings suggest that when women have a partner the degree of support provided by the partner is an important resource in times of stress. Nevertheless, a number of questions remain. For example, when and how is support likely to be useful for women experiencing conflict and strain? A woman's satisfaction with the support provided by her partner was related to conflict, but what is not evident is how a partner may contribute or detract from this satisfaction. Women traditionally have supported their partner's careers and understood the importance of success and advancement to his personal well-being (Bernard, 1975; Nye, 1976). Men, however, often have difficulty giving their partners the support and encouragement that they themselves receive. This failing on the part of men stems from their being socialized to view women as supporters of their careers rather than serious participants in their own independent careers. It is clear that social support is important, but a more thorough specification of the support process, or "who gives what to whom regarding which problems?" (House, 1981, p. 22) is required.

The relationship between the effectiveness of coping strategies and work-family conflict, on the one hand, and symptoms of strain, on the other, also suggests some additional questions. Research needs to investigate more thoroughly which coping strategies are effective in dealing

with conflict and ameliorating strain, and whether women can benefit from the acquisition of these strategies. In particular, a comparison of personal role redefinition versus structural redefinition strategies deserves further consideration. North American society encourages personal solutions to societal problems and places the burden of social problems on the individuals involved (Caplan & Nelson, 1973). This reinterpretation of social problems as personal shortcomings probably reinforces the tendency of women to use coping strategies aimed at changing personal self-conceptions rather than strategies aimed at changing the environment. Mothers in two-career families may in fact benefit from institutional solutions to the conflicts inherent in combining parenthood and outside employment to a greater extent than is suggested by the present data. Gilbert, Holahan and Manning (1981), for example, have recommended helping women deal with work-family conflict by having them explore their attitudes toward parenting and who should share these perceived parenting responsibilities. This exercise would lead to approaches for developing support systems and resources for parenting alternatives. Ideally, these alternatives would not place all of the responsibility for conflict resolution on the individual and would include solutions such as flextime,

paternity leave and quality day-care that is close to the parent's place of employment.

A greater understanding of the relative merits of personal versus structural change as remedies for role conflict would assist employers in evaluating the utility of providing various support services (such as day-care) as well as health care professionals who are attempting to help women deal with role conflict.

The nonsignificant relationship found between work-family conflict and job satisfaction does not mean that these conflicts do not affect other work-related outcomes. For instance, career goals, work motivation or intention to remain in the work force may be strongly influenced by such conflicts. Future research comparing women who drop out of the work force with those who remain in it may be one way to begin an investigation of these issues. In addition, it would permit a test of the hypothesis that women employed outside the home are self-selected for their ability to deal with role conflict.

Finally, the cross-sectional correlational design of this study did not permit inferences concerning causal relationships. A longitudinal study would allow more definitive conclusions concerning the causal links among conflict, strain and the influence of coping and support. A study that monitored ongoing life events, coping

strategies, social support and strain might prove to be particularly enlightening.

The growing research on work-family conflict reflects increasing recognition of the interdependence between work and family roles. Despite this progress, however, research testing more complete models of work-family conflict is required. In particular, research should be directed at groups such as women in traditional nonprofessional occupations. The present study indicated that these women may have more problems integrating work and family responsibilities than other groups of women. More systematic information on the implications of the work-family interface, will enable psychologists to identify ways in which individuals can best balance their work and family responsibilities. This in turn will impact on the development of public policy on issues such as universal day-care.

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Objective versus subjective perception of role loads. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 55, 165-169.

BACKGROUND

Age: _____

Province of Residence: _____

Marital Status: (Please circle)

- Single
- Married
- Common Law
- Divorced
- Separated
- Widowed

Number of Children: _____

Age of each child: _____

To date, what level of education have you completed? _____

Occupation: _____

Length of time at present job: _____

How many jobs or positions (within or outside your present company) have you held during the last 2 years? _____

Net average family income:

- under 10,000 _____
- 10,000-19,999 _____
- 20,000-29,999 _____
- 30,000-39,999 _____
- 40,000-49,999 _____
- over 50,000 _____



INTER-OFFICE

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TO: To All Female Staff

FROM: Jo-Anne Barnard, Psychology Dept.

DATE: August, 1985

This letter is to invite your participation in a research project that is being conducted at the University of Calgary under the supervision of Dr. L. Radtke. The aim of this study is to learn more about women's work and family roles. I am interested in obtaining participants who are employed full-time (over 30 hours per week) and have at least one dependent child under the age of 18 years.

In consenting to participate, you will be required to fill out a number of self-report questionnaires regarding your work and family roles which involves approximately 45 minutes of your time. Participation in this study is voluntary and your responses are confidential. The information obtained from this study will be part of my Master's thesis and will appear as group data only. If you participate in this study you may request a copy of the results and this will be sent to you when the study is completed (December, 1985). If you have any further questions about this study, please do not hesitate to call me at 220-4964.

If you are interested in participating in this study, please fill out the form below including your name and telephone number where you can be reached. You may also contact me at the number above. I will then contact you and arrange for the package of questionnaires to be sent to you. If you are not interested in participating, or you do not fit the criteria for the study, I would appreciate if you would check off the applicable space and send this form back to me. I can be reached through campus mail by addressing the envelope to J. Barnard, Psychology Department, Arts Bulding. Your participation in this study would be greatly appreciated. Thank-you.

Yes, I am interested in participating in the study.
My name is _____ . Telephone number _____

_____ I fit the criteria, but am not interested in participating.
_____ I do not fit the criteria for the study.

CONSENT FORM

I, _____, agree to participate in a psychology study conducted by Jo-Anne Barnard, a MSc. student at the University of Calgary, under the supervision of Dr. Lorraine Radtke. I am aware that this study involves the completion of a package of questionnaires regarding aspects of my work and family roles. I have been assured that participation in this study is completely anonymous as are all responses I may give to the questionnaires. I am also aware that I may withdraw from this study at any time.

Signature _____

Date _____

APPENDIX B

PEARSON-PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PROVINCE OF
RESIDENCE AND THE DEPENDENT MEASURES

Dependent Variables	Province of Residence			
	Traditional Nonprofessional n = 57	Traditional Professional n = 57	Nontraditional Professional n = 57	Total Sample n = 171
Symptoms of strain	.03	-.04	-.06	.08
Job satisfaction	-.10	-.08	-.11	-.09